

KANSAS PRESERVATION PLAN

STUDY UNIT ON

THE PERIOD OF EXPLORATION AND SETTLEMENT (1820s-1880s)

Prepared by the
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Publication Notes

Materials for this publication were compiled and written by personnel (full-time and temporary) of the Historic Preservation Department (HPD). The initial draft of the historical overview and bibliography was prepared by Marilyn Brady and Carol Coburn, who worked for HPD as research historians in 1984. That material was substantially revised by Sondra McCoy, who was employed by HPD as a research historian in 1985, with further editorial assistance by HPD staff members Martin Stein, Martha Hagedorn, and Richard Pankratz. Others who read all or parts of the manuscript and made helpful suggestions were Dr. Leo Oliva, Joseph W. Snell, Robert W. Richmond, Thomas A. Witty, Jr., and Larry Jochims.

The reader's attention is directed to the first seventeen pages of the study unit on "The Period of Rural/Agricultural Dominance" which was published in 1984. Those pages provide background information on buildings that is also valid and useful for this study unit. Because that information is already available in the earlier publication, we reference it rather than reprint it. Anyone not having a copy of that earlier study unit may obtain one upon request.

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INTRODUCTION

The historic preservation planning process was developed by the National Park Service, Department of the Interior, as a means by which historic resources could be efficiently identified, evaluated, and preserved. It grew out of the increasing frustration engendered by neverending statewide surveys and the lack of properly evaluated survey materials. The shortcomings of the state surveys made state and federal review processes very difficult. Not enough material was readily available to decide if a federal highway project, for example, would have an impact on historic resources, or if a property proposed for nomination to the National Register merited listing, and if so whether it had local, state, or national significance.

The preservation planning process is designed to build on information that is already available and to be easily accommodated to new material. It can be implemented at the state and local levels, adjusting to the special needs and concerns of each. One of its most important aspects is its flexibility.

In Kansas the process is called simply the Kansas Preservation Plan and consists of several main parts called study units. These are chronological, conceptual divisions of Kansas history.

Archeology in Kansas

(Prehistoric Archeology component completed 1986)

The Settlement Period (1820s-1880s)

The Period of Rural/Agricultural Dominance (1865-1900)
(completed Feb., 1984)

A Time of Contrasts: Progress, Prosperity, and the
Great Depression (1893-1939)

The Recent Past (post 1939)

Local Historic Resource Surveys

The Kansas Preservation Plan is meant to give direction to local preservation efforts as well as to state level projects. Each of the study units will then be a concise, easy to read document that can be used by planners, scholars, historical societies, county or city commissions, and others who are interested in or involved with historic resources. Each study unit will be kept in a looseleaf binder at the Historic Preservation Department (HPD) so that revisions and additions can be made easily. Copies of these study units will be distributed to interested parties as they become available.

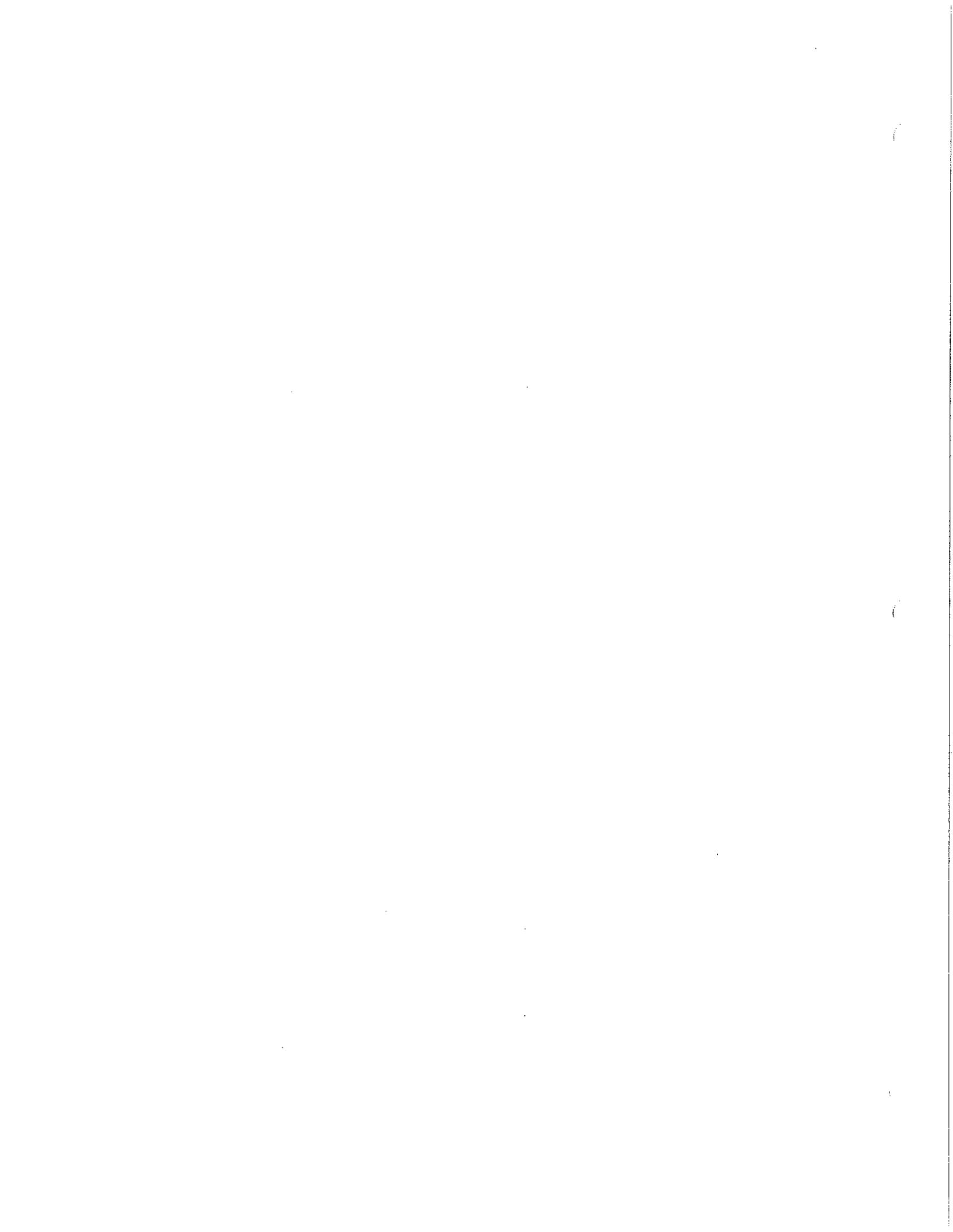


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Part I: 1820-1854, The Pre-Territorial Period

Introduction

After Missouri joined the Union in 1821, those lands lying to the west remained for many years as unorganized territory. William Clark, one of the principals of the Lewis and Clark Expedition (1804-1806), served as Superintendent of Indian Affairs at St. Louis and as governor of the Missouri Territory (1813-1821). In the 1820s, he aided negotiations which moved Indian tribes from their homes in eastern states to the unorganized territory west of Missouri. On June 30, 1834, all unorganized land, including future Kansas, was given the name "Indian Country," and for the purposes of administration was placed under the jurisdiction of Missouri. It remained there for another two decades.

Geographers classify Kansas as a plain, but its surface features (topography) are not everywhere the same. Six physiographic units have been defined, and subdivisions are noted in four of these, recognizing the distinctive landscapes that are present in different parts of the state.

In the extreme southeastern corner of the state a small portion of the Springfield Plateau extends into Kansas with the Spring River forming its western boundary. This section is essentially flat with relief averaging less than 60 feet.

The Osage Plains consist of approximately the eastern one-third of the state south of the Kansas River. Two major subdivisions of the Osage Plains are the Osage Cuestas and the Flint Hills Upland. The Osage Cuestas are characterized by a series of east-facing escarpments trending in northeast-southwest directions between which are flat to gently rolling plains. Maximum relief from cuesta summit to river valley below is 200 feet. West of the Osage Cuestas are the Flint Hills Uplands, a range of hills about 20 miles wide. Almost all of the limestone strata in this region contain flint or chert and this hard stone is found weathered on the surface everywhere, thus giving the region its name. Differing resistance of the limestone layers to the forces of erosion produces a landscape characterized by broad benches. Relief in this region is about 350 feet. Two smaller subdivisions of the Osage Cuestas are also defined. The Cherokee Lowland, an area of about a thousand square miles bordering the Springfield Plateau on the west, is a gently undulating landscape developed upon soft shales and sandstones. Another area of sandstone is a triangular belt of sandstone hills approximately ten miles wide called the Chautauqua Hills, which intrude northward into the Osage Cuestas from the Kansas-Oklahoma state line in Chautauqua and Montgomery counties. Erosion here has produced a series or range of low hills intersected by many deep valleyed small streams.

The Dissected Till Plains is the area of northeast Kansas bounded approximately by the Kansas and Blue Rivers that was directly affected by glaciation in early Pleistocene times. Topography in the Dissected Till Plains reflects the result of at least two invasions of ice. Interstream

areas or divides remote from major drainages are smooth, broad, and well rounded. Rocks transported by the glaciers from distant origins are found on the surface and buried in loess which mantles this region. The hilliest and roughest portion in this section is a strip several miles wide following the bluffs of the Missouri River. The upland surface here is deeply incised into a ragged region of spurs, buttresses, and convex-sloped hills. The Attenuated Drift Border covers an area approximately 25 to 35 miles wide adjacent to the Dissected Till Plains. This region's topography is more like the adjacent Osage Cuestas and Flint Hills Upland, but isolated patches of till, outwash, and scattered boulders, cobbles and pebbles of ice-transported materials can be found.

The Arkansas River Lowlands is an area of varying width that parallels the course of that river through the state. This unit is further subdivided into the Finney, Great Bend, McPherson, and Wellington lowlands. The landscape in the first three subdivisions is similar and can be characterized as flat and poorly drained. Sand dunes of varying widths parallel the river channel on the south and also mark the courses of tributary streams. The Wellington Lowland differs from the others as it has a rolling topography and bedrock is commonly exposed over wide areas of the unit.

The Dissected High Plains include the Red Hills south of the Arkansas River and the Smoky and Blue Hills north of that stream. As its name implies this region is characterized by its hilly and broken character. The Red Hills are located along the Oklahoma-Kansas border in Meade, Clark, Comanche, and Barber counties with an extension northward into Harper and Kingman counties. The name of this unit is derived from the red color of the exposed bedrock and soil. Topography in the region is characterized by buttes and mesas (small table-like plateaus), pinnacles, pyramids, and stream valleys lined by steep bluffs. Solution of underlying rock strata produces sink holes and caves which are relatively common features in the region. North of the Arkansas River are found the Smoky Hills, a strip 20 to 40 miles wide forming the eastern part of the Dissected High Plains and the Blue Hills lying immediately to the west. The topography of the Smoky Hills is characterized by sandstone bluffs of various heights exposed along the stream valleys with numerous outlying hills and mounds. The Blue Hills, named for a characteristic bluish haze present in the atmosphere seen when viewing the hills from a distance, are formed on underlying limestone and shale strata. Their topography is more regular than that of the sandstone hills to the east, producing a rolling topography in eroded shale and steep rocky escarpments and flat topped plateaus on limestone.

The High Plains section occupies approximately the western one-third of the state. Broad reaches of flat uplands characterize the region, but several large basins and a large area of sand dunes in the southwestern part of the High Plains provide contrasting landscapes.

The rocks and mineral resources in the different regions provide building materials and materials for road construction, while gas, oil, coal, and other rocks and minerals are used commercially.

The original Kansas territory organized in 1854 included land to the Continental Divide. The boundaries were reduced to the present lines by Congress before statehood in 1861. The Kansas parallelogram extends 410 miles east to west and 210 miles north to south, with a jagged corner in the northeast where the Missouri River serves as the boundary. It has a total area of 82,158 square miles, of which over ninety percent is used for agricultural purposes. Beginning at 700 feet above sea level in Montgomery County, the undulating surface rises to a high point of 4,135 feet in Wallace County at the western border. Rainfall varies from an average of forty inches on the eastern border to sixteen inches on the western border. The worst of the floods in the pre-territorial period took place in 1826 and 1844 when the Kansas and Missouri rivers and their tributaries inundated wide valleys, wiping out crops, villages, and trading posts. More often than not, the weather was conducive to gardening activities by the Indian population living here prior to 1854.

A natural resource essential to man and animal alike--water--existed throughout Kansas, especially in the eastern half. Travelers along the Santa Fe and Oregon trails followed routes that kept them near water supplies much of the way. Diamond Springs, Lost Spring, Alcove Springs, California Springs, and Seven Springs were important stopping places on those trails in Kansas. Most springs were small, producing from one to ten gallons per minute. Larger ones, such as Rock Springs, Sand Springs, and Crystal Spring, produced from 350 to 1,200 gallons per minute.

The most valuable plants were the native grasses. In the east the tall grasses, such as big bluestem, little bluestem, Indian grass, and switch-grass dominated. The survival of livestock moving along the Santa Fe and Oregon trails was dependent on the supply of grasses. Farther west short grasses, such as buffalo, blue grama, and hairy grama, fed the vast herds of buffalo. Groves of walnut, oak, ash, hickory, and other trees in the far eastern portion and in the river valleys supplied wood for buildings and furniture.

Mineral resources, such as petroleum, salt, and stone, were used in limited amounts before 1854. Raw oil seeped from many tar springs along Wea Creek and other places just west of the Missouri border. Travelers could stop there and grease their wagon wheels. Indians used the oil for disinfectant, liniment, purgative, and ointment for sores on their horses. Out west, buffalo hunters processed salt from brine found in the salt marshes.

Available stone, mostly limestone and sandstone, provided soldiers and missionaries with building materials for their forts and missions.

The first non-Indians to see the land were the Spanish expedition led by Francisco de Coronado in 1541. Other early Spanish explorers included Father Juan de Padilla (1542) and Juan de Onate (1601). The French sent explorers and fur traders, particularly in the 18th century and gained control of the fur trade with the Indians in the Missouri River basin. After the United States obtained the territory from France in 1803,

Congress and President Thomas Jefferson authorized Meriwether Lewis and William Clark to explore it. Lewis and Clark touched the northeastern corner of Kansas on their way up, and down, the Missouri River. Lt. Zebulon Pike, in 1806, rode over eastern, central, and north central Kansas, and along the Arkansas River. Thirteen years later, the Stephen Long party ventured into the Kansas area. One detachment, led by Thomas Say, visited a Kansa Indian village on the Blue River in 1819; another detachment led by Lt. John R. Bell descended the Arkansas River in 1820. Both explorers, Pike and Long, viewed the land as being too dry for agriculture. Long wrote that the land was "almost wholly unfit for cultivation, and of course, uninhabitable by a people depending on agriculture for their subsistence."

Fur trappers, the unofficial explorers of the West, crossed the prairies carrying furs from the Rockies by boat or pack animals to St. Louis. Jacob Fowler (1821-1822) and Jedediah Smith (1824-1831) traveled from near present Kansas City and over much of the Santa Fe Trail route, while Sylvester Pattie (1824) crossed northwestern Kansas to the Santa Fe Trail. The Chouteau family of New Orleans and St. Louis engaged in the fur business, establishing several trading posts among the Osage and Kansa Indians in western Missouri and eastern Kansas.

Lt. John C. Fremont, frequently and incorrectly called "The Pathfinder," headed three official explorations (1842, 1843, and 1844) through Kansas on his way to the west coast, mapping the Oregon Trail on his 1842 expedition. American author Washington Irving described the southeastern corner of Kansas after his visit there in 1832. Historian Francis Parkman described in his book The Oregon Trail a trip made over the trail in 1846.

The western wilderness, with its huge herds of buffalo, attracted hunting parties, travelers, sightseers, etc., from the east coast and Europe in the 1830s, 1840s, and later. Several individuals published accounts of their experiences such as Maximilian, Prince of Wied-Neuwied, and Paul Wilhelm, Duke of Wuerttemberg.

The opening of the Santa Fe trade between Missouri and Santa Fe in 1821 signaled a new era for the "unorganized" territory. From 1822 until the railroads built across the state in the late 1860s, the Santa Fe Trail was the principal commercial overland route to the southwest. A profitable trade developed between the newly independent Mexico (as of 1821) and the United States. Although the trail was primarily a commercial route, it was used by numerous emigrants to the southwest, especially after the United States acquired the area from Mexico in 1848.

The most popular route west for emigrants was the Oregon and California Trail. Beginning at Independence, Mo., it followed the Santa Fe Trail to a point near present Gardner before turning northwest and then exiting Kansas near present Marysville. It was approximately 200 miles long in Kansas. A shorter, more direct route crossed the Missouri River at St. Joseph and joined the main trail before leaving Kansas. Some of the Mormons going to Utah used part of the Santa Fe and Oregon trails in

Kansas. Their main trail, however, crossed Nebraska.

Indian trails were relatively slight features on the land inhabited by the nomadic tribes of the west since their moves partly depended on the buffalo's movements. Cheyenne, Arapaho, Kiowa, Kiowa-Apache and Comanche Indians ranged over western Kansas hunting buffalo. In the east, the trails made by the Kansas, Pawnee, and Osage to hunting grounds in central Kansas were heavily used.

Introduction to Pre-Territorial Kansas Architecture

Indian shelters were the first form of architecture on Kansas soil. The size, shape, and material of these lodges varied according to the era in which they were used and the culture of their makers. Archeological evidence indicates people have lived in present day Kansas for thousands of years, but traces of their shelters or lodges have only been found beginning with excavated sites of the Early Ceramic Period A.D. 1 to A.D. 1000. Constructed of a pole framework probably covered with mats, bark, or hides and sometimes incorporating wattle and daub construction, these lodges leave behind meager remains for archeological interpretation. More substantial earth lodge remains have been found in sites of the following Middle Ceramic period circa A.D. 1000 to A.D. 1500. The earth lodge continued to be built in some variation into the 19th century. These early lodges had a square or rectangular plan with a central fire hearth and four main support posts. Later earth lodges had a round floor plan sometimes with a prepared clay floor. Construction details of earth lodges included an interior framework of large support posts, smaller wall poles, rafters covered with poles and the whole covered with brush, grass, and sod and plastered with clay.

Historic accounts of Indian tribes resident in Kansas document the use of earth lodges, grass lodges, bark and mat covered lodges, and the skin tipi. Some people used more than one form depending upon the place and circumstance. The Pawnee built large earth lodges which were used during the spring and fall when garden crops were planted and harvested. Summer and winter saw them living in tipis in western Kansas and Nebraska hunting herds of buffalo. The Kansa likewise were reported to be living in earth lodge villages in the Kansas river valley but were also using buffalo skin tipis when hunting in central Kansas. The emigrant tribes, such as the Potawatomi, brought with them building skills from their forested homeland, and they constructed bark covered lodges in the style of eastern woodland Indians. Members of some emigrant tribes, such as the Shawnee and Wyandots, lived in log or frame houses indistinguishable from Euro-American frontier dwellings being built at that time.

A historic episode at the end of the 17th century resulted in the construction of an adobe multi-roomed structure in present-day Scott County by fugitive Pueblo Indians. This structure, like those mentioned above, can be seen only through archeological excavation and interpretation. None of the native lodges have survived to the present day.

The Indian Agents and traders built crude structures of native timber. The Chouteaus had several trading posts in eastern Kansas; one of the better known was "Four Houses" near present Bonner Springs. The Kansa agricultural farmer, the person hired by the Federal government to show the Indians how to farm, established a trading center and blacksmith shop near present Williamstown. Buildings at these sites, as well as other contemporary sites, have disappeared.

The forts and Indian missions erected in Kansas during the pre-territorial period represent the first form of European architectural expression in the state. Fort Cavagnial, a small French fort built of logs in 1744 and used until 1763, was near the site of present Fort Leavenworth. Cantonment Martin, in Atchison County, served as a temporary base for Major Stephen Long during his exploration of the area in 1819-1820. No traces of these remain.

Fort Leavenworth (Cantonment Leavenworth), begun in 1827, was built, in part, to protect travelers on the Santa Fe Trail. Soldiers used timber in the initial construction but later used brick. Fort Scott was started in 1842. Both forts served all of eastern Kansas. Fort Atkinson (1850-1854), the first regular Army post in western Kansas, was built of sod by troops stationed there. Its purpose, to protect Santa Fe Trail travelers, was undermined by its great distance from supply sources such as Fort Leavenworth and by low morale among the few troops stationed there. After the fort was abandoned, the buildings were destroyed by Indians.

Missions were established among the native tribes and among those Indians who were removed from the eastern states to "Indian Country" in the 1820s, 1830s, and 1840s. Thirty-two missions were started during the pre-territorial period, but by 1854, only nine remained. Architecturally, the mission buildings ranged from crude log structures to those which reflected the Greek Revival style of architecture that prevailed in the east from 1820 to 1860. All the early log structures have been destroyed. Those built principally of stone and brick and which still remain are Shawnee Methodist Mission, Iowa, Sac and Fox Mission, Kaw Mission, Potawatomi Baptist Mission, and the Potawatomi Indian Pay Station at the St. Mary's mission.

Trails and Roads

Several categories of trails and roads existed in the period before Kansas statehood. The earliest were the Indian trails which crossed the plains to buffalo hunting grounds in central Kansas. Better marked were the roads used by trappers, traders, emigrants, gold prospectors, and overland stage and mail carriers. The military roads established by the Army connected the various forts. The territorial legislature ruled that section lines should be public roads, and also that certain already established roads should be official territorial roads.

Slaves fleeing from slave states such as Missouri and Arkansas used the routes through Kansas known as the "underground railroad." Never an official road, it nevertheless was important to hundreds of fleeing slaves. Used primarily at night, the "underground railroad" utilized a combination of cross country routes and established roads.

Following statehood in 1861, the state legislature authorized a large number of roads, most of them county roads. Prominent for a short time in the state between 1866 and 1885 were the cattle trails which brought cattle up from Texas to rail stations in Kansas. Sheep traveled from the Rocky Mountain region into pastures and feed lots in western Kansas.

Indian Trails

Resident tribes, such as the Pawnee, Kansa, and Osage, developed trails in pre-territorial Kansas to travel to their buffalo hunting grounds in central and western Kansas. The major Pawnee and Osage trails probably predated the Kaw Trail, which came into being after the Kansa Indians moved to their reservation near Council Grove in the 1840s.

The Pawnee Trail was a regular route of travel for the Pawnees of Nebraska into Kansas. It entered Kansas near the northeast corner of present Jewell County, went south across Mitchell and Lincoln counties, and crossed the northwest corner of Ellsworth County to the Smoky Hill River.

The much traveled Osage Trail began near the Osage settlements on the confluence of the Fall and Verdigris rivers and continued in a northwesterly direction through present Wilson, Elk, and Butler counties, to a point about six miles above the junction of the Arkansas and Little Arkansas rivers in Sedgwick County, the location of their hunting grounds.

The Kaw Trail, beginning near Council Grove, more or less paralleled the Santa Fe Trail before terminating some twenty miles west of the Little Arkansas Crossing on the Santa Fe Trail. A Kiowa trail ran from present Barber County to present Wichita.

The Santa Fe Trail

As early as the late 18th century the French and Spanish explorers

traveled between St. Louis and Santa Fe, sometimes going over part of the route of the future Santa Fe Trail. The trail took its name from its destination, Santa Fe, the capital of Mexico's northern province. Before Mexican independence in 1821, Spanish-ruled Mexico prohibited overland trade with the United States. Independence from Spain in 1821 opened trade between Mexico and merchants from the United States.

Captain William Becknell of Missouri, Thomas James of St. Louis, and Hugh Glenn of Ohio were the first to take advantage of the opportunity. They used pack horses to carry merchandise to Santa Fe. The second Becknell group, in 1822, used three wagons drawn by mules, the first wagon train over the Santa Fe Trail and the first to cross the great plains. Other merchants soon followed these examples. The Santa Fe Trail was surveyed and marked to facilitate international trade; commerce was the primary function of the trail.

With the urging of Missouri's Senator Thomas Hart Benton, the Congress in March 1825 authorized the President to provide for a survey of a road from Missouri to the province of New Mexico and to bargain with the Indians for safe passage through the territory. The forty-man survey party camped in a large, beautiful grove of trees which they named Council Grove. Here they signed a treaty with the Osage, which gave the United States the right to mark the Santa Fe road through their land and free use of the road. For this the Indians were given \$300 in trade goods. The survey party made a similar treaty with the Kansa Indians who were then living in the Kansas River valley.

At first traders left from Franklin, Mo., then Fort Osage, then later Independence and Westport, Mo. As the traffic increased, trail starting points included towns in northwestern Arkansas and in present Kansas as well as Missouri. Most of the branches combined east of the future site of Baldwin, Kansas. Other detached groups joined the main caravans at Council Grove, the major and final organization site before continuing west. Although travelers followed the general route which the surveyors marked with dirt mounds, they often deviated from the exact road, using a more direct or easier route where possible.

The Santa Fe Trail entered present Kansas in Johnson County, passed near the Shawnee missions, and followed a course through Douglas, Osage and Lyon counties to Council Grove. From Council Grove it ran through the present counties of Morris, Marion, McPherson, Rice, and Barton, striking the Arkansas River near the present site of Great Bend. From this point the trail followed the north bank of the Arkansas to the present town of Cimarron in Gray County. There it divided; the main road continued up the Arkansas, while a major branch called the "dry" route, ran southwest through Gray, Haskell, Grant, Stevens, and Morton counties, exiting Kansas at the southwest corner of the state. There were alternate routes at various points along the trail, particularly at the crossings of the Arkansas River.

Camping sites along the trail were selected according to availability of water, grass, and timber, often called the "trinity" of supplies.

These were abundant in eastern Kansas but became scarcer on the high plains.

In the early years, caravans were small and passage usually safe. Dangers from bandits and occasionally hostile Indians caused traders to request American and Mexican troops as escorts in 1829, 1833, and 1843. More often than not, people of all kinds met peaceably on the trail in the early years.

Mexican proprietors engaged regularly in the Santa Fe trade. The Governor of New Mexico, Manuel Armijo, and the acting Consul for the United States, Manuel Alvarez, owned freighting outfits. During the 1830s, Mexicans brought in silver amounting to as much as \$300,000 per trip, and also furs and mules to trade for manufactured American goods.

American merchants found the trade profitable. The Santa Fe Trail chronicler Josiah Gregg, in his Commerce of the Prairies, noted that the volume of trade between 1822 and 1843 usually netted profits from 20 to 40 percent.

With the coming of the Mexican War in 1846, the Santa Fe Trail served increasingly as a military road. The largest of the military expeditions, the "Army of the West," left Fort Leavenworth under the leadership of General Stephen Watts Kearny. Soon after the Mexican war, the military began to establish forts close to the trail to protect travelers and settlers and to maintain peace among the Indians and whites.

During the 1850s, commerce, communication, and emigration travel increased over the trail. One of the first stage routes in the west began operating monthly from St. Louis to Santa Fe in 1849. Service increased to once a week and finally to daily in the 1860s. For five years, the firm of Russell, Majors and Waddell, subsidized by large government contracts, dominated western wagon freighting along the Santa Fe Trail as well as other overland trails on the high plains. In 1853 they began hauling military supplies to Fort Union near the end of the Santa Fe Trail and to posts in Kansas.

Santa Fe trade continued to expand. In 1860, for example, 16,439,000 pounds of merchandise valued at \$5,000,000 required 9,084 men, 147 mules, 27,920 oxen, and 3,033 wagons. Six years later those figures had almost doubled with between 5,000 and 6,000 wagons crossing the plains on the trail.

The high volume of commerce with Santa Fe and other points in the southwest encouraged railroad promoters to consider building a line west over the route. Work began on the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad near Topeka in 1868. Workers laid tracks over much of the Santa Fe Trail route, completing the Kansas portion in late December, 1872. Overland stage and wagon lines went completely out of business on the Santa Fe Trail after 1878 when the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad reached Santa Fe, New Mexico.

Some permanent structures associated with the Santa Fe Trail still stand in Council Grove. The one-story Last Chance Store, built in 1857, served as a supply store, Indian trading post, and post office. Seth Hays, the first white settler (1848) in Council Grove, built a new home there in 1867, using native lumber and bricks from a local brick factory. The Seth Hays tavern (Hays House) stands nearby. These and the Post Office Oak Site (used as a communication center for the Trail from 1825-1847) and other sites comprise the Council Grove Historic District, a National Historic Landmark.

Few structural traces remain of former campsites mentioned by Josiah Gregg and numerous other travelers, but nearly all have identifying markers. Pawnee Rock, once a large sandstone rock, stands 100 yards away from the old Santa Fe Trail southwest of Great Bend. Traders' and soldiers' chiseled marks remain on the rock alongside more recent names and dates.

Pre-territorial forts on the trail included Fort Mann (1847-1848) and Fort Atkinson (1847-1848). Fort Larned was added in 1859.

Some river and creek crossings may still have the cut down (beveled) banks, stone fords, and bridge foundations. Over the years, however, floods have erased many remnants of these structures. Ruts made by the wagons are still visible in unplowed, unbroken ground at a number of sites.

These and other landmarks along the old Santa Fe Trail have been memorialized by the Kansas Chapters of the Daughters of the American Revolution (96 markers), individual land owners, the Kansas Department of Transportation, local historical societies and the Kansas State Historical Society, which have erected many monuments and interpretive signs along the historic highway. Markers for US Highways 56, 156, and 50 point out that they are near or on the Santa Fe Trail route.

The Santa Fe Trail Center, three miles west of Larned on Highway 156 exhibits and interprets items relating to civilian aspects of the Santa Fe Trail. The nearby Fort Larned National Historic Site concentrates on military aspects of the trail.

Ranches and Stations along the Santa Fe Trail

Surveyor Joseph C. Brown and Santa Fe road commissioner George Sibley kept journals describing crossings and campsites while they marked the route in 1825. The first markings proved to be a guide rather than the exact route for some travelers. Rather than follow the commissioners' trail marked by small dirt mounds, these travelers often took the most direct, practicable route.

Before Kansas was opened to white settlement, numerous campgrounds existed along the trail, but very few manned stations. A station could be merely a crude cabin or a non permanent fort such as Mann, Mackey, or Atkinson. Whites who settled near Indian missions such as the Shawnee

missions or at Council Grove opened trading posts and catered to the needs of Santa Fe travelers and traded with the Indians.

Beginning in 1855, several men established ranches along the trail where livestock could be corraled, provisions purchased, food served, and entertainment provided. The accommodations were usually minimal. The ranch at Walnut Creek crossing, built in 1855 by William Allison and Francis Booth, was the first west of Council Grove. One of the larger, better run ranches belonged to William Mathewson at Cow Creek. The military occasionally used it as a headquarters. Although they were not all in operation at the same times, the major ranches from Lost Springs west to Cimarron Crossing were Lost Springs, Cottonwood Crossing, Cottonwood Hole, Fuller's Ranch or Big Turkey Ranch, Little Arkansas Ranch, Cow Creek Crossing, Walnut Creek Crossing, and Cimarron Crossing. The ranch built at Cimarron, about twenty-six miles west of Fort Dodge, was the westernmost of the ranches on the trail in Kansas. Ranches west of Marion County (central Kansas) were the most vulnerable to Indian raids. Indians killed several ranch owners. During peaceful times, ranch owners exchanged provisions and other goods with Indians for furs and hides.

On July 1, 1850, Waldo Hall and Co. began monthly mail and passenger service between Independence, Mo. and Santa Fe. It depended on the villages, ranches, and forts along the trail for rest and refuge. Between Westport, Mo. and Council Grove, travel was safe. Stations within this area increased after the settlers began moving into Kansas in 1854. Where no village or station developed, the stage company itself built small cabins, sometimes of stone, about twenty-five to thirty miles apart.

The era of ranches along the Santa Fe Trail existed from 1855 until the late 1860s and the coming of the railroad. No towns were built on the exact sites, and no buildings remain standing. Ruins of a rectangular stone barn remain at 110 Mile Crossing (Fry McGee's Crossing) in Osage County.

Most of the larger ranches have been described in articles on Kansas history. Particularly detailed are Louise Barry's articles in the Kansas Historical Quarterly on Cimarron Crossing, Cow Creek, Little Arkansas, and Walnut Creek. Marion County, Kansas by Sondra Van Meter describes and lists ranches in Marion and McPherson counties.

The Oregon Trail

The Oregon Trail was known primarily as the emigrants' highway although it was also used by military and commercial traffic. It was the longest of the overland trails, going all the way from near Independence, Mo. (for the Kansas branch) to Oregon or California. One hundred ninety-three miles of the trail crossed northeastern Kansas. The trail was never a single route at its origin but rather a series of "feeder lines" or alternate routes. In Kansas the major routes began jointly with the Santa Fe Trail at Independence or Westport, left the Santa Fe Trail near Gardner, and went up the Kansas River valley, turning northwest to pass

through present Westmoreland and across the Blue River near Marysville, then on into Nebraska.

An estimated 250,000 emigrants, prospectors, traders, and other travelers used the overland trail to get to the Rockies, Utah, Oregon, and California from the 1840s through the 1860s. Traffic was already heavy by the mid 1840s, and the discovery of gold in California in 1848 made its use even greater. Prospectors followed the Oregon Trail to near Soda Springs in Idaho, and then branched south towards California. Another California branch left the Oregon Trail at Fort Bridger in Wyoming. The Mormons took this route to the Salt Lake Valley.

The route from Missouri to the mouth of the Columbia River in Oregon was first traveled by fur traders in 1813 but not developed as a wagon route until later. In 1830 a fur caravan of twelve wagons led by William Sublette, trapper and trader, pioneered the way from Missouri west to the Rocky Mountains. In present Kansas, they went south of the Kansas River from a starting point in Missouri. After following the Santa Fe Trail for several miles, they left it and angled northwest, swimming their horses across the Kaw at what is now Topeka and riding north into the valley of the Little Blue River. Road builders preceded the merchandise laden wagons so they could bevel the steep ravine banks, making the streams easier to ford. The Sublette party reportedly built a bridge over Cannonball Creek between the Vermillion and the Blue. At the time, trappers and traders called the route the Rocky Mountain Trail.

Interest in developing the trail escalated as trappers told of the lush Willamette Valley in Oregon Territory with its plentiful rainfall, warm winters, and comfortable summers. Both the United States and Great Britain claimed the area. Several thousand emigrants from the eastern United States had already settled in the territory before it became a part of the United States by treaty with Great Britain in June 1846.

Late in the 1840s, the persecuted Mormons followed the route to their destination at Salt Lake City, just west of the Rockies. Thus, the Oregon Trail was also called the Mormon Trail by some. Mostly, the Mormon Trail was along the Platte River in Nebraska.

Most of the caravans going through Kansas left from Independence or Westport, Mo. and followed the Santa Fe Trail to the Oregon Trail turnoff west of Gardner. The route traversed the counties of Johnson, Douglas, Shawnee, Pottawatomie, Marshall, and Washington, leaving the state at Section 6, Township 1, Range 4 near the 97th meridian in Washington County. In its route it passed through or near the present or former towns of Olathe, Gardner, Eudora, Franklin, Lawrence, Big Springs, Topeka, Silver Lake, Rossville, St. Marys, and Westmoreland.

Among the most scenic campgrounds along the trail was Alcove Springs. This well known camp site was used by early mountain men and later emigrants.

At first travelers had to ford the rivers and creeks at crossings. As

travel increased along the route, several enterprising individuals started ferrying services. Moses Grinter charged a dollar for each wagon he ferried across the Kaw in Wyandotte County. Brothers Joseph and Lewis Papin operated a ferry across the Kaw near Topeka. Francis Marshall ran a ferry and trading post on the Big Blue. In 1850, five ferries or bridges for crossings were listed along the Oregon Trail in Kansas. A number of toll bridges crossed smaller creeks on the route going west from St. Joseph, Mo. Indians, as well as whites, operated these crossings.

Louis Vieux improved a ford at the crossing of the Vermillion Creek, Pottawatomie County. (Louis Vieux was a half-Potawatomi business agent, interpreter, and leader.) The Fort Leavenworth-Fort Riley military road also used this crossing. A short distance to the east of the crossing is the Louis Vieux cemetery dating back to the 1850s. Louis Vieux and others of his family are buried there.

The Uniontown trading post, just west of present Topeka, was the last major western settlement for travelers headed west between 1848 and 1853. Approximately 300 Indians lived there and five or six trading posts did business.

Business on the Oregon Trail disappeared as the railroads built in the 1860s, 1870s, and later made traveling much easier and less expensive.

The 1985 Kansas Legislature memorialized the Oregon-California-Mormon route by approving installation of signs along the 193-mile trail across Kansas. The National Park Service is working with the Kansas Department of Transportation on this project to place about 800 official signs along the trail.

A surviving landmark on the trail is the Vieux cemetery at the Vermillion Crossing, which contains the graves of fifty emigrant cholera victims as well as graves of the Vieux family. Other existing structures and sites on the Oregon Trail in Kansas are also related to the Pony Express and the operations of stage companies.

The Mormon Trail

On the original survey maps of Kansas, several roads were designated "Mormon Trail." These northwest-bound trails were feeders of the main trail taken by the Mormons during the late 1840s enroute to Salt Lake City. A major feeder came from Independence over the Santa Fe Trail to 110 Mile Creek, turning northwest through present Wabaunsee County and a little south of present Eskridge, on to a point between Junction City and Fort Riley, north across Riley County and up the Little Blue River, exiting Kansas in Washington County on the Oregon Trail. Another branch crossed the Missouri River to Atchison and continued west intercepting the Oregon and California trail.

Military Roads

Before the United States Army developed military roads from fort to

fort in Kansas and nearby territories, it used the Santa Fe Trail to transport large portions of military stores and equipment. This was especially true during the War with Mexico and during the late 1840s and the 1850s.

The first military road surveyed in Kansas left Fort Leavenworth going south to Fort Coffey in western Arkansas in 1837. The road branched from Fort Scott to Fort Gibson in Indian Territory in 1843. A new road was surveyed and marked just west of the original road in 1859. It replaced the first Fort Leavenworth-Fort Gibson road. Signs of the original road have all but disappeared.

In May 1849, Captain Howard Stansbury started from Fort Leavenworth to lay out a military road to Fort Kearney in present Nebraska. For some distance it followed the California Road, an Oregon Trail branch from St. Joseph, Mo., by way of the Blue River. Another road was established between Fort Leavenworth and Fort Riley and later extended to Fort Larned.

In 1863, the state legislature passed resolutions making provisions for bridging and improving the military roads serving Forts Leavenworth, Riley, Larned, and Scott.

After the Civil War, when the War Department built forts in western Kansas, it also surveyed and marked roads connecting the forts and supply camps. In all, Kansas had eighteen military roads, many of which were also used by emigrants, freighters, and stage companies who benefited from bridge building and culvert improvements.

The Historical Atlas of Kansas by Socolofsky and Self delineates the major military roads in Kansas including those which crossed state lines. Vestiges of most of these roads have disappeared.

A few sites remain along these former roads. On the Fort Lyons-Fort Wallace Trail in Greeley County was the campground known as Barrel Springs, or Jumbo Springs, or Wild Horse Corral. This site with flowing streams and timber is now located on privately owned land. Another site, located in Hodgeman county, marks a crossing point on the Pawnee River on the Fort Hays-Fort Dodge Trail. As mentioned elsewhere in this document, redoubts have been identified along the road between Fort Dodge and Fort Supply in Oklahoma. St. Jacob's Well was a well known watering place on the Fort Dodge-Fort Supply Road, used by the U.S. Army, buffalo hunters and cattlemen.

At Winchester in Jefferson County the graveled diagonal street just south of the Winchester elementary school is believed to be part of the original Fort Riley to Fort Leavenworth road and one of the few portions of the original road still used. The first road was laid out in 1854.

Additional information on the military roads which affected specific communities may be available from local historical societies and other local sources.

The Underground Railroad

Another type of "road" used for several years prior to the Civil War and used under the cover of night was the "underground railroad." Fugitive slaves traveled over it from slave states, primarily Missouri. The free-state leaders and their followers in Kansas offered the slaves refuge and tried to protect them from slave hunters. At night the fugitives walked under cover of wooded ravines and streams or rode hidden in horse-drawn wagons. During the day they hid in cabins, barns, and houses of trusted abolitionists. Such hiding places were called stations and they existed along a number of routes going west from the Missouri border for about sixty miles and then north into free Nebraska, other northern states, and Canada. Stations along the trail included those at Mound City, Osawatomie, Baldwin City, Lawrence, Oskaloosa, Topeka, Holton, Sabetha, and Quindaro. Abolitionist John Brown carried a dozen fugitives north from Trading Post in Linn County to Topeka, Holton, and Nebraska City.

Routes taken could be regularly used public roads as well as camouflaged routes. An often traveled route was the Lane Trail beginning at Topeka. This trail took its name from James H. Lane, an active free-state politician, who traveled down the route from Nebraska in 1856 leading free state emigrants from the North who did not want or dare to pass through pro-slave Missouri on their way to Kansas. (Missourians tried to keep emigrants with free-state sympathies from going through Missouri to Kansas for a while.) Stone piles set on hilltops marked the route. The Lane Trail ran from Topeka north through Holton, Netawaka, Sabetha, and Peru to Nebraska City and across the Missouri River to Iowa.

Trails to Denver

Discovery of gold in the Rocky Mountains led to the development of three major roads west across north central Kansas to the Denver area in the late 1850s. Stage and mail routes also used these roads. They were the Parallel Road, the Smoky Hill Trail, and the Leavenworth and Pike's Peak Express route.

Beginning at Atchison, the Parallel Road ran about thirty miles south of the Kansas-Nebraska border, paralleling that border for much of the way before joining the other two trails in present eastern Colorado.

The central or Smoky Hill Trail was surveyed in 1858 and the route was later followed very closely by the Butterfield Overland Dispatch (1864ff.) During the years 1858 and 1859, a continuous throng of gold seekers outfitted at either Leavenworth or Topeka before going west up the Smoky Hill River to its head, then crossing over to another creek which led them to Denver.

The Leavenworth and Pike's Peak Express left Leavenworth, using three branches before joining into one near Salina. One branch passed through Lawrence; another ran near Oskaloosa and Indianola and west along the Fort Leavenworth-Fort Riley Road; a third route passed through Ozawkie and then

intercepted the Fort Leavenworth-Fort Riley Road. After joining near Salina, the Express used portions of the Smoky Hill route in addition to its own, longer, less direct route.

All the routes west of Salina were hazardous due to insufficient water and forage. Indian raids occurred often on the route in the mid and late 1860s. Current highways 40 and I-70 parallel the early Smoky Hill Trail and Highway 36 the Parallel Road.

The Pony Express Route

The short-lived but exciting Pony Express began April 3, 1860 and ended in July, 1861 when the daily overland stage took over its mail carrying task. This project of William H. Russell was designed to demonstrate the efficiency of a central route to the West and to win a government mail contract. The Pony Express route began at St. Joseph, Mo., crossed the river into Kansas, and continued on to Syracuse, Granada, Seneca, Marysville, Cottonwood (Hollenberg), exiting Kansas a few miles above Cottonwood. Slightly more than 125 miles of the route crossed Kansas. Riders could carry the mail at a speed of 10 miles per hour. They made twice a week deliveries between St. Joseph and Sacramento, Cal., their western terminus.

The Hollenberg Pony Express Station was built by Gerat H. Hollenberg in 1857 as a ranch house and neighborhood store and was also used as a stage station for the Overland Express. It is said to be the only surviving unaltered Pony Express station in its original location. It stands one and a half miles northeast of Hanover on K-243 in Washington County.

Cattle Trails

Prior to the Civil War, Texas cattle were driven north in small numbers to Baxter Springs and then into Missouri. High prices offered for beef in the post-Civil War years led to the development of long cattle drives from Texas to Kansas. Extension of both the Kansas Pacific and the Santa Fe Railroads opened new opportunities for the cattle trade in Kansas. The Kansas Pacific or the Union Pacific, Eastern Division, as it was then known, reached the small town of Abilene in 1867; the Santa Fe reached Newton in 1871.

Joseph McCoy, an Illinois livestock dealer, deserves credit for establishing the first major market for Texas longhorns in Kansas. He chose Abilene as the shipping point and invested \$35,000 in buildings and in shipping yards to accommodate 3,000 cattle. His first trainload left Abilene in 1867.

Cowboys drove the Texas cattle up from Texas through Oklahoma and Kansas to Abilene over the Chisholm Trail. Jesse Chisholm, a mixed-blood trader, had traded with the Indians of the Indian Territory (Oklahoma), moving goods and livestock back and forth between Wichita and southern points. The trail became a major cattle route in 1867 with the developments at Abilene.

Abilene cattle trade flourished for four years. But as railroad construction edged its way toward Salina, Brookville, and Ellsworth, Abilene lost business. Also contributing to the loss of trade was extension of the quarantine law which prohibited Texas cattle in the settled areas of Kansas.

Seventy miles south of Abilene, the Santa Fe Railroad, which followed the Santa Fe Trail, more or less, reached Newton in 1871. For one year, cowboys loaded their stock onto railroad cars at Newton. A feeder line to Wichita took over this trade in 1872. As the Santa Fe built west, Dodge City gained the major portion of the trade and kept it for ten years; however, some years, Caldwell, near the Kansas-Oklahoma border, shipped more cattle than Dodge City. Coffeyville also had some cattle trade.

In addition to the Chisholm Trail and its branches, there were the Shawnee Trail (1866-1867) to Baxter Springs and the Western Trail (1874-1890) to Dodge City and points north through Kansas and Nebraska. An estimated 5,000,000 longhorns walked the several cattle trails in Kansas.

The Kansas quarantine laws of 1884 and 1885 as well as widespread construction of fences ended overland cattle drives through the state. Also, railroad construction into the cattle raising regions ended the need for the long drives.

Permanent structures associated with the Kansas cattle trails include trading posts, hotels, taverns, restaurants, and stores that catered to the needs of cowboys. In Ellsworth, the White House Hotel, built in 1872, was well known during the cattle trailing days. The two-story stone, brick, and stucco building is still being used. The Brookville Hotel, built in 1870, was a cafe and hostelry for cowboys, and is still operating in its original location. This two-story, frame building is known throughout Kansas and beyond for the family-style chicken dinners served there.

Historical markers identify sites along the Chisholm Trail. Ruts from this heavily traveled trail are still visible in Sumner County close to Caldwell, in Sedgwick County south of Wichita, and in other locations.

Sheep Trails

In western Kansas the sheep industry flourished along with the cattle business. Sheep were driven from Colorado and New Mexico pastures to Kansas during the years before 1900. Herders and their dogs walked with the sheep, usually following the river valleys. The herders would attempt to make the trail as wide as possible to facilitate grazing. Experienced trail herders could move from 3,000 to 7,000 sheep on the trail at one time.

Three major sheep trails existed in Kansas, two of them terminating in the central part of the state. One trail came from northern Colorado and followed the south fork of the Republican River into Nebraska. Another

route originated in southern Colorado and followed the Arkansas River east into Pawnee and Edwards counties. A third route originated in central Colorado and went down the Smoky Hill River route, dispersing into feedlots in Russell and Barton counties. No known structures or landscape features record the sheep trails into Kansas. Local historical knowledge in the counties where the sheep drives took place could shed more light and information on this relatively unknown subject.

Stage Coach Routes

The earliest stagecoaches through Kansas used the Santa Fe Trail. Beginning in 1849, a monthly line of stagecoaches left St. Louis for Santa Fe. Later, increasing business led to weekly and then daily schedules. The first overland mail stage left Missouri in July, 1850, headed for Salt Lake City, using the Oregon Trail.

Kansas City, Mo., in the 1850s, became a stagecoach center. From there lines went to Leavenworth, to the Sac and Fox Agency, and to the villages of Olathe, Black Jack, Centropolis, and Minneola. Two lines operated for awhile between Kansas City and Lawrence and between Lawrence and Leavenworth. Another line ran from Lawrence to Osawatomie. A daily line of coaches ran between Leavenworth and Lecompton and a weekly line between Leavenworth and Junction City. Several lines operated between Leavenworth and Atchison. Topeka and Manhattan were connected by a stagecoach line in the late 1850s. Fort Scott was an important stagecoach center for southeastern Kansas.

The Leavenworth and Pike's Peak Express carried gold prospectors to the gold fields near Denver in 1859. Subsequent owners changed the name of the stagecoach line and moved the route.

Stage routes developed in western Kansas in the 1860s. From about 1864 to 1868, the Barlow & Sanderson Overland Mail Company managed a line between Fort Larned and Fort Lyon in Colorado. Colonel Robert M. Wright of Dodge City built nearly all the stations along this route. These stations were nothing more than dugouts, about 14 feet by 20 feet cut into the side of a hill and located about thirty miles apart. Such stage stations on the high plains offered few amenities. Travelers might find better lodging and food at military forts along the way. Overall, the stage routes were less developed than the military or overland trails which had a much larger volume of traffic.

Many of the former stage station sites are on private property. Evidence of occupation includes cellar holes, trenches, and remnants of building foundations.

One of the best preserved is the state-owned Hollenberg Ranch and Pony Express Station in Washington County, said to be the only original, unaltered Pony Express station standing on its original site. The building was originally a ranch house in 1857 but was converted for Pony Express use in 1860. The Holladay Stage Line also used it as a stage station. The one-story frame structure is located about one and a half

miles northeast of Hanover and now contains a museum.

The Pond Creek Stage Station on the Smoky Hill Trail in Wallace County served the Butterfield Overland Dispatch. The site, one mile west of Wallace, is on privately owned farm land. Dirt fortifications and cellar depressions are visible. The station house once here has been moved to a roadside park at Wallace, where it is used as a museum. Another building affiliated with the Butterfield Overland Dispatch is still standing. The former David Butterfield home, a large stone building in Manhattan, is now owned by the Riley County Historical Society.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Trails

The Santa Fe and Oregon trails were the major overland commercial and emigrant routes from Missouri west before the completion of the railroads. Both these trails have received extensive attention in contemporary travelers' accounts, government surveys, historical maps, and interpretive articles. Alberta Pantle's excellent bibliography of overland trails lists both primary and secondary sources. Gregory Franzwa in The Oregon Trail Revisited gives explicit highway instructions for exploring the route. Marc Simmons does the same for the Santa Fe Trail in Following the Santa Fe Trail: A Guide for Modern Travelers. Homer E. Socolofsky and Huber Self's Historical Atlas of Kansas illustrates and describes numerous trails and roads used in Kansas after 1821.

The Santa Fe Trail Center near Larned has a small research library. The Heritage Center in Dodge City has materials pertaining to the western trails. Libraries at the Kansas State Historical Society and at Kansas universities and colleges contain much published material, as well as unpublished documents and manuscripts relating to the trails in Kansas.

In general works about Kansas, authors cover the major trails, usually omitting information pertaining to the shorter roads within a county or trading region. Trails and roads crisscrossed trading regions, going from village to village and larger towns. Foreign immigrants sometimes followed trails and routes unrelated to any others previously mentioned here. Some travelers did not always use roads. When Isaac Goodnow served as Kansas Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1863-1866, he traveled an estimated 4,000 miles by horse and wagon, visiting twenty-nine counties in Kansas on school business. He used shortcuts across fields and streams whenever possible.

Isaac Goodnow kept a diary which recorded much about local conditions and experiences. Such diaries are invaluable in illuminating the past. Established research libraries hold diaries and journals in their collections. There are undoubtedly other diaries still in the hands of individuals which would be of historical interest.

Further research could be done on local roads, stage stations, and trail ranches. Local historical research would be valuable here. Contemporary newspaper accounts, unpublished manuscripts, miscellaneous documents and old photos are among the best sources. Local residents

could have collections of artifacts as well as oral history traditions to share with the researcher.

Forts and Other Military Structures

The first fort built in present Kansas dates to 1744 when the French, who claimed the territory at the time, built Fort Cavagnial. At this combination fort and trading post, the French carried on a fur trade with the Indians. They used the post until 1763 when the English government gained control of Canada, and Spain acquired the lands west of the Mississippi River. The abandoned fort site was close to present Fort Leavenworth, but the exact location is unknown and no traces of the original log buildings have been found.

American interest in the region west of the Missouri increased following the Louisiana Purchase in 1803. Explorers Meriwether Lewis and William Clark traveled along the northeast border of Kansas, making camp on Independence Creek in July, 1804. Several years later, explorer Stephen Long built a temporary camp at Isle au Vache (Cow Island) near present Atchison. The camp was used in 1819 and 1820 as a base for his exploring expeditions into the region. The 1826 flood washed away any remnants of the camp.

Until Cantonment Leavenworth was founded in 1827, the westernmost post in the area was Fort Osage, built in 1808 several miles east of present Kansas City, Mo. Fort Osage was one of twenty-eight combination trading posts and forts built by the United States government between 1795 and 1822.

Interest in protecting the developing trade on the Santa Fe Trail had led to the establishment of Cantonment Leavenworth under the leadership of Captain Henry Leavenworth. The temporary cantonment achieved permanent status in 1834 when it was renamed Fort Leavenworth. It would become a starting point for one of several branches to the main Santa Fe Trail, and later the hub of trails to Oregon, California, and the gold mining fields near Denver. It developed into a major army depot for shipping supplies to outlying posts in Kansas, northern New Mexico, and southern Nebraska.

As the United States government began moving Indian tribes from the east to Indian Country, the military had the responsibility for maintaining peace among the tribes and non-Indians residing in the area.

The need for a military post between Leavenworth and the distant Fort Gibson (1824) in present Oklahoma led to the establishment of Fort Scott, built between 1842 and 1848 and located 100 miles south of Leavenworth. The Fort served primarily as a base for troops who rode into Oklahoma or who escorted travelers on the Santa Fe Trail or aided in the war with Mexico. Troops also accompanied three western expeditions. Because the fort was so far from the action, the military abandoned it in 1853 following the establishment of Fort Riley. The Union Army reactivated it during the Civil War, and then closed it permanently after the war. Fort Scott has been renovated and reconstructed by the National Park Service, which now operates it as a historic site.

Although Fort Leavenworth grew increasingly important as a supply and training base and command headquarters, it was too far from raids and disputes demanding immediate attention on the western Kansas frontier. The American acquisition of the Southwest after the War with Mexico in 1846-1848 had opened vast territory to exploration and settlement. This additional activity irritated and worried the high plains Indians who feared loss of their hunting grounds. Hostile acts towards travelers along the trails west increased. To handle the problem, the US Army began establishing additional military posts out west, starting in 1846 with Fort Mann (1846-1848). This was actually a quartermaster station more than a fort. Next came Camp Mackay (1850) and Fort Atkinson (1850-1854), all on the Arkansas River in present Ford County. Fort Atkinson was the first regular army post on the Santa Fe Trail in the heart of Indian Country. The military also established Camp Centre (1852) at the junction of the Republican and Smoky Hill rivers. This camp developed into Fort Riley in 1853. All camps and forts were built to provide protection and safe lodging for travelers on the overland routes west and were bases for men and supplies in the areas they served.

Serious problems with the high plains Indians were infrequent during the territorial period. Theft of livestock and goods from passing wagon trains or from ranches occurred more frequently than killings. Sometimes the army itself provoked the Indians, who then reacted violently against whites.

Demand for more military protection from Indian raids led to the construction of Fort Larned in 1859 at the Pawnee fork of the Arkansas River. Its primary military activity was escorting a large number of mail carriers, pioneers, and commercial wagon trains. Larned was used as a base for military operations and as a headquarters for Indian agents. Plains tribes assembled once or twice a year at the fort to receive their annuities. Fort Larned was the only fort established during the territorial period (1854-1861).

During the Civil War the Army focused on support of the Union. Fort Leavenworth became the headquarters, supply depot, and training ground for Union troops from Kansas. Fort Scott, closed in 1853, was reopened to aid in the defense of southeastern Kansas. The fort had passed into private hands after 1853 and been included in the town. Some of the old fort buildings were leased from the private owners, and new buildings were erected on leased lands for use of the army during the Civil War. Fort Blair, a temporary fort near Baxter Springs, operated briefly during the war.

During the Civil War and afterwards, as an increasing number of hunters, travelers, and settlers encroached on traditional buffalo hunting grounds, the Indians struck back. The Army responded by building more forts. Fort Zarah (1864-1869), east of present Great Bend; Fort Dodge (1864-1882), east of present Dodge City; and Fort Aubrey (1865-1866), east of present Syracuse, were constructed along the Santa Fe Trail. Fort Harker (1864-1873), at present Kanopolis, Fort Hays (1865-1889), near present Hays; and Fort Wallace (1865-1882), near present Wallace, were

built along the Smoky Hill Trail, and Camp Beecher (1868-1869) on the site of Wichita. The Army also had troops stationed at other temporary camps and outposts.

In 1868 General Philip Sheridan headed the Military Division of the Missouri which included Kansas. He was ordered by military chiefs in Washington, D.C., to pursue a policy of total war against the plains Indians and force them to stay on their reservations.

Although they fought a losing battle, the Indians continued their raids into the late 1860s and less frequently into the 1870s. The most dangerous areas were along the Kansas Pacific railroad route and in the Republican, Saline, and Solomon valleys where settlers began staking land claims. The last Indian raid in the state occurred in 1878 when a band of Cheyenne attempted to return north to their homeland from reservations in Oklahoma.

Completion of the Kansas Pacific and Santa Fe railroads across the state and removal of Indian tribes to reservations eliminated the need for troops and forts in western Kansas. Only Fort Riley and Fort Leavenworth remained after the 1880s. Fort Riley became a training base for cavalry and artillery; Fort Leavenworth became an officers' training school. Both forts continue to be major military installations.

To a large extent the Army acted more often as an agency to maintain peace and enforce laws than it did as a fighting machine. Forts were more like small villages on the prairies than true forts. Small trade settlements developed near Larned, Dodge, and Hays, and a larger town near Fort Leavenworth. Fort Scott became a town. As many as 400 civilians resided near Fort Hays in the winter of 1868-1869. They worked as clerks, guides, teamsters, laborers, herders, blacksmiths, wheelwrights, and in other jobs.

The Army improved roads, built bridges and culverts, and thus encouraged civilian travel between forts and settlements. The existence of forts such as Riley and Larned gave nearby settlers a greater sense of security from Indian raids and from general lawlessness before local governments developed.

The first fort, Cavagnial, built by the French in 1744, consisted of five log buildings inside a stockade. The logs were covered with mud to seal out wind and rain. Remains of this fort were still visible to explorers Lewis and Clark in 1804 but had disappeared by the 1840s. The fort's exact location remains unknown.

Military structures built in Kansas in 1827 and after fall into two categories: permanent and temporary. Permanent Army installations show similarities. Forts Leavenworth, Scott, Riley, Larned, Dodge, Harker, Hays, and Wallace all consisted of clusters of buildings placed around a central parade ground. Major buildings around the parade ground exhibited order and symmetry. Several of the forts were under construction before the Department of the Missouri issued a prescribed pattern of uniformity

of design and construction. To comply with the 1867 guidelines, the commanding officers were to be economical in the building of their posts and see that all buildings were completed in a plain though comfortable manner. Buildings constructed away from the parade grounds appeared randomly scattered.

The major permanent posts served as supply depots, as headquarters, and as bases for troops engaged in patrolling or campaigning against plains Indians or the Confederacy during the Civil War.

Temporary forts and fortifications ranged from adobe, sod, or log walled forts to dugouts and redoubts. Numerous local camps or fortifications, inspired by fear of Indians or the occasional Texas based bandits and outlaws, developed briefly as stopping places for Army personnel and were located throughout central and western Kansas. These small temporary posts and fortifications were abandoned or put to other use as soon as dangers diminished. In addition, the military found it less expensive to operate from the main headquarters such as Hays, Larned, or Wallace.

Of lesser significance than military forts were fortifications used by free-state and pro-slave advocates in eastern Kansas during the territorial and Civil War period. Violent conflict between these two factions erupted in 1855. Each fortified log cabins and stone houses. Free-staters in Lawrence built stone walls and earthen embankments to protect themselves. Conflict between pro-slave and free-state partisans occurred all along the Missouri-Kansas border on and off for ten years, terminating with the Union victory in the Civil War.

Whether temporary or permanent, several factors had to be considered in choosing a fort site. Defensibility, access to water, and location near major transportation routes ranked high in site selection. Fort Leavenworth, situated on a high bluff above the navigable Missouri River and at the head of transportation routes, met all these criteria. The temporary forts out west generally suffered from lack of timber and had to rely on stone or sod for walls and buildings.

Most of the permanent military establishments in Kansas went through several construction stages. Fort Scott was begun with temporary log buildings and later had permanent structures of brick, limestone, and hardwood lumber. A sawmill nearby cut the necessary lumber. Captain Thomas Swords, quartermaster, designed and supervised construction. At Leavenworth, soldiers initially lived in tents and log buildings. Gradually brick and sawn lumber replaced early structures.

In western Kansas where timber was scarce, soldiers used adobe or sod for buildings or scooped out dugouts. Fort Dodge began with adobe as did Larned. Forts Wallace, Zarah, and Harker used stone. Fort Hays, which was built after the railroad went through, had the advantage of obtaining an entire prefabricated hospital building by rail from St. Louis.

Because of variations from post to post, it is difficult to generalize

about buildings, but the paragraphs below describe what could have been present at a typical Kansas post.

Permanent installations included three types of living quarters, those for officers, those for single, enlisted men, and those for married enlisted men. Married officers competed for quarters with all officers on the basis of rank.

Rows of identical officers' quarters were usually constructed at the same time, contributing to the impression of uniformity. The wood, brick, or stone buildings were generally square and symmetrical, with gables and large front porches running parallel to the street. Many were two-storied with basements and attic rooms. Simple floorplans showed two rooms on either side of a central hall on each floor. Structures housing two families had two rooms on each side on each floor. Kitchens and other service rooms were in ells at the back of the building or in the basement. Quarters were generally roomy and comfortable. At Fort Leavenworth and Fort Scott, decorative touches showed the influence of Greek Revival styling, and at Fort Scott also French influence.

The post headquarters and commanding officer's quarters were larger versions of the other officers' quarters with the same central hall and floorplan and prominent porches.

Unmarried enlisted men lived in large barracks. These also had gables and porches running parallel to the parade ground. The barracks contained large bunkrooms and mess halls. Kitchens, wash troughs, and other service buildings stood in back of the barracks. Black soldiers lived in segregated barracks.

Low ranking married enlisted men with families lived in small dwellings, hardly more than shanties, which they bought or built themselves at the edge of the fort.

Blockhouses, arsenals, and guardhouses were among the most substantial and enduring structures at the forts. The blockhouses were usually of stone with slits for guns. The one at Fort Hays was hexagonal. Guardhouses, constructed of stone and designed to contain prisoners, had iron bars over the windows.

Hospitals at the major forts cared for the injured and those stricken by cholera and other diseases.

Cemeteries were a part of all the forts. After posts such as Dodge, Larned, and Hays became inactive, burials were later removed to Forts Riley or Leavenworth. A small cemetery remains at the abandoned Fort Wallace.

Each large fort had an assortment of other buildings such as warehouses, workshops, bakeries, and icehouses. Vegetables were kept in root houses.

Large stables housing horses used by the quartermaster as well as the cavalry and dragoons occupied a prominent place near the parade grounds. Fort Scott's large stable held more than 80 horses. At forts in the west, horses pastured near the fort during the day and were corralled at night.

The "permanent" forts had large land reservations which provided a buffer against civilian occupation. The military also pastured livestock, raised hay, and grew gardens on the reservation.

Temporary Army fortifications, where troops spent brief amounts of time, were scattered throughout western Kansas. Fort Mann, the first of the western forts, consisted of four log cabins joined by a log stockade 20 feet high and 60 feet square. All the buildings at Fort Atkinson were constructed of heavy sods laid carefully with mortar of common surface soil. Soldiers nicknamed the place Fort Sod, or Fort Sodom.

Often temporary fortifications were placed at existing stage stations or trading posts or private ranches. In the 1860s, stage stations along the Smoky Hill used as military posts included Monument Station and Downer Station. On the Santa Fe Trail, a former ranch at the Little Arkansas Crossing became Camp Grierson. The ranch had several buildings and a stone corral. Soldiers added a cottonwood stockade. Camp Davidson, also known as Camp Beecher (1868-1869), was nothing more than several dugouts. Camp Blair, near Baxter Springs, consisted of four walls made of logs and earth reaching a height of four feet. Log barracks 100 feet long formed the east end.

The most primitive of the temporary fortifications were the redoubts. A series of these were built along the road between Fort Dodge and Camp Supply. Redoubts Bear Creek, five miles north of Ashland, and Cimarron, nine miles south of Ashland, were quickly constructed of sandbags arranged to protect marksmen. These two redoubts are listed on the National Register of Historic Places.

Settlers themselves responded to rumored and actual Indian raids by building their own fortifications. For example, at the town of Brooks in Cloud County, settlers built a log stockade in 1864. At Jewell in 1870, settlers built a sod stockade 50 feet square with walls four feet thick and seven feet high. On the Solomon River at Lindsey, local residents constructed a refuge. In the town of Marion in 1863, pioneers sought safety in stone buildings. One resident had built a stone wall around part of his house.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Forts

Military posts and forts were among the first structures which Europeans and Americans erected in Kansas. Nothing is known to remain of the French encampments. Two of the forts built by the United States Army are still in active use. Buildings at some of the other forts have been preserved, and some of the buildings at the forts are among the most impressive examples of early construction in the state. Photographs and contemporary descriptions of these structures contain valuable

architectural information. Less is known about temporary encampments and isolated fortifications.

Fort Scott and Fort Larned have undergone extensive renovation and reconstruction. Both have been identified as National Historic Sites and are administered by the National Park Service which is restoring them to their nineteenth-century appearance. Each has several of its original buildings and is open to the public.

Fort Hays was abandoned in 1899. The land was given to the State of Kansas to establish a branch of the State Normal School. The old fort is currently administered by the Kansas State Historical Society. The original stone blockhouse and guardhouse and one frame officers' quarters still stand there.

Forts Leavenworth and Riley are active military posts. Their historic structures and sites have been identified and some are open to visitors. Fort Leavenworth's oldest structure, The Rookery, is a two story stone house built in 1838. It is the oldest building in Kansas.

Scattered buildings remain at Fort Harker and Fort Dodge, but only a monument marks the location at the once large Fort Wallace. Stone buildings at Fort Dodge are now used as part of the State Soldiers' Home. Four of the buildings at Fort Harker are listed on the National Register of Historic Places, and one of them, the guardhouse, serves as a local historical museum.

The Fort Zarah and Fort Aubrey sites have been identified and included on the National Register. Dugouts are still visible at Fort Aubrey.

Much of the knowledge of civilian fortifications remains largely local. The history of these civilian sites should be researched and the sites inventoried.

Military history of the conflict between the plains Indians and the U.S. Army is well documented in Kansas history. A variety of histories and guidebooks describe Army life on the plains, and give basic information on individual forts in the state. Soldiers and Braves, published by the National Park Service, provides a general history of Indian-white conflicts, cultural as well as military, and describes major sites. Robert Frazer's Forts of the West is a similar volume and useful for its general introductory material on the placement and construction of forts. Francis Prucha's Guide to Military Posts of the United States contains extensive lists and detailed topographic maps. Marvin Garfield's articles on Kansas forts in the Kansas Historical Quarterly describe temporary fortifications and camps.

The histories of individual Kansas forts provide excellent information. Leo Oliva has done thorough work, drawing heavily on primary documents. Articles in the Kansas Historical Collections and the Kansas Historical Quarterly, now Kansas History, are very detailed and carefully researched.

Some of the most complete descriptions of Kansas forts are available in nineteenth-century U.S. government publications. Annual reports of the War Department and Army include descriptions. Congressional committees collected information and testimony about forts. Inspectors from the office of the Surgeon General visited Kansas in the 1870s and published full reports on each active fort, complete with floor plans and discussions of water supplies and drainage.

Existing primary sources on forts and fortifications in Kansas are rich. Accounts by travelers and by soldiers and their wives have been published in books and articles. Maps, magazine and newspaper articles, and unpublished manuscripts and letters are available in the collections of the Kansas State Historical Society and county and local historical societies.

Most of the post records on file at the National Archives have been microfilmed, and the film is available for researchers at the Kansas State Historical Society.

Missions and Other Structures Related to the Native and Emigrant Indians in Kansas

From the time white settlers first came to the shores of eastern North America until the late 1900s, they displaced many of the resident Indian tribes by purchase of land, by treaty, or by force. The idea of moving Indians westward peacefully and officially came after the French and Indian War (1763) when the wilderness west of the Appalachians was considered a possible relocation site, but white settlers began moving into that area even before the American Revolution. As early as 1803 President Thomas Jefferson had proposed moving eastern tribes west of the Mississippi River. The idea persisted although the policy did not become official until 1825.

The Rev. Isaac McCoy, who became a Baptist missionary to the Indians in 1818, proposed to government officials in Washington, D.C., that Indian tribes be relocated in the West, far beyond the wicked influence of immoral white settlers and traders. McCoy's humanitarian motives complemented the political motives of official Washington. McCoy traveled widely in Indian country during the late 1820s and was appointed government surveyor of various reservation boundaries. He was also a lobbyist for the Baptist Board of Foreign Missions.

Relocation of the tribes began after Congress passed an act in 1825 which was supplemented by the Removal Act of 1830. In June 1825, William Clark, Superintendent of Indian Affairs in St. Louis, arranged a treaty with the Kansa and Osage tribes which resulted in their giving up much of their land in eastern Kansas to make room for the emigrant tribes.

Eastern and central Kansas had been the home of the Kansa and Osage for several hundred years. The Kansa's hostile neighbors, the Pawnees, occupied far north central Kansas and Nebraska, concentrating in Nebraska after 1820. Hunting expeditions brought them down into central Kansas. All three of these tribes lived in villages of large semi-permanent earth lodges and cultivated maize, beans, and squash. Buffalo and other animals provided meat and clothing.

The plains Indians living in the far western part of Indian Country, all the way to the Rockies, remained unaffected by the Indian Removal policy. These tribes included the Kiowa, Comanche, Kiowa-Apache, Cheyenne, and Arapaho. Their nomadic lifestyle left little physical evidence. Trails and battle and treaty sites marked their presence in American western history.

Most of the Indians scheduled for moving to Kansas did not wish to leave their ancestral homes. They considered themselves "woodland" Indians, who for centuries had lived in densely wooded areas with abundant water. Even eastern Kansas appeared barren by comparison. However, both rainfall and temperatures were similar to that across Missouri, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, and part of New York.

The emigrant tribes sold their land in the East to buy land in the Kansas region. The treaties usually stated the price of the sale and other provisions. Sometimes treaties included food, clothing, government credit, and farming tools, but few dealt with actual cash sums. The emigrant tribes often requested moving expenses, cattle, and schools for their children on the new reservations. Experience would prove that the government delivered less, often much less, than the treaty obligated it to deliver. Dishonest agents often cheated the Indians out of goods destined for their use.

Tribes, such as the Wyandot and Delaware, with a history of dealing with whites were more successful than others in dealing with government agents and negotiating treaties. The Wyandots and Delawares also had a large percentage of mixed bloods in leadership positions. The Wyandots, for example, requested a reservation close to white settlements, and got it.

The first allotment for the emigrant Indians went to the Shawnee, followed soon thereafter by the Delaware in 1829. The federal government set aside a total of seventeen reservations for emigrant tribes and two for the native Kansa and Osage. The emigrant reservations were Otoe and Missouri; Iowa, Sauk and Fox of Missouri; Kickapoo; Delaware and Wyandot; Shawnee; Sauk and Fox of Mississippi; Chippewa; Ottawa; Peoria and Kaskaskia; Wea and Piankashaw; Potawatomi; Miami; New York; Cherokee; and Quapaw. (The Cherokee had two reservations.) Most of the removal plan was completed before 1846. All the tribes were assured of remaining on what the government considered a "permanent Indian frontier."

In addition, thirty-five Wyandots received "floating" grants of land amounting to one section (640 acres) per person. "Floating" meant that the grant was not tied to a particular piece of land. Each could claim a section on unclaimed land west of the Missouri River.

Upon arrival at the Indian Country reservation, the tribes depended on government supplies. Indian agents responsible for the reservations varied greatly in their commitment. While some were honest and conscientious, others cheated the Indians out of government money, supplies, and cattle. The Indians also had problems with illegal white liquor dealers and white "squatters" who moved on to their reservation lands.

Besides the Indian agents, most white contact on the reservations revolved around the Christian missions established there from the late 1820s to the 1860s. Baptists, Methodists, Quakers, Moravians, Presbyterians, and Catholics established missions for the emigrant tribes as well as the Kansa and Osage. Some missionaries simply moved to Kansas with the Indians. Most missionaries, however, began their first missions in Kansas. At times missionaries of the various Christian denominations competed for government funding and tribal loyalty. The Kickapoo prophet Kennekuk, mixing Christian doctrine and Indian tradition, drew his own following.

The first mission in Kansas belonged to the Presbyterian Church. Called Mission Neosho, it was established in 1824 for the Osage. The Methodists were the most active, establishing eight missions in Kansas. The Baptists had six, the Catholics and Presbyterians had four each, the Moravians had two, and the Quakers, one mission.

Mission schools were usually of two types--day school or residential. The latter emphasized manual training.

The curriculum of the mission schools was similar to white 19th century common schools in the east. Day schools focused on reading and writing English, arithmetic, geography, moral training, and religion. The manual labor schools included these formal subjects as well as vocational classes. Missionaries' wives and other women taught girls sewing, cooking, dressmaking, cleaning, and washing. The boys developed agricultural skills. At larger missions, boys were trained in carpentry, shoemaking, masonry, wagon building, blacksmithing, and other skills.

Indian tribes varied in their acceptance of the mission program. Among the more enduring were the Shawnee Methodist Mission (32 years), the Catholic mission to the Potawatomis at St. Marys (33 years), the Quaker Shawnee Mission, the Moravian mission to the Chippewa and Munsee, and the Baptist missions to the Delaware, Shawnee, and Ottawa.

Although several of these missions were in operation for two or three decades, many of the missionaries from all denominations expressed a sense of failure in their reports to church agencies. Few Indians were converted to Christianity. Many remained unwilling to relinquish the language, culture, and religion familiar to them. The white man's way of life had little appeal.

Despite their "numerous shortcomings the missions eased some of the problems of the transplanted tribes," says Kansas historian Robert Richmond, "and many missionaries tried to protect the Indians. The missions and the honest missionaries should be given credit for their contributions...."

The demise and abandonment of the Indian missions began in the 1850s after Congress passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, officially opening the Indian Country, now called Kansas, to white settlement. Thousands of acres of Kansas land passed by treaty from the Indians to individual land speculators, town promoters, and railroad companies. After the Civil War, great numbers of settlers moved to Kansas. Most white Kansans believed that the land should go to people wanting to work it, and definitely not the Indians. One by one the tribes left Kansas for new homes in Indian Territory (Oklahoma). By the 1870s nearly all the Indians were gone from eastern Kansas. Some Kickapoos, Sac and Fox of Missouri, Iowas, and members of the Prairie band of the Potawatomi stayed and retained part of their original reserves, which still exist.

Mission Buildings and Related Sites

Missionaries usually chose mission sites along water or land transportation routes. After site selection, log cabins served as temporary structures for the larger missions, while more permanent buildings of wood, stone, or brick were constructed. If the mission had only one structure, the first floor usually served as the chapel, and the second floor as classroom or sleeping space. The Kansas Methodist Mission in Council Grove contained eight rooms in a two-story stone structure. At the Iowa, Sac and Fox Mission the Presbyterians constructed a three-story stone and brick structure with a large dining room on the first floor, a chapel and teacher's room on the second, and dormitories and teacher's room on the third floor.

Sometimes the missions never progressed beyond log structures. The Presbyterian Mission in Neosho consisted of two log buildings—one for the missionaries and one for a chapel/school. The Methodist mission to the Peoria and Kaskaskia tribes consisted of one school room in a double-dwelling log structure.

The larger, better financed manual training schools, particularly the Delaware, Potawatomi, and Shawnee missions, contained a variety of structures. The Delaware Baptist Mission had a chapel, stables, smokehouse, wash house, schoolhouse, dormitory, and the superintendent's house.

St. Mary's Catholic Mission for the Potawatomi gave the appearance of a village. The model farm at St. Mary's and the individual farms of Indians nearby profited greatly from selling and trading with the emigrants and military personnel going over the nearby Oregon Trail. Reverend John Duerinck experimented with various crops and introduced to Kansas the use of cornshellers, cultivators, roller horse hayrakes, corncrushers, and the McCormick reaper.

The Osage Catholic Mission became the nucleus of missionary expansion for southeastern and southcentral Kansas. The Jesuit brothers began work among the Osages in 1847, opening their Manual Labor School that year.

The most extensive manual labor school was established by the Methodists for the Shawnee in present Johnson County. The school, situated on 2,000 acres of land, served as a stopping point on the Oregon and Santa Fe trails. The sixteen-building complex included mills and shops and was in operation from 1839 to 1862.

At the Shawnee Methodist Mission, as well as other missions, the Indians built most of the structures under the direction of the missionaries. The buildings reflected the use of native materials, as well as materials brought by boat and wagon from the east. At Shawnee Mission, laths and window and door frames were made of native timber. Forty thousand fence rails were made on the mission grounds. Indians cut stone and made brick for later buildings. Initially lumber and a school bell were brought from Cincinnati and brick from St. Louis.

At the Potawatomi Baptist Mission, native stone from the nearby hillside was used in the three-story building.

The Friends Shawnee Mission used walnut in their one story frame house. Each board and beam was hand sawed. All the nails were hand forged. Water for drinking and washing was drawn from a well through the basement floor.

The Iowa, Sac and Fox Mission had an elaborate three-story brick and stone structure built in 1845. The first floor was of native handcut stone. Bricks for the second and third floors were made at the mission. Laths, beams, columns, and sills were made of native oak and walnut. The shingles, doors, and windows were brought by riverboat from Pennsylvania to Westport and by ox team to the mission.

Other structures found on reservation grounds included Indian residences, trading posts, and Indian agencies. The Indians built a variety of semi-permanent structures such as log cabins, bark and grass houses, and lodges. The Iowa, Sac and Fox used the government-built log houses for firewood and to shelter their livestock. Some of the Kansa lived in the 150 stone houses built for them by the government. Mixed-blood Wyandots often built wood frame houses similar to those occupied by whites.

Indian agency offices were located on the reservation close to the mission or Indian villages. Those buildings were often the site of treaty negotiations as well as places where the Indians collected annuity money and supplies.

The history of the emigrant Indians and missions in Kansas spans approximately fifty years. Indian children attended the mission schools through the Civil War period, after which attendance declined as the Indian tribes moved south to Oklahoma. The remnants of this fifty-year period can be seen in the three remaining reservations--Iowa, Sac and Fox Reservation in Doniphan County, Kickapoo Reservation in Brown County, and the Potawatomi Reservation in Jackson County. The reservations are only fractions of their nineteenth century size.

Of the thirty-two missions established by Protestants and Catholics, only six permanent structures still stand at four separate mission sites. At the Shawnee Methodist Mission, three two-story brick buildings remain on twelve acres of ground. These three buildings formerly housed boys' and girls' dormitories, teacher's rooms, a girl's school, superintendent's home, and a chapel. In Morris County, the two story stone Kansas Methodist Mission remains intact. Only one-third of the Iowa, Sac and Fox Presbyterian Mission stands in Doniphan County. Two-thirds of the three-story stone and brick structure was razed in 1868 to provide building materials for Highland University (now Highland Jr. College). The Pottawatomie Baptist Mission, a two-story limestone structure, is part of the Kansas State Historical Society Museum complex west of Topeka. All four mission sites are state owned and are administered by the Kansas

State Historical Society.

The locations of nine other missions have been identified but no permanent structures remain. These sites include the Delaware Baptist Mission (two separate sites) and the Delaware Methodist Mission in Wyandotte County, the Osage Catholic Mission and Osage Mission Neosho (Presbyterian) in Neosho County; Shawnee Friends Mission and Shawnee Baptist Mission in Johnson County; the Kickapoo Presbyterian Mission in Brown County; and the Ottawa Baptist Mission in Franklin County.

Some of the small stone houses built for the Kansa are still standing on the former Neosho Valley Reservation, a few miles south of Council Grove. The Pottawatomie Pay Station stands in St. Marys.

Several Indian cemeteries have been identified and marked. In Franklin County, a small Chippewa cemetery is located six miles west of Ottawa. Three miles northeast of Ottawa, the Ottawa Baptist Mission cemetery contains Indian and missionary graves. Located near the remaining grounds of the Shawnee Methodist Mission are its burial grounds, which remain intact. Wyandotte County has three burial sites significant to the Delaware, Shawnee, and Wyandot tribes. The Delaware burial ground is located next to White Church—a church founded in connection with the Methodist mission to the Delaware in 1832. A Wyandot burial ground, the Huron cemetery, is located in the center of downtown Kansas City, Kansas. White Feather Spring, located in the Argentine area of Kansas City, is the reputed site of the unmarked grave of the "Shawnee Prophet," Tensquatawa, brother of Tecumseh.

Two Indian agency buildings have been identified which remain on private land. The Kansa Agency built in the 1860s is a two-story stone structure four miles southeast of Council Grove. The Potawatomi Agency, or Pay Station, built in 1862, is a small one-story stone building located in St. Mary's in Pottawatomie County.

Three treaty sites have been identified and marked, representative of the Kansa and Osage treaties involving land cessions and protection of the Santa Fe Trail. In 1825, both the Kansa and Osage signed treaties with the federal government agreeing not to molest travelers on the Santa Fe Trail. The Osage signed at "Council Oak" in Morris County and the Kansa signed at Dry Turkey Creek in McPherson County. Another marked treaty site is the 1870 Drum Creek treaty signed by the Osage which authorized their removal to Oklahoma. The site is four miles southeast of Independence in Montgomery County.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Missions

For anyone wishing to study further the Emigrant Indians and missions in Kansas, two bibliographies provide excellent sources of information. Francis Paul Prucha's Indian Policy in the United States and William E. Unrau's The Emigrant Indians of Kansas; A Critical Bibliography are extremely helpful to the researcher. An excellent analysis of the Protestant mission effort is found in Robert F. Berkhofer's Salvation and

the Savage; An Analysis of Protestant Mission and American Indian Response 1787-1862.

To fully understand land policy as it affected the Emigrant Indian, Paul W. Gates' Fifty Million Acres: Conflicts Over Kansas Land Policy 1854-1890 describes the federal government's land policies, or lack of them, that pertained directly to the clash over Indian land versus white settlement in Kansas. To obtain a visual representation of tribe and mission locations, the maps in the Historical Atlas of Kansas by Homer E. Socolofsky and Huber Self show specific sites and areas of reservations, missions, and settlements.

Specifics about individual missions are found in the church records of the various denominations which established missions in Kansas. Some records are quite extensive and provide detailed information about mission activities, structures, expenses, and staff. The Transactions and Collections of the Kansas State Historical Society also provide detailed information and missionaries' personal accounts of their experiences. Information about specific tribes is sketchy and includes both reliable information and questionable data, so the researcher must be cautious and bear in mind that some biased unreliable accounts exist.

The four extant missions have been extensively researched and nine other mission sites have been identified. However, much remains to be done. Very little is known about some missions, particularly those that existed for a short period of time. Specifically where were they located and what types of mission structures were built? Why did these missions not last, compared to others that did?

Another area needing further study includes information about the specific tribes and their lifestyles in Kansas. One must be careful not to generalize from one tribe to another. Differences abound and the researcher should be aware of past tendencies by some to lump tribes together in discussing culture and lifestyle. We know little about living accommodations, structures, and how this affected reservation and mission life. The cultural shock for many Native American children must have been severe and although we know much about mission life, we need to know more about the children's tribal life to fully understand this bicultural experience. Also, more work needs to be done identifying and marking Native American grave sites. So many children and adults died during their stay in Kansas that possibly some Native American cemeteries have yet to be identified, marked, and maintained.

The Emigrant Indians' stay in Kansas, although very brief, left permanent marks on the landscape in the form of mission buildings, reservations, and cemeteries. Also, one glance at a Kansas map shows rivers, creeks, counties, towns, and cities reflecting names of Emigrant Indian origin as well as of the Plains tribes. This Native American heritage remains an integral part of Kansas life and demands further study.

Trappers and Traders

The Europeans' desire for the furs of wild animals, especially beaver, spurred international trade between the Indians of North America and the merchants of Europe. Some historians contend that the fur trade stimulated all the early expeditions into the western wilderness. Furthermore, fur trading served the extremely useful purpose of opening the West and attracting immigrants.

According to historical evidence, the Kansa first encountered European traders and trappers in the eighteenth century in the lower Kansas valley. Other tribes in the region made similar contacts.

The first white trading post of any permanency in present Kansas was Fort Cavagnial, a complex of five log buildings constructed by the French in 1744. This combined military and trading post at the Kansa Indian village near the future Fort Leavenworth site was used until 1763, the year the English gained control over the French in continental North America. France also gave up the Louisiana country, which included present Kansas, to Spain. Spain ceded the territory back to France in 1800, and the United States purchased it in 1803.

The Missouri Fur Company, which organized in 1808 with Manuel Lisa at its head, sent out fur trapping expeditions and founded posts among the Indians of Missouri, Kansas, and Nebraska. The Indians brought furs they obtained through trapping or hunting to these posts to trade for other goods. The Missouri Fur Company dissolved in 1812.

The American Fur Company was organized in 1813 with Pierre and August Chouteau, Pierre, Jr., and his brother Francis Chouteau as members. This company monopolized the fur trade in the Rocky Mountains and the plains region to the east.

Early in the nineteenth century, the Chouteaus operated a post at the mouth of the Kaw. One of their employees in 1821 was seventeen year old John Baptiste Charbonneau, the son of the legendary Sacajawea who had accompanied Lewis and Clark on a portion of their expedition to the Pacific coast. Charbonneau worked as a trapper until the late 1830s, when demand for beaver declined. He then worked as a guide for western travelers, including those making trips through Kansas.

Francis Chouteau constructed another post twenty miles upriver, on the north bank of the Kaw, and close to present Bonner Springs. The post became known as "Four Houses," because of the arrangement of four log houses around a square.

In 1825, Cyprian Chouteau, Francis' brother, built another post, Secondine, opposite the present site of Muncie on the south side of the Kaw, not far from Four Houses. The Chouteaus depended on riverboats to bring goods up from St. Louis and to ship furs back.

In 1829 Frederick Chouteau opened another trading post on a horseshoe shaped lake a mile from the Kaw subagency and on the south side of the Kaw. The subagency stood near the present village of Williamstown.

Michael Gireau had run a trading post along the Osage River in Missouri at Collen Ford. In 1839 Gireau moved his store and established himself on the Marais des Cygnes in what is now Linn County. The place became known as Trading Post, a name the town at the site still bears. About 1842 this post was sold to one of the Chouteaus, probably Gabriel Chouteau, and was then called Chouteau's Trading Post.

Farther south, in Labette county (at the present southeast corner of 4th and Union in Oswego) John A. Mathews, a United States government agent for the Osage Indians had a well dug and walled by black slaves some time between 1841 and 1843. Mathews had a home and trading post nearby as well as a race track and stables in later years. This frontier white settlement was destroyed by Union soldiers from Fort Scott in September 1861, and Mathews was killed.

Uniontown, established west of the future Topeka site by government agents to the re-settled Potawatomis, also had traders working there. This site was abandoned in 1853 due to a cholera epidemic.

Trading posts existed close to the military forts, such as Leavenworth and Scott, to Indian agencies, and to missions during the pre-territorial period. As many as thirty to fifty whites lived near each mission and engaged in trade with Indians and travelers.

The federal government required all traders to have licenses before trading with the Indians. The government also authorized various Indian agents to designate the legal place where trade could be conducted.

Throughout most of the pre-territorial period, the Chouteaus monopolized the trade. Kansas historian William Unrau wrote:

On the basis of their close relationship with the powerful American Fur Company, their influence with the Indian Bureau officials on the frontier, their experience with the governments's licensing system and their good standing with the powerful Osages, the Chouteaus were...able virtually to dominate the Kansas trade from their government-designated posts at Kawsmouth and in the Lower Kansa Valley.

The trading posts, whether run by the Chouteaus or others, were located in the eastern part of Indian Country in the pre-territorial period. Not until the mid-1850s and later, when travel and trade increased on the Santa Fe, Oregon, Smoky Hill, and other trails, and the forts developed on the frontier, did a number of adventurous individuals open posts out west.

Few, if any, of the structures built by pre-territorial traders and trappers are known to remain. Several of the best known sites are Trading Post in Linn county, Four Houses near Bonner Springs, the Kansas sub-

agency near Williamstown, Uniontown west of Topeka, and Council Grove.
(The last named was connected with the Santa Fe Trail.)

Part II: Territorial and Civil War Kansas--An Overview of Political, Economic, and Social Factors Relating to Architecture

In the late 1840s and early 1850s, the issue of the expansion of slavery into new territory surfaced again as the United States acquired land in the war with Mexico and as Northerners and Southerners engaged in the increasingly heated emotional and political conflict over the issue of slavery. The unsettled region immediately west of Missouri known as Indian Country became embroiled in the slavery controversy.

Congress passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act, under the sponsorship of Stephen A. Douglas in 1854, opening former Indian Country to white settlement. The question of whether the territory would be slave or free would be determined by settlers' votes, i.e., popular sovereignty.

The possibility that slavery would be allowed in Kansas contradicted the provisions of the Missouri Compromise of 1820 that the land of the Louisiana Territory above the 36 degree, 30 minute line would be "forever free." Abolitionists and other opponents of the extension of slavery, angered over the Kansas-Nebraska Act, worked to make Kansas a free state. Southerners, especially those in Missouri, rejoiced over the possibility that their neighbor Kansas might become a slave state.

Even while the Kansas-Nebraska bill was being considered in Congress, enterprising individuals already in Kansas or from just across the river in Missouri staked out desirable plots of land. As soon as the bill passed, town companies from Missouri organized Leavenworth and Atchison.

At the same time, the abolitionists of New England organized to assist anti-slavery parties planning to settle in Kansas. In July 1854, the first emigrant party of thirty-five left Boston to establish a town some forty miles west of the mouth of the Kansas River. After discussion over the name they decided on Lawrence. Before the end of the year, five separate emigrant parties, about five hundred people in all, made their way to Kansas and Lawrence. The emigrant aid company sponsored groups to Topeka (late 1854), Manhattan, and several other towns in 1855. Those coming in 1855 were sponsored by the New England Emigrant Aid Company which had been chartered in February 1855.

In the first election held in the fall of 1854, many of the voters were Missouri residents who claimed they had more right than newly arrived Northerners to determine the future of Kansas. They elected a pro-slavery legislature which had some of its members living in Missouri. This legislature rejected all free state supporters and passed a stringent slave code in 1855.

Northerners organized their own rival legislature; both governments petitioned Congress to be admitted to the Union as the state of Kansas. For the next several years, the political situation remained confused, in part because Congress could not agree on the requirements for statehood.

Throughout 1855, 1856, and 1857, sporadic violence in eastern Kansas, particularly around Lawrence, made national headlines. Raids on communities resulted in killings and destruction of property. Because of such incidents as the "Wakarusa War," the "Sack of Lawrence," and the "Pottawatomie Massacre," the territory earned the name of "Bleeding Kansas."

By the end of 1857, federal troops and gubernatorial leadership could control the violence on both sides. Also, free-state advocates had become a definite majority within the state, and many Missourians were leaving. Although President James Buchanan wanted a proslavery constitution, Kansas voters opposed it. In the fall of 1857, free-state voters gained control of the territorial legislature. In 1859 they held a convention in Wyandotte where they drafted the constitution under which Kansas entered the Union as a free state in January 1861.

Although the dramatic slavery controversy dominated politics in territorial Kansas and gained nationwide attention, emigrants to Kansas were generally more interested in their own personal economic survival than with the issue of slavery. Most were definitely opposed to the extension of slavery to Kansas; however, few wanted free blacks living in Kansas.

When the Civil War broke out in 1861, Kansans suffered through more violence. Although Confederate and Union armies concentrated their efforts in the eastern and southern United States, proslavery bushwhackers from Missouri and antislavery Jayhawkers from Kansas raided back and forth across the Kansas-Missouri border. Kansas Forts Leavenworth and Scott became important garrisons for Kansas soldiers who fought in campaigns in Kansas and elsewhere.

Patterns of Settlement

At first most settlers chose sites near the Missouri-Kansas border. Other settlements followed the Kansas (Kaw) River and its tributaries west to Manhattan and Junction City or the Santa Fe Trail southwest to Council Grove or Emporia. To the south, there were areas of settlement near the Missouri border on the Marais des Cygnes and Neosho rivers and as far south as Fort Scott. The Osage Indians held title to the far southeastern part of the territory. Incoming white settlers bought land from these Indians. The western two-thirds of the state was still largely the domain of plains Indians. Except for ranches or trading posts near the overland trails, military posts or missions, most major settlement would not occur until after the Civil War.

Natural boat landings along the Missouri River attracted many of the first white settlers, especially town promoters who saw economic opportunity in developing trade centers on the river. Steamboat travel flourished on the Missouri River, bringing many settlers to Kansas as well as provisions and building materials to Quindaro, Wyandotte, Leavenworth, and Atchison.

Settlers hoped that the Kaw would be as navigable as the Missouri and took land along its banks. The relatively shallow Kaw never lived up to their expectations, although a few barges and steamboats did travel up river before railroad tracks were built near the riverbanks.

Although the population of Kansas rose in the 1850s, population density remained low before 1865. In 1860 only twelve Kansas counties had more than five individuals per square mile. Doniphan, Atchison, Leavenworth, Wyandotte, and Douglas counties averaged more than fifteen persons per square mile. By 1860, 9.4 percent of the population lived in incorporated towns. (A city of the third class needed 250 residents to qualify for incorporation.) Many small, unincorporated rural villages existed.

The pattern of settlement in Kansas has been outlined by Carroll Clark, Roy Roberts, and James Shortridge. Clark and Roberts based their work on the U.S. census and identified the density of each county for each decade. Shortridge used information on the establishment of post offices. His approach showed five-year residential pattern changes.

Census information is the major source for studies on residential patterns and the origins of those who settled in Kansas. The summaries for 1860 include data on city and county population as well as race, occupation, and origin. Manuscript census records containing individual names and totals for both 1855 and 1865 are available on microfilm at the Kansas State Historical Society Library. Annual and biennial reports of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture show patterns of settlement, origin of settlers, crops grown, and a variety of information for each county.

Origins of Kansas Settlers Before 1865

A wide variety of settlers came to Kansas in the early years. Census reports from 1855, 1860, and 1865 reveal that they came from different sections of the United States as well as from Canada and Europe. An estimated 800 or fewer white settlers were present in the area before the land opened for settlement in 1854. Most of these persons were associated with trading posts, the missions, or the forts. Many seemed to be of French descent, possibly coming by way of Canada. (French-Canadians had been engaged in the fur trade in the region for many years.) Both whites and Indians in the area had black slaves, but the number of blacks, slave or free, was probably less than a hundred.

Within months after Kansas was opened to settlers, census takers began their work. Given the unsettled, politically chaotic conditions of territorial Kansas, these records were neither complete nor accurate. Nevertheless, the statistics available do provide useful information on the immigrants to Kansas Territory. Pockets of proslavery and anti-slavery settlers can be identified. Some towns and rural districts, however, contained both proslave and free-state elements. As proslave people left the Territory, the political composition changed. For example, both Atchison and Leavenworth were originally organized by supporters of slavery. By 1857 representatives from the anti-slave New England Emigrant Aid Company had purchased a majority of the Atchison town bonds. When the Civil War began, the inhabitants of Leavenworth also supported the Union cause.

The largest number of settlers came from the Old Northwest Territory, an area including the states of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Wisconsin. Emigrants from Iowa and Minnesota could be added to this group because of cultural similarities to the Old Northwest emigrants. The Old Northwest had been settled by people from New England and the North Atlantic states plus a few from the Upper South. Many of these emigrants had previous pioneering experience and were familiar with techniques for breaking new land and for building log cabins.

Despite the prominence of New Englanders in territorial Kansas, their numbers were never large. Their influence emanated from their leadership efforts to keep slavery out of Kansas, and to improve their economic status and influence by establishing towns, operating printing presses, and building hotels, sawmills, and gristmills.

A few white Southerners came to territorial Kansas directly from the Deep South. They came to defend slavery and to make their fortunes, but they were outnumbered by the anti-slave forces. Any Southern influence on architecture and lifestyles in Kansas probably came from the settlers from the upland South who had first settled in Missouri before moving to Kansas.

Blacks, free or slave, lived in pre-territorial, territorial, and Civil War Kansas. The 1855 census reported 192 slaves and 151 free blacks in the territory. The number of slaves decreased as the white free-staters

began to dominate the territory. The 1860 census recorded 625 free blacks and only two slaves. Free blacks settled in and near river towns such as Quindaro, Wyandotte, Leavenworth, Atchison, Lawrence, and Topeka. During the Civil War, the number of blacks increased as slaves fled from the nearby slave states of Missouri and Arkansas. A few came up from Texas and Oklahoma. By 1862, Leavenworth had 1,500 blacks. Although military leaders welcomed them as soldiers, few Kansans considered them politically equal. The poverty of nearly all the newly arrived black immigrants meant that they lived in hastily built shacks or run down dwellings.

The major waves of migration from Europe to Kansas came after the Civil War, but European immigrants were present here in the territorial period. According to the 1860 census, foreign born residents comprised almost twelve percent of the population and were scattered in towns and rural areas throughout the settled sections of the region. In the period 1854-1861, some eighty settlements or the beginnings of settlements were established by continental Europeans in rural Kansas. Most were German, others included Scandinavians, French, Flemish, Irish, Swiss, and Czech. Many Europeans resided in already established towns. Foreign elements settled as far west as the 97th meridian, about 130 miles from the Kansas-Missouri border. Demographer J. Neale Carman wrote that settlements of rural Germans were found in every part of territorial Kansas.

Foreign immigrants operated stores and inns near stream crossings during the 1850s. Gerat H. Hollenberg, a native of Hanover, Germany, founded Hanover in Kansas and established a store on the California-Oregon Road. George Guittard, his wife, and three sons set up a trading post on the Vermillion. Henry "Dutch Henry" Sherman operated a store at the Pottawatomie Creek crossing near Lane in Franklin County.

Foreign immigrants tended to congregate in communities with others of similar background. The Czechs established the community of Marak, twenty miles south of Atchison in 1857. Scandinavians had several communities in Kansas. Scandinavians started farming in extreme northeast Kansas in 1855; a group of Danes chose to live on the northwest edge of the territorial settlement frontier in 1855. Swedes went to Marshall, Riley, and Pottawatomie counties in 1858. The most successful of the early Scandinavian colonies was at Swenson's Creek beginning in 1858.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Settlement Patterns

Clark Carroll and Roy Roberts reviewed the origins and patterns of early Kansas settlement in their study People of Kansas published in 1936. J. Neale Carman's Foreign-Language Units of Kansas detailed information about non-English speaking settlers. Articles and monographs by Carman, Alberta Pantle, Emory Lindquist, Carolyn Berneking, Nell Blythe Waldron, and Eleanor Turk provide narrative accounts of groups and individuals who came to Kansas from Europe before 1865.

Several studies exist on the types of structures built by immigrant settlers from other sections of the United States and from Europe. Excellent articles by Kansas historian James Malin compared the different

attitudes toward building held by New England settlers and those from the Old Northwest. He showed how these attitudes were revealed in Lawrence in 1854 and 1855. He wrote that settlers from the Ohio River Valley were accustomed to pioneering; they appreciated the warmth and sturdiness of log cabins and knew how to build them. On the other hand, New Englanders frowned on log cabins, believing they needed clapboard or brick to construct adequate buildings. Malin also discussed the effect of available building materials and cultural attitudes on architecture in Kansas City and Leavenworth. Another interesting study, entitled "Kansas Architecture," by University of Kansas architectural student Robert Asbury, Jr., surveyed architecture in Kansas from the pre-territorial period to the present. He presented information on cultural influences of American and foreign born immigrants in Kansas.

Boundaries, Surveys, and Land Acquisition

The territory of Kansas was organized on May 30, 1854. The first boundaries encompassed an area amounting to 126,383 square miles between the Missouri border and the Continental Divide. The present northern border was the same as now while the southern border was on the 37th parallel to the 103rd meridian where it jogged north about seventy miles then turned west on the 38th parallel, giving Kansas a western "panhandle." Prior to opening Kansas for settlement, and for several years thereafter, the federal government signed several treaties with the resident Indians reducing or eliminating Indian reservations in the territory. Most of the Indians were relocated in Oklahoma Territory within twenty years.

In July 1854, Congress created the Kansas territory as a land district. Official surveys were necessary before land could be sold. Land surveyors used the intersection of the 40th parallel and 6th principal meridian as the beginning point. The 6th meridian was established in the field and went through present Wichita. The survey process involved bids, contracts, fieldwork, office work, survey approvals, and proclamation for entry. Most of the federal surveying in Kansas was carried out by private surveyors operating under contract and supervised by the surveyors general.

The township and range survey system required land to be divided into townships six miles square which were then subdivided into sections one mile square (640 acres each). The federal government directed correction lines to be thirty miles apart in Kansas. North-south guide meridians were located forty-eight miles apart. Stakes or stones were set at each township corner, section corner, halfway between section markers, and on section lines.

The first of twenty-five land offices in Kansas opened in LeCompton in 1856. First filings were received in May 1856. By October 1856, more than 1,864,140 acres had been surveyed and approved in northeast Kansas. Surveying continued in Kansas from east to west until completed in 1876. The territorial legislature organized thirty-four counties. There were frequent boundary changes in the territorial period, especially for the counties on the western fringe which had few settlers.

At the Wyandotte constitutional convention, delegates debated Kansas boundaries, even considered including an area north to the Platte River in Nebraska. However, the convention believed Kansas would be more manageable if it reduced the area from the original 126,282 square miles to 82,264 square miles. They decided against keeping the area west of the 102nd meridian, which is now the eastern half of Colorado. The north boundary at the 40th parallel and the south boundary at the 37th parallel remained the same.

Land Acquisition by Settlers

In 1854 there were three ways to obtain private title to public lands in Kansas: direct purchase, military warrant, and preemption. None of these methods, however, could give title until the land had been surveyed. Settlers were allowed to enter Kansas, stake their claims, and wait for completion of the survey before filing for the claims.

Military land warrants had been granted to soldiers as a reward for wartime service since 1776. These land warrants did not require the individual to live on the land. Speculators could acquire large tracts by purchasing land warrants cheaply from soldiers and then resell the land in smaller tracts to settlers. Preemption allowed the settling on public land before such land was purchased or surveyed with the privilege of purchasing it afterward. The Preemption Act of 1841 provided for the sale of 160 acres of public lands to any "squatter" over twenty-one years of age upon consideration of residence and improvements. The period for payment ranged from twelve to thirty-three months. The Act allowed squatters to purchase the land upon which they had settled at the minimum of \$1.25 per acre before it was put up for public auction. In the Kansas Territory, squatters moved in during 1854 and 1855 believing that they could accumulate the necessary funds to purchase the land once the survey was completed and they could file a claim. Many problems stemmed from claim jumpers and from people who tried to get more than the allotted 160 acres by hiring others to hold land for them.

The Homestead Act of 1862 was more favorable to settlers, especially the poorer ones. To be eligible, one had to be a citizen or to have declared the intention to acquire citizenship. The Act provided that the head of a family could acquire a quarter section of land (160 acres), build improvements on it, and cultivate it for five years, after which time the homesteader could acquire title to the land. The only direct cost for the land was a \$10 filing fee. Historian Homer Socolofsky concluded that the Homestead Act was not so successful in Kansas as expected because the best arable land was already taken in eastern Kansas and the railroads owned most of the good river bottom land which was available to settlers in eighty-acre tracts only.

Neither the Preemption Act nor the Homestead Act could be used to obtain Indian land. Through the treaty process much of the Indian land went to individual railroad companies and to land companies. Several groups purchased Wyandot "float" land. In an 1842 treaty specific Wyandot Indians had been granted 640 acres each wherever they wanted in Indian Country. These "floats" were made assignable after Kansas became a territory. At least 34 "floats" were used in Kansas to secure some of the best sites, sites which town promoters wanted and subsequently purchased. LeCompton, Emporia, Doniphan, Burlington, Kansas City, Lawrence, Topeka, and Manhattan were all founded on Wyandot "float" land.

Land Grants

When Kansas became a state, millions of acres of land grants were given

to Kansas. A large endowment provided for common schools, that is, two sections of every congressional township were set aside for school use. Combined with the Morrill Act of 1862, these grants helped fund common schools as well as a state university, an agricultural college, and a normal (teachers college) school. Smaller land grants provided for internal improvements and public buildings.

Railroad Land Grants

Grants of land to railroads amounted to almost one-sixth of the area of the state. These land grants enabled railroads to raise funds for construction. The federal government granted a total of more than four million acres to the Union Pacific, Eastern division, (Kansas Pacific) (3,925,791 acres) and the Union Pacific, Central Branch (223,141 acres). In addition, the government made large grants, in excess of four million acres, to the state to transfer to the railroads. The largest grantee was the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe, recipient of 2,944,788 acres. The Union Pacific, Southern Branch, later the Missouri, Kansas and Texas, received 609,058 acres. Other railroads received additional grants and also purchased surplus Indian lands at a reduced cost. Railroads received their land in alternate, odd-numbered sections within twenty-miles of the railroad right-of-way.

Later, major immigrant groups such as the German Mennonites from Russia, who settled in Marion and Harvey counties, bought land from the railroad. The Santa Fe, the Missouri, Kansas and Texas, and other railroads had agents in Europe seeking immigrants to come settle on railroad lands in Kansas. They published advertisements in German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, French, and Russian, as well as English. One Kansas historian wrote that "Land grant railroads have been among America's most active and successful colonizers." The railroad owners and officers knew that well established farms and towns along their route assured income for the company.

Territorial Capitals, State Capitol, and County Courthouses

Between 1854 and 1861, the territorial capital moved to seven different towns or sites, in part a reflection of the disagreements among territorial governors and legislators regarding the slavery issue. Also contributing to the instability were town promotional activities in which some legislators were involved.

In 1854 territorial governor Andrew Reeder arrived in Kansas, opening his office at Fort Leavenworth in a stone building at the northeast corner of the parade ground. This building at 12-14 Sumner Place, which was constructed in 1838, still stands.

After fifty days at the fort, Reeder needed more space and moved the territorial office to a three-story brick building (east building) at Shawnee Methodist Mission. This building, constructed in 1841, is one of the three surviving Shawnee Mission buildings, which have been designated as a National Historic Landmark.

Reeder requested that the first territorial legislature, elected in March 1855, convene at Pawnee near Fort Riley in July 1855. He wanted the legislators to be far from Missouri influence. Reeder himself was a member of the Pawnee Association which had ordered construction of a two-story stone building, 40 feet by 80 feet, to accommodate the new legislature. The Association wanted a capital city to develop at Pawnee. When legislators arrived, the building had no floor, roof, or doors. The session lasted five days before adjourning to the Shawnee Methodist Mission. There the proslave majority voted to make Lecompton, a proslavery town, the territorial capital. The free-staters could not accept this and began organizing themselves into a separate government. They called the first elected territorial legislature "bogus" because so many non-Kansans, mainly Missourians, had voted for the proslave legislators.

In 1857 the Lecompton based legislature met in a two-story rectangular frame building now called Constitution Hall. The Lecompton Constitutional convention, which met in September and October 1857, wrote a constitution that if accepted would have made Kansas a slave state. Constitution Hall still stands and has been designated a National Historic Landmark. It was acquired by the state in 1986 and will be rehabilitated for use as a museum.

For the election of 1857 and thereafter, the free-state voters clearly outnumbered the proslave faction. It became evident that Kansas climate and geography would not be suitable for the extension of slavery and to insist on extension was futile. However, neither the President nor Congress could agree on admission terms for Kansas, so Kansas had to wait. In 1859 delegates met at Wyandotte to draw up the constitution which the Congress accepted prior to admitting Kansas as a state in January, 1861.

At the Wyandotte convention in 1859, delegates argued most over capital

location and boundaries. (See boundaries in a separate section.) Topeka, Lawrence, and Atchison were the strongest contenders, with Topeka winning amid charges of bribery and vote selling. In 1861, Cyrus Holliday, one of Topeka's founders, donated land for a capitol site. Construction on the capitol began in 1866 under the direction of John G. Haskell, a Lawrence architect. The entire building was completed in 1903.

County Seats and Courthouses Before 1880

The Kansas legislature required that a county contain at least 600 persons and a minimum of 423 square miles before it could organize as a county. The governor designated a temporary county seat until an election was held. In eastern Kansas many county seats changed after the free-state legislature gained control in 1857. Sometimes several towns fought for the privilege of being the county seat.

During the territorial period and the first decade or two of statehood courthouses generally lacked the grandeur of later periods. Inadequate funds, postponement because of the Civil War; and difficulty in transporting building materials restricted construction. Lyon County had a one-room log building with the courtroom downstairs and the jail upstairs. Riley County used the upper room over a grocery store. Wyandotte County rented a building in which to hold court and built a log jail behind it. Other county seats reported similar accommodations. Leavenworth was an exception. It used a three-story brick and stone building for county business, one of the few counties in the early years to have respectable facilities.

Most of the structures used for government purposes in the territorial or early statehood period, except for Forts Leavenworth and Riley and the missions, have disappeared. Those few which survived have been designated historic landmarks. The territorial capitol at Pawnee, near Fort Riley, used only a few days, has been renovated and now stands as a museum operated by the Kansas State Historical Society. Constitution Hall in Leecompton is now also under the management of the State Historical Society. No courthouse buildings are known to remain from the period before 1865.

After the Civil War county seat residents took pride in their public buildings, wanting them to evidence their respect for local government. Consequently the county courthouse was often the most elaborate building in town.

Generous open spaces in the center of town were used as the courthouse square. In Oskaloosa, Columbus, Paola, Yates Center, and many other towns, the square provided a site for the county courthouse and a focal point for the community. The practice of locating a building in the center of the public square was common in the midwestern states, particularly Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, the original home of most Kansas immigrants.

A. T. Andreas, in his History of Kansas, described the Oskaloosa town

square: "The courthouse is a fine two story brick building, 50 feet by 70 feet in size, and is situated in the center of the public square, which is finely ornamented by a grove of tall maple trees, so thickly set as to shade all over the square, and make one of the finest of parks." The public square stood on the highest ground in Oskaloosa. A wall of finely cut stone surrounded it. The inside of the wall was "filled even with its top with earth and all is sown to orchard grass." The original two-story structure was built with hand pressed red brick in 1867. In June 1960, a tornado destroyed the top floor of that building, the oldest courthouse in use in Kansas. It was subsequently razed. A modern brick building replaced the original.

New England influence showed itself in Lawrence where the courthouse was placed at the edge of the city park, or "green."

Of the four county courthouses built in the 1870s, three have been destroyed and/or replaced. Leavenworth's county courthouse, built in 1873, was gutted by fire in 1911. The same foundation and some of the walls were used in the next courthouse. The Greenwood County courthouse at Eureka, designed by Kansas architect John G. Haskell in 1871, is gone. The cut stone and brick Barton County courthouse at Great Bend, built in 1872, has been replaced.

The only remaining county courthouse from the 1870s is located at Cottonwood Falls in Chase County. Built of native limestone and walnut, it is now the oldest Kansas courthouse in use. John G. Haskell designed this classic example of Second Empire architecture with its cut stone exterior, mansard roof and spiral staircase. This architectural gem is listed on the National Register of Historic Places.

John G. Haskell also supervised construction of the east wing of the Kansas capitol in Topeka. He began his architectural practice in Kansas during the territorial period, after training in Massachusetts. He was selected as state architect in 1866. From his home in Lawrence, he traveled to other cities and towns in Kansas designing and supervising construction of several courthouses and other public and private buildings in Kansas.

Haskell had nothing but praise for the building stone found in Kansas. He wrote in 1872: "Almost every quarter section of farming land in our whole broad domain, lies within convenient distance to a quarry of suitable stone for all the uses of the farm...Every city and town is therefore convenient to this great staple supply...Stone is of satisfactory grade in large masses."

Topics for Consideration and Research: Capitals, County Courthouses

Local researchers wanting to study territorial capitals and early county seats should consult Robert Richmond's "First Capitals in Kansas" and Homer Socolofsky's "County Seat Wars in Kansas." A recent book, John G. Haskell, Pioneer Kansas Architect, by John M. Peterson, details one man's architectural career. Courthouse records and local histories are

likely places to get specifics on courthouse construction. State records and contemporary newspapers could provide more information on territorial and other government buildings.

Town Building in Territorial and Civil War Kansas

Town company speculation in town lots and land sales was big business in territorial Kansas. A town company, an organization of investors, obtained its charter from the legislature to plat a town. The Federal Townsite Preemption Act permitted a town company to purchase up to 320 acres. Adjacent surrounding land could be added to the original plats. The site was surveyed, lots plotted, and the new town advertised in glowing terms. Favorite town sites included those along and near main overland trails, fertile river valleys, trail crossings, river junctions, and the Missouri and Kansas rivers.

As soon as Kansas opened for settlement in 1854, squatters already present on the site and/or residents of nearby Missouri established Leavenworth and Atchison. Organization of Doniphan, Kickapoo, and White Cloud quickly followed. Virtually all of the organizers of those five towns were sympathetic to slavery, but yet few wanted to use violence against free-state men. Most were more concerned over personal economic survival and improvement than with the issue of slavery.

For the first few years, Kansas river towns thrived on land speculation and trade. Businessmen and promoters built hotels, offices, stores, and shops. The economy of Atchison and Leavenworth prospered as thousands of traveling families stopped to buy supplies before going west over the Oregon and California trails, or to the gold field in Colorado.

Steamboats tied up at the levee with goods from St. Louis and other eastern cities to sell to local settlers and to overland freighters headed for California, Oregon, or Santa Fe, and after 1858, Denver.

A small group of towns were founded by opponents of slavery. Lawrence, Topeka, Manhattan, Wabaunsee, Emporia, and Burlington (Hampton) depended on support from the anti-slavery New England Emigrant Aid Company. By the end of 1855, the Company owned five mills and a number of hotels, including one in Kansas City, Missouri. Although the number of settlers sent out by the New England Emigrant Aid Company was relatively small, the company's impact on the slavery struggle was significant, due in part to effective leaders representing the company in Kansas. The company itself was never a financial success.

The small villages of Franklin, Tecumseh, and Lecompton were founded to support slavery near the free state strongholds of Topeka and Lawrence. But they did not have the financial backing, leadership, or geographic location to develop as did their neighbors.

Foreign immigrant groups who shared ethnic and religious traditions founded several Kansas towns and communities in the territorial period. Swedish settlers developed Axtell in north central Kansas, and Enterprise. Norwegians formed the nucleus of Moray (originally East Norway). Czechs founded Marak in 1857; Swiss founded Neuchatel; Welsh settlers joined free-staters at Emporia. Catholics from Ireland and Germany chose

townsites near existing Catholic communities such as those near Atchison, Leavenworth, and St. Marys. Germans were prominent in the founding of Humboldt, Eudora, Flush (Floersch), Wild Cat, and Hiawatha. Many foreign immigrant groups came to Kansas after the Civil War.

Kansas attracted other groups. Quakers drawn to Kansas by abolitionist sympathies founded Hesper near Lawrence and Springdale near Leavenworth. A group of vegetarians planned a colony near the Neosho River, but few actually settled within the colony.

Competition Between Towns

Towns competed for the distinction and economic advantage of being the territorial or state capital, the county seat, and the site of a college. To make towns more attractive and accessible, townsmen built hotels, mills, and other businesses, operated a ferry or built a bridge. Elaborate promotion prints of towns were distributed throughout the eastern states advertising the prosperity of the town and the salubrious climate. Town promoters enthusiastically sold town lots to anyone who would buy.

By 1860 the competition to become the leading city in the Kansas Territory had narrowed. Leavenworth had the largest population in the region and a monopoly on the army trade from the fort. Atchison was the farthest point west on the bend of the Missouri and had railroad connections to St. Joseph, Mo. with the Atchison and St. Joseph Railroad and points to the east via the Hannibal and St. Joseph. Much of the trade bound for Utah and Colorado originated in Atchison. Wyandotte had an advantage of being at the junction of the Kaw and the Missouri rivers and near the terminus of the Santa Fe and Oregon trails.

The coming of the Civil War enhanced Leavenworth's economy. Jobs were plentiful and people flocked there. By 1865 Leavenworth had become the biggest town between St. Louis and San Francisco.

But Leavenworth's boom did not last. In 1865 the Union Pacific, Eastern Division railroad had been built through Kansas City, Lawrence, and Topeka, bypassing Leavenworth and Atchison. The river trade and the overland freighting on which Leavenworth and Atchison depended was quickly replaced by railroad transportation. By 1870 Kansas City, Missouri had improved its commercial status by bridging connections to Chicago and Galveston as well as to both coasts. Both Kansas Citys had a large hinterland from which raw materials could be collected and exported. Industries processing the products of Kansas farms located there. The twin cities of Kansas City, Missouri, and Kansas City, Kansas were beginning to dominate the business of the region.

Ferries and Bridges

Ferries and bridges were essential to trade centers on the Missouri, Kaw, and other smaller rivers and streams. The territorial legislatures granted numerous individuals and companies the right to establish ferries

or construct bridges. The first ferries consisted of a pulley, a length of rope, and a raft. If the raft were properly steered along the rope, the current could convey it across the river. Eventually bridges replaced ferries. (No ferries crossed the Kansas River after 1885 except in emergency). Bridges were safer and easier to use than ferries.

Individuals and the Army had built a few bridges before 1854. More came afterwards as traffic increased through eastern, central, and southern Kansas. The first bridges, such as the one at Juniata on the military road crossing north of Manhattan and the 925 foot bridge spanning the Kaw at Topeka built in 1858, washed away with major floods. More substantial bridges replaced them later. No known bridges remain from the territorial period. Nearly all of those built shortly after statehood were washed away by flood or replaced with better designed, sturdier bridges that could handle heavier traffic.

Town Structures and Town Layouts

Town companies hurried to get business buildings constructed to impress visitors and to convince themselves of the town's continuance. A main street, usually near the river, contained many of the major buildings. Almost every town of several hundred or more residents had one or more hotels, preferably two or three stories tall and made of brick, wood, or stone. If any building in town displayed stylish decoration, it was likely to be the hotel. Early Leavenworth had two major hotels, one for proslavery and one for anti-slavery visitors. The large brick Planters Hotel, which opened in 1856, served many famous guests, including Abraham Lincoln, before it was torn down in the 1950s.

Free-staters in Lawrence started construction of an extra sturdy hotel of native stone with loopholes. They intended to use it as a refuge in case of attack. In May 1856, before the hotel could be completed, proslavery raiders destroyed it. Colonel S. W. Eldridge and his brother built a four-story hotel on the same site in 1857. Quantrill's raiders destroyed it in 1863. Colonel Eldridge built again. (This hotel was replaced in 1926 by another hotel building, still called the Eldridge.) Eldridge also built the Otis Hotel in Atchison.

Multifunctional structures known as business or commercial blocks dominated downtown districts in towns large and small. These were relatively large structures of brick or stone, usually with a name chiseled in stone near the top. This type of building generally housed several businesses or professional offices. Construction of the first three-story brick business block in Topeka began in 1857; it was destroyed by fire in 1868. Although many commercial blocks have been destroyed by fire or bulldozer, a few dating from the 1870s still remain in Kansas' smaller towns.

Typical small towns in the 1870s would have at least one of each of the following businesses, among others: mercantile store, insurance and real estate office, livery and stable, millinery, newspaper, grocery, baker, lawyer, confectionary, agricultural implement dealer, a combined furniture

and undertaking establishment, grain dealer, blacksmith, banker, hotel, boarding house, meat market, saloon, lumber yard, flouring mill, and land agent.

A few towns, such as Lawrence and Topeka, reserved several centrally located blocks for parks. But they were the exception rather than the rule.

Towns in territorial Kansas exhibited a degree of similarity. All had approximately the same types of structures, built in similar ways. At first buildings were quickly and simply constructed of native materials. Town promoters, eager to get the first structures in place, expected to replace them within a few years, if the town prospered. Towns situated on the Missouri River, where building materials could be shipped in by boat, acquired substantial, relatively elaborate buildings. Builders could get ready cut lumber and all sorts of finishing and trim materials. Prefabricated housing shipped in from Ohio and elsewhere was used in Leavenworth, Manhattan, and other towns for small business buildings as well as residences.

Railroads and Town Building

The proliferation of railroads after the Civil War, and especially in the early 1870s encouraged town speculation and construction. The railroad needed fuel and water stops along the route. It also wanted more trade centers to generate business. Chanute and Parsons originated as railroad towns. There would be others in years to come.

The Kansas Pacific crossed the state in 1870 and the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe in 1872. Until the 1880s, these two major lines were the only railroads west of a line from Concordia to Coffeyville. Several railroad companies built east of this line. A major line was the Missouri, Kansas and Texas (KATY), going from Junction City south to Chetopa and into Oklahoma. Topeka, Lawrence, Leavenworth, Atchison, Kansas City, Fort Scott, Junction City, and Emporia had several railroad connections each.

Railroad development slowed in the late 1870s because of economic recession. By 1878, though, Kansas had almost 3,000 miles of railroad track. (Kansas had a peak of 9,408.99 miles in 1916.)

Topics for Consideration and Research: Town Building

A great deal of useful information about early towns and their structures can be gained from the accounts of people who inhabited them. Newspapers, most of which are available at the Kansas State Historical Society, are superb tools for studying towns. In many towns, the local newspaper offices or the public libraries have files or microfilm of the local papers dating back to the first issues. Research into city directories, city council meeting minutes, and county records could possibly help to identify early commercial buildings.

The A. T. Andreas History of Kansas, published in 1883, even with its errors, remains the leading source on Kansas villages, towns, and cities. Frank Blackmar's two volume Kansas, A Cyclopedia of State History is another excellent source. The Kansas State Historical Society, county and local historical societies, and libraries have collections of maps, manuscripts, clippings, anniversary editions of newspapers, photographs, etc., which shed light on early architectural features. County plat books locate every school, grist and saw mill, post office, village and town, section by section. The early annual and biennial reports of the Kansas State Board of Agriculture were especially comprehensive in their county by county coverage.

Schools and School Architecture

The first schools in Kansas territory were subscription schools. Teachers negotiated for a meager salary and "boarded around" within the community. Each family with school-age children expected to take its turn at feeding and housing the teacher. The school year consisted of two and one-half to three month sessions, once or twice a year. Each child brought his or her own books. Maps, chalkboards, and dictionaries were rare. One teacher taught all subjects to all students in the typical one-room school. Subscription classes met in private homes, stores, or churches.

In 1859 the Wyandotte Constitution mandated "common" schools, another term given public schools. The law called for tuition-free, coeducational schooling for all Kansas children between five and twenty-one years of age. Decisions on racial segregation were left to local school authorities and communities. In communities where the black population was small, schools were integrated. Where large, the students were more likely to be separated. Official state policy opposed segregation until the early 20th century.

Colleges and Universities

In the territorial period, community leaders were often more interested in establishing colleges and universities (which also served as preparatory schools) than in schools for the young students. This was true of Isaac Goodnow of Manhattan and Charles Robinson of Lawrence who waged a three-year legislative battle to get the state university located in their respective towns. Each believed a college or university would encourage town growth and prosperity.

Between 1855 and 1860, over thirty colleges and universities were chartered. Most of these were supported by Catholic and Protestant denominations.

The first buildings erected at Baker, Lane, Ottawa, Highland, and Washburn universities were representative of the architectural expression in this period of Kansas school architecture. One of the first was "Old Castle" at Baker University, constructed in 1858 of coarse stone with simple, rather high proportions, with symmetrically arranged facades. It had no trace of formal architectural style. Baker's next building, Parmenter Memorial Hall (Old Science), built in 1871, was essentially Georgian in style. Taub Jones Hall, at Ottawa University, begun in 1864, was also Georgian.

Irvin Hall at Highland University, now Highland Junior College, was completed in 1859. It is a two-story rectangular building constructed of hand-made red brick. In 1860 Bluemont College, the forerunner of Kansas State Agricultural College, and later Kansas State University, was finished. The building was of white limestone, three stories high, and 50 feet by 44 feet at the base. It cost \$10,000 to build in 1860 and was

sold as salvage for \$221 in the 1880s. In Lyon County, the Hartford Collegiate Institute building, constructed of stone in 1860, now houses a library and city hall.

The universities which dominated the first period of Kansas school architecture continued to grow with the general prosperity of the post-Civil War period. At the University of Kansas, John G. Haskell designed the old Fraser Hall, completing it in 1872. Its twin towers and mansard roofs illustrated the influence of the Victorian Gothic styles. The building, the first of several University of Kansas Victorian period buildings, was razed in 1965. At Emporia, the Kansas State Normal School designed by Erasmus T. Carr of Leavenworth, and completed in 1873, is still being used.

The Catholic Church built several school structures which have become historic sites. The Sisters of Charity came to Leavenworth from Tennessee in November 1858. Six days after their arrival they advertised the opening of an academy which developed into the Saint Mary College. In 1868 construction began on a new campus. The buildings still retain a high degree of architectural integrity. The interiors, in particular, are excellent examples of Victorian architecture. The Catholic Church reported supporting seven colleges and academies by 1877.

Public Schools

Compared to higher education, progress in public school architecture developed very slowly before 1880. A reported one-twelfth of the buildings used for schools then were sod huts, dugouts, or log cabins. In the rural areas, the one-room grade school dominated. Whether of stone or frame, all were architecturally similar, being rectangular with a gable roof and a belfry which sheltered a cast-iron bell. Several examples remain from the 1860s and 1870s. One of the best preserved is the old Lanesfield School (1876) near Edgerton in Johnson County which is now used as a museum.

Most of the public school structures in town were square or rectangular and two or three stories high. The interiors were often drab, drafty, and cold in winter. Wichita's first school building, constructed of lumber in 1871, three years after the town was founded, fit the above description exactly. A more substantial building with more style was constructed in 1879.

Marion had one of the more impressive school buildings, a two-story Renaissance style structure of rough-cut stone built in 1873-1874. It has been used continuously since it was built. The two story brick structure in White Cloud, which dates to 1872-1873, is now used as a museum.

In most early common schools, education ended at the eighth grade. During the 1860s and 1870s, about half of the young people eligible enrolled in school and eighty-five percent of them were enrolled in the first four grades.

Leavenworth gets credit for having the first high school in Kansas, holding classes in 1865 in a large, three-story brick building. Wichita had a graduating class of four in 1879, its first high school class. Only four high schools were accredited by the state university in 1880. Public high schools increased in popularity toward the beginning of the next century. In the meantime, students planning to attend college could take a college preparatory course at the college before tackling advanced academic work.

As towns became more established toward the late 1870s, they began to take more pride in their public school buildings, sometimes even overbuilding, considering a community's small size. By 1880 there were 3,925 frame school buildings, 433 log buildings, 154 brick, and 730 stone buildings. The 1880s brought major changes to school architecture. More wealth and civic pride combined to dignify and exalt public school education as shown in the monumental buildings of the late 1880s.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Schools

To learn more about specific territorial and early statehood school architecture, research through local board of education minutes is invaluable. If these are not available, contemporary newspapers are fairly reliable sources on school activities. Manuscripts and articles at county and local historical societies could have information.

The A. T. Andreas History of Kansas published in 1883 has sections on common schools for each community in Kansas. Also useful are the annual reports of the Territorial Superintendent of Schools.

Well written, well documented histories of the University of Kansas, Wichita State University, Kansas State University, Baker University, and others include sections on the first years of the schools as well as photos. The Kansas Historical Quarterly, Kansas History, the Midwest Quarterly, and other publications have articles pertaining to the common (public) schools, parochial schools, colleges, and universities in Kansas.

The community's cultural values and financial generosity are shown in the facade of the local school. One can learn a great deal about a community simply by viewing its public school buildings.

Churches

The first Christian denominations in Kansas were associated with the Indian missions located in eastern Kansas.

Among the first churches in territorial Kansas were Methodist, Presbyterian, Congregational, Christian, Episcopal, Catholic, and Baptist. These denominations built most of the churches in Leavenworth, Atchison, Lecompton, Lawrence, Emporia, Topeka, Manhattan, and other smaller cities and towns. One of the first white congregations organized in Kansas was the Plymouth Congregational Church in Lawrence in 1854. The congregation held its first services in a hay tent supported by poles and covered with a thatched roof.

At first, religious services were held in any convenient shelter. Houses, schools, and stores were arranged to accommodate congregations on Sunday. Sometimes congregations would unite to construct a building. They donated their labor, hauled in building materials, and used their own tools. Only the master carpenter or master mason and his assistants received pay.

Funds for the construction of the first churches were often raised in the eastern states. For example, Isaac Goodnow, one of the founders of Manhattan, returned to the east coast twice in the late 1850s seeking funds for the Methodist Church in Manhattan. The Catholic Bishop, John Baptiste Miede, raised funds outside of Kansas for the impressive Cathedral built in Leavenworth in 1864.

E. R. DeZurko in his article "Early Kansas Churches" noted that the churches of the territorial period were "classic in spirit if not in detail." They resembled the earlier churches of New England. The Congregational Church at Wabaunsee (Beecher Bible and Rifle Church), the original portion of St. Paul's Episcopal Church in Manhattan, and the Lutheran Church at Valley Falls are surviving examples from the territorial period. According to Robert Asbury, Jr., "the finest example of the classic spirit in the territorial churches is the Beecher Bible and Rifle Church at Wabaunsee." This simple masonry church erected by pioneers from New Haven, Connecticut, and completed in 1861, "owes its architectural charm to pleasing proportions, quaint austerity, and the rich wall textures afforded by its masonry."

The principal architectural feature of these early churches is the rubble stone masonry. Wall surfaces are relatively smooth but sizes and shapes of stones are varied. The color of the mortar mixture varied because of changing proportions and inconsistent mixing.

By late 1860, the majority of Kansas churches exhibited the Gothic Revival style. This included St. Paul's Episcopal in Manhattan, completed in 1870, and St. Paul's Episcopal at Leavenworth. Trinity Episcopal in Atchison, constructed of native stone in 1867, is said to be one of the finest examples of Gothic Revival in Kansas. It is a limestone structure

with buttresses, slate roof, and stained glass windows. Black walnut was used to construct joists, beams, and rafters. The Church of the Covenant in Junction City is a low stone structure with a gable roof, leaded stained glass windows, and a pointed Gothic arch entrance.

Three large edifices built in the 1860s--the Catholic Cathedral in Leavenworth (destroyed by fire in 1961), Plymouth Congregational in Lawrence, and St. Joseph's German Cathedral in Leavenworth--and other examples erected in the 1870s, "marked the beginning of the end of the small Gothic Revival church in Kansas," Asbury wrote in 1961. "The stage was set for the Victorian Gothic and the ponderous Romanesque Revival structures which were to follow."

Several examples of territorial and early 1860s church architecture still stand. The only log structure known to remain is the Wetzel Log Cabin east of Junction City. In 1859 this structure served as a combination parsonage and church for the first Missouri Synod-Lutheran Church in Kansas. Examples of small stone structures are in Osawatomie (Old Stone Church) and Wabaunsee (Beecher Bible or Congregational).

In addition to the three Episcopal churches named previously, other existing stone churches completed or begun by 1865 can be found in Eudora (Holy Family Catholic), Fort Riley (St. Mary's Chapel), and Junction City (Church of the Covenant).

Several sources provide excellent architectural and design information for the prospective researcher of Kansas churches. E. R. DeZurko's "Early Kansas Churches" and Emil Fischer's "A Study in Types: Rural Churches of the Plains" are helpful on questions of style, design, and location of some early Kansas churches. Robert Asbury, Jr., includes a section on churches in his Master's thesis on Kansas architecture done at the University of Kansas. Church records are often rich sources of information about church building activities.

Houses of Territorial, Civil War, and Post Civil War Kansas

The houses built in Kansas between 1854 and 1865 ranged from simple one room sod or log structures to pretentious homes of several stories with stylistic detailing and decoration. The proliferation of Victorian, Gothic, Queen Anne, Italianate, French Renaissance, and other styles came mostly in the 1870s and later as wealth increased for more citizens.

Few substantial dwellings, other than those at mission and forts, were constructed in Kansas before the territory opened for settlement. The settlers who arrived in 1854 built small primitive temporary dwellings, usually for one family. Crudely built boarding houses and hotels catered to lodgers or visitors.

Pioneers started with primitive shelters which included hay houses, shake cabins, and those built of wattle and daub (large branches woven between vertical stakes and daubed with mud.) Hay houses were made by erecting twenty-foot long poles in the shape of an "A." Horizontal ribs were then nailed along the sides and prairie grass attached to the ribs. Residents added sod and tarred cloth in winter for more protection. Others built houses of framed sticks or poles covered with oak boards (shakes) about four feet long.

Historian James Malin stated that the attitudes different groups brought with them to Kansas greatly influenced the type of structures they chose to build. Settlers with experience in pioneering in the Ohio River valley built warm log cabins of one or two rooms. New Englanders survived in less weatherproof houses until they were able to build frame structures.

Sod houses were widely used in western Kansas. Some did exist in eastern Kansas during the earliest years. The builder laid pieces of sod on top of one another forming a wall two feet thick and as high as desired. The roof was made of poles covered with prairie hay and with sods. A sod house cost about \$8.00 to build and was more likely to be in the country than in town.

People from the Old Northwest Territory (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin) built log cabins. At least three types were used in Kansas. One had untrimmed logs flattened on two sides. Another had square-hewn logs with ends trimmed and joined by dovetail or V-shaped joints, and a third consisted of two log houses set about ten feet apart and connected by a roof between them. Such cabin arrangements were called "dogtrot" or "possum-run" cabins. An example of the hewn log cabin is the Old Settlers Memorial Cabin now located in Gage Park, Topeka. Originally built near Topeka in 1870, it has a single room with a stone fireplace at one end. A similar building was erected in Augusta in 1868. It is a two-story structure, half log and half frame. Other preserved log cabins are at Ottawa, Osawatomie, Wichita, Junction City (Wetzel cabin), Lindsborg, Oswego, and McLouth.

Prefabricated houses were hauled by boat to early Kansas. A number of these were erected in Leavenworth, Manhattan, and Lawrence. The firm of Hinkle, Guild and Co. of Cincinnati, Ohio, sold portable cottages. The first Hinkle cottage erected in Lawrence in 1855 had two stories and measured 16 feet by 34 feet. Prices for different models ranged from \$150 to \$500 plus about \$50 shipping costs. Settlers from Ohio carried their portable houses on the steamboat "Hartford" to Manhattan in 1855. Portables were also used in western Kansas in the 1870s.

In the late 1850s, residents began erecting simple stone and brick buildings throughout the eastern and north central portions of the territory. Simple lines, basic proportions, and rich wall textures resulted from the use of natural materials. The early masonry houses had either a single room or a central hall flanked on either side by a room and were a story and a half to two stories high. The arrival of Swedish and German craftsmen and stonemasons improved the quality of construction. Some of the first stone and brick buildings still stand.

The first settlers lacked time, money, skills and even the desire to build elaborate structures. An early Kansas newspaper editor wrote that Kansas needed "the hard fisted yeomanry" and mechanic (carpenter) "not the architect, who plans and directs, but he who wills and executes," using only materials found in the quarry or forests to erect shelters and protection from the storm.

The styles prevalent in the east had been Georgian, Federal, and Greek Revival, the latter dominating the period from 1820-1850. Robert Asbury, Jr., observed that "each of these styles had traveled with the advancing frontier where they were modified by local and regional building habits, materials, skills, and traditions. Collectively, they represent the architectural heritage of the early Kansas builders."

Whether they built of frame or stone before 1865, the builders often followed the vernacular building traditions and styles they had known in other parts of the country. Settlers from the Old Northwest followed the Georgian vernacular style, similar to that in the Ohio River Valley and regions familiar to them. Such structures tended to be simple symmetrical buildings of two stories, each of which contained two rows on either side of a central hall. Gables ran the length of the house; chimneys stood at either end. Farmhouses showed no marked differences from houses located in town. In fact, many of the larger homes were located on the outskirts of towns as well as in the country. (See section on Farming and Farm Structures for more on rural houses.)

The end of the Civil War marked the beginning of a new era for residents and immigrants to Kansas. Availability of cheap land and the rapid expansion of the railroad encouraged immigration from the eastern United States, Europe and Canada. Except for western Kansas (still in the pioneering stage), Kansas settlers became more interested in larger, more elaborate houses. The less affluent stayed with the unornamented rectangular frame or stone house.

Toward the mid-1860s, as wood frame construction became more popular because of better transportation and an increase in local sawmills, the Victorian frame cottages made their appearance. These houses were distinguished by their high, sharp-peaked roofs, and wooden grills, cut out with a jigsaw and fastened to the underside of the gable eaves. Pattern books depicting this style were distributed among carpenters and builders. According to Asbury, development at this time was best represented by what is known as "carpenter Gothic," the lacy, wooden, gingerbread produced with the aid of scroll-saw and power-driven turning lathe. Victorian architects felt free to combine and invent, a practice which resulted in the style known as "eclectic." The more pretentious examples of this practice are found in Atchison, Leavenworth, Topeka, and Lawrence where rapid development in commerce, banking, and real estate brought wealth to many individuals. Some of their houses were built in the 1860s and 1870s but most came after 1880.

By 1860 the French Renaissance style began appearing in Kansas. With this style, stone quoins accented the plain brick walls; a flat roof capped an entrance which was topped by an ornamental spire. Outstanding examples of this style exist in eastern Kansas towns.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Houses

Architectural studies done by local communities and counties detail housing history. Examples are: Nineteenth Century Houses in Lawrence, Kansas; Douglas County Historic Building Survey; Shawnee County Remembrances in Wood, Brick and Stone. City and county histories are full of old photos of early day buildings. "Kansas Architecture: A Survey of Development from the Pre-territorial Period to the Present," an M. A. thesis by Robert Asbury, Jr., University of Kansas (1961), has a chapter on domestic housing, 1854-1870. Margaret Whittemore's Historic Kansas, A Centenary Sketchbook (1954), contains sketches of houses dating back to territorial days. Historic Preservation in Kansas, Vol. 2, and the 1976 supplement list and describe briefly existing historic houses.

Farming and Farm Structures in Early Kansas

The resident Indians in the territory had a history of practicing agriculture but on a relatively limited scale compared to whites. In an effort to divert the Indians' attention from hunting and trapping to farming, the United States government established an agricultural experiment station in the territory in 1827 to which Daniel Morgan Boone was sent to teach farming to the Kansa Indians. He took a hundred acre farm on Stonehouse Creek in present Jefferson County on the north side of the Kaw a few miles northwest of the future Lawrence town site.

Until Kansas was opened for settlement, most of the farming took place at or near the missions. Wheat was introduced to Kansas at Shawnee Methodist Mission in 1839. The missions raised livestock, gardens, and grains for local consumption, with surpluses being sold to passing travelers.

With the opening of the Kansas Territory in 1854, settlers came to claim farmland, choosing first the bottom land along the rivers and streams. The eastern section of Kansas, the section settled first, resembled the Old Northwest, the original home of many of the settlers. Generally annual rainfall of 35 to 40 inches insured the success of corn and other crops used by both man and animal.

Subsistence level agriculture became the major occupation when settlers arrived. Many of the first settlers had no previous agricultural experience. Such was the situation of New Englanders who came to fight slavery and to make Kansas a free state. They learned (or hired someone) to break ground with ox teams hitched to crude plows, to cultivate corn with a hoe, and to sow and harvest wheat by hand.

The Homestead Act of 1862 offered homesteads in Kansas to Union Army veterans, other citizens, or to immigrants who planned to become citizens. The Act provided that the head of a family could acquire a quarter section of land consisting of 160 acres, settle it, and cultivate it for five years. At that time the homesteader could pay a small fee and acquire title to the land.

At best a farmer could break an acre of sod a day. If a man could break up, fence, and cultivate ten to twelve acres on his claim per year, he did well.

Wheat was a minor crop in the early days but became more important with the settlement of central Kansas, the ideal region for wheat. The German Mennonites from Russia brought Turkey Red winter wheat from the Crimea to Kansas. More drought resistant and hardy, it and other varieties of winter wheat soon replaced spring wheat. Prior to 1875 the production of wheat was still a distant second to corn, but its significance increased as millers became technologically able to mill the harder wheat.

Mills to grind corn and wheat were extremely important to the early

settlers. Nearly every community had a grist mill, sometimes combined with a saw mill. These mills were often gathering spots where farmers camped overnight awaiting their turn after the harvest season.

Before farmers settled the area, speculators often bought up thousands of acres of land. The railroad also had many acres to sell from its huge government land grants. Those who bought large blocks of Kansas land either divided it and sold it in small parcels, or sold it to immigrant companies--foreign or domestic, or established large farms or ranches. One of the largest landholders in Kansas was William Scully of Ireland who began buying U.S. government land in 1870 and also Santa Fe railroad land. (He had a total of 55,666 acres in Marion county by 1886, and additional tracts in other counties and states.)

At first when there were no fences, children herded the domestic cattle and pigs. Small towns had town herds comprised of the individual animals belonging to various people. Herd laws restricted this activity after 1872.

During the 1860s and 1870s, ranchers and farmers became more interested in raising good quality beef. For example, Albert Crane of Chicago imported Durham cattle from Scotland and placed them on his huge ranch in Marion County which he named Durham Park.

Farming in nearly all areas began on a subsistence level. Pioneers relied on corn and wheat, vegetable gardens, poultry, and livestock. They preserved vegetables in root cellars and dried fruits in the sun. At the beginning, especially during the 1860s and 1870s, farmers experimented with a large variety of crops--buckwheat, sweet and Irish potatoes, fruits of all kinds, tobacco, grapes, cotton, and watermelons.

Other than a plow and a few hand tools, most early settlers had few agricultural implements to work with. Not many could afford mowers and reapers. Oxen had been used in the settlement period, but soon horses were the chief power source.

Farm Structures

In the 1850s pioneers started out with covered wagons, lean-tos, or dugouts as shelters, followed by a sod house or a log cabin if timber were available. The cabins were small, often no more than 12 by 16 feet, with additions made later. As pioneers moved west, the primitive architectural process repeated itself.

A frame house in 1860 was considered by some to be "high class." The first frame buildings were constructed of rough native lumber made at local saw mills. The frequently used green cottonwood often shrank and twisted, leaving gaps in the walls for wind, rain, and snow to come through.

After constructing the family shelter, the farmer turned to protecting his livestock and crops. Everett Dick, in The Sod House Frontier,

described the pioneer barns known as hay sheds. Forked posts, fourteen feet apart and seven feet tall, held rails which supported a roof of prairie hay. Primitive corn cribs were made of poles fashioned the same as a log house. Where sod houses were used, the family who moved to better quarters sometimes housed their farm animals in the old soddy. Sod was also used to make corrals, chicken houses, corn cribs, and pig pens. Few fences existed before 1865; hogs and cattle grazed anywhere they could during the day. Small corrals of stone or wood held them at night.

The first primitive farm structures yielded to more substantial permanent buildings as soon as the farmer could afford it and wanted it. Even so, conditions imposed by the frontier environment precluded major efforts to transplant classic porticos or Georgian facades to rural Kansas before 1880. Functional considerations dominated and plain, rectangular buildings with low-pitched gable roofs and little or no ornamentation were common. These types of buildings, constructed by the owner and his neighbors or by local craftsmen, fit the description of vernacular architecture. (See Study Unit entitled The Period of Rural/Agricultural Dominance (1865-1900), page I-7, for a fuller explanation of vernacular architecture.)

Most of the masonry buildings were of rough surfaced stone. Other masonry varied from crude rubble to even-coursed ashlar. A farmer could use stone from his own land or haul it from a nearby quarry to build his house, barn, milkhouse, and other structures. He used stone found on his land to build fences.

The arrival of Swedish and German craftsmen in the 1850s and the establishment of brick kilns and saw mills enabled the settler to erect simple, unpretentious masonry and frame buildings throughout the eastern part of Kansas. These structures had almost no trace of formal architectural style and were representative of this formative period of Kansas architecture. German architectural style could be seen in the handsome stone barns. Scandinavian immigrants influenced stone masonry in early buildings before the end of the Civil War.

The New England immigrants preferred frame to stone or brick construction for their houses. After the first stages of settlement, the New Englanders erected houses bearing traces of the Greek Revival style or more often of Georgian flavor, styles popular on the east coast.

The close of the Civil War ushered in a new era in Kansas and the United States. Expansion, rapid industrial growth, and improving technology brought architectural change and variety to Kansas. In the eastern part of the state, humble frame and masonry buildings, common before the War, gave way to pretentious structures for those persons who had the money to build them.

Topics for Consideration and Research: Farming

Some of the houses built on Kansas farms during the territorial period still exist. Discussion of such buildings may be found in Richard

Cawthon's article on "Georgian Vernacular" in Kansas Preservation and in standard works on vernacular architecture. The outbuildings on farms of territorial and early Kansas have not been systematically studied. Knowledge of those buildings, as well as the residences, could be obtained from diaries, journals, and articles by early settlers and visitors to Kansas. Contemporary newspapers ran articles on the large ranches such as Albert Crane's Durham Park Ranch in Marion County. Special editions of later newspaper issues, especially the 25th, 50th and 75th anniversary editions, recall rural life of the early period in Kansas.

The Study Unit on The Period of Rural/Agricultural Dominance (1865-1900) describes in detail rural architecture and structures.

Raids and Skirmishes in Bleeding Kansas

Violence over the expansion of slavery broke out in Kansas six years before the Civil War and contributed to the growing national agitation over the issue. During 1855, 1856, and 1857, the region was known as "Bleeding Kansas" as a result of the violence there.

The first major conflict occurred in the winter of 1855 near Lawrence, the center of free-state activities. The killing of Charles N. Dow, a free-state man, at Hickory Point, ten miles south of Lawrence, precipitated the Wakarusa War. Armed proslavery men surrounded Lawrence. Free-state men built fortifications in Lawrence to defend themselves. After a week of siege, the territorial governor and leaders of both sides met to draw up a peace treaty.

Proslavery forces numbering about 800 returned to Lawrence in May 1856, determined to subdue the free-state faction. On May 21, 1856, several hundred armed men rode into Lawrence, destroyed the newspaper offices, burned the Free-State Hotel, and burned and ransacked the remainder of the town. Although no one was killed or seriously injured, much of the town lay in ruins.

Abolitionist John Brown, leading a group of seven men, quickly retaliated for the "Sack of Lawrence" by killing five proslavery men near "Dutch Henry's" crossing on Pottawatomie Creek in Franklin County. This act set off other guerrilla warfare attacks along the Kansas-Missouri border.

Within two weeks of the Pottawatomie massacre, opposing factions met in a grove of black-jack oaks near present Baldwin. Twenty-eight proslavery men were taken prisoner at the "Battle of Black Jack," the first battlefield confrontation between free-state and proslave forces in Kansas Territory.

Osawatomie, another town which was settled by free-state families, became well-known for its militant abolitionism. Here John Brown and his five sons resided in 1856. Local defiance of the proslavery laws in the community led to the looting of Osawatomie by 170 Missourians. Proslavery forces struck a second time in late August, driving out the defenders and burning most of the town.

For two years a state of open warfare existed. Armed bands of border ruffians from Missouri made forays into Kansas; Jayhawkers retaliated. Although most of the action took place south of the Kansas River, several free-state families living north of the Kansas river were driven from their homes and out of the territory. The last major incident was the Marais Des Cygnes Massacre in May 1858 when Missourians captured eleven free-state men and lined them up in a ravine before a firing squad. Five were killed. The "Massacre" attracted nationwide media attention. An uneasy peace settled over Kansas.

Extensive property damage occurred in "Bleeding Kansas," but the number of killings was relatively small. Kansas had become symbolic with the struggle for freedom. For better or worse, Kansas came to be identified with John Brown and the radical fringe of the abolitionists.

The events and the sites connected with violence in territorial Kansas have received much attention and have become part of the mythology of local communities and the state. Partisan accounts by participants and more objective studies of the specific events have been published by the Kansas State Historical Society. Recent popular histories include Alice Nicholas's Bleeding Kansas and Jay Monaghan's War on the Border, 1854-1865. Scholarly works by James Malin carefully trace all sides of the conflict.

Several sites connected with the conflict in Kansas have been preserved. The Kansas State Historical Society owns and administers the "John Brown" Cabin and the site of the Marais des Cygnes Massacre. Both are open to the public and contain much information. The Marais des Cygnes site, just south of Trading Post in Linn County, is on the National Register and has been designated a National Historic Landmark. Historical markers in Lawrence record activities from the "Bleeding Kansas" period. Other local communities have marked the sites of territorial violence. The Battle of Black Jack is commemorated by a small park.

Civil War in Kansas

By the time the war broke out in 1861, Kansans were generally united in their support for the Union. Avid proslavery supporters, outnumbered by free-state advocates, had left the new state, and the Democrats who remained opposed secession.

Guerrilla warfare affected many who lived along the Missouri-Kansas border. In 1861 Jayhawkers led by James H. Lane invaded Missouri, burning property and freeing or kidnapping slaves. Missouri bushwhackers retaliated by burning farms and villages as far west as Diamond Springs in Morris County. At Baxter Springs, bushwhackers attacked federal troops. Raids and counter-raids continued throughout the war, despite the efforts of both Union and Confederate officers to control guerrillas. On both sides, guerrillas included men intent on plunder as well as those who fought with honest conviction.

To protect residents from Missouri bushwhackers, Union troops were stationed along the border in 1863. In August of that year, however, these troops were unable to stop or even send warning of William Quantrill's planned raid on Lawrence forty miles within the Kansas boundary. Quantrill surprised the residents in the pre-dawn attack. At least 150 men were killed and the business section of Lawrence destroyed along with about 200 houses. The surprise, the brutality, and the extent of destruction made Quantrill's raid the outstanding single event of the Civil War in Kansas and wrote a bloody climax to the border strife with Missouri.

In addition to guerrilla attacks, Kansans feared an invasion from Confederate forces. In 1864 General Sterling Price advanced to Kansas City, Missouri, with a large force of Confederate and irregular soldiers. He was turned back in a major battle at Westport by Union soldiers and the Kansas militia. He and his army then retreated south in Kansas along the Fort Leavenworth-Fort Scott military road. They were harassed all along the way by Northern troops. On October 25, 1864, Price's army was attacked south of the town of Trading Post on Mine Creek in Linn County. A major battle, involving 25,000 men, ended in a Union victory. The battle was the last significant engagement of the Civil War in the west.

The Civil War caused increased activity at Kansas forts. Fort Leavenworth gained importance as the major supplier for Union troops in the west. Fort Scott was re-established. The military road connecting it with Fort Leavenworth to the north and to forts in Indian Territory to the south received heavy use by soldiers and guerrillas. Skirmishes, raids and the Battle of Mine Creek occurred along it. In 1863 a line of encampments was built to stop bushwhackers from entering Kansas from Missouri. Civilians also erected fortifications. The cottonwood structure meant to protect Topeka from General Price's expected attack in 1864 was derisively called Fort Folly by residents.

The Kansas economy benefitted from the war. Kansas farmers sold

produce and livestock to the military. Merchants in Leavenworth did a thriving business from the Army trade and in some cases with the graft accompanying it. Trade on the overland trails increased as the Army supplied goods to troops at western forts from Leavenworth and from other river towns.

Although the war slowed the construction of railroads in the state, it did not halt it. The exodus of Southerners from Congress facilitated legislation for a railroad along a central route through Kansas. By 1865 Kansas Pacific tracks reached Topeka.

The war years saw little overall growth in the Kansas population. An exception was Leavenworth which increased its population from 5,000 in 1860 to 15,000 in 1865. Except for towns which thrived on war related commerce, most town construction and growth remained static. Many men, an estimated two-thirds of all adult males in Kansas, served at one time or another in the military.

The end of the war meant a resumption of normal activity. For Kansas that meant population increase and economic growth. Immigrants held back by the war poured into central and western Kansas after 1865. The 1862 homestead law encouraged this migration. Veterans received generous land bonuses. Blacks, freed and landless after the Civil War, viewed Kansas as the "promised land" of John Brown and the abolitionists. Although waves of them came to Kansas in the 1860s and 1870s, they were often disappointed by the cool reception they received.

Much has been written about the Civil War in Kansas, ranging from firsthand accounts of participants to the work of recent scholars. Most of the sites of Civil War battles, raids, and skirmishes within Kansas have been recognized and marked. Mine Creek battleground is on the National Register. Other marked sites are at Drum Creek (1863), Lawrence, Humboldt, Baxter Springs, Aubrey, Olathe, Shawneetown, and Diamond Springs.

Contemporary newspapers, local historical societies, and libraries are among the best resources for research on the effect of the Civil War on a community. Individuals within the community may have unpublished diaries and journals written by family members who took part in the war.

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PROGRAMS

Evaluation of Preservation Data at the State Level

The State Historical Society began its survey of the historic structures of Kansas in 1969. Since that time structures, objects, and sites have been inventoried across the state. Unfortunately, the quality of the information on each property that has been inventoried varies. The most recently gathered information is more comprehensive and more useful than the early survey data. On the positive side, the state inventory is computerized and is being continually expanded. Computerization is most useful when precise data is gathered and can then be used to evaluate the contribution a structure or group of structures makes within a statewide or regional context.

While the survey data that has been collected over the years provides only minimal information on individual structures, the National Register nominations provide much more in-depth information and analysis. (These records are open to the public, as are the survey files.) The earliest National Register forms are less detailed and less precise than those more recently completed.

The inventory and the nominations are the main resources that the Historic Preservation Department has to offer to anyone involved with or interested in preservation planning. These documents are a valuable base on which further work should build.

Surveys and Evaluation of Historic Structures

Architectural resources are all too often recorded only in the minds of local residents. When the structure disappears and the people go away, knowledge of large parts of our heritage is lost.

Surveys provide important data for planners, scholars, amateur historians, and others interested in this state's cultural resources. Survey data can be used by preservationists to evaluate individual buildings or groups of resources and to make well thought out decisions about which structures are most valuable, which are most threatened, which are easiest to preserve, and so on.

There are many types of surveys and many ways of carrying them out. Each has its advantages and short-comings and each must be adjusted to the situation at hand. It is strongly recommended that surveys be conducted by professionals who are able to make field judgments and analysis that non-professionals would not be able to perform. If a survey team is made up of volunteers, they should be supervised by a professional. If the money is not available for a professional survey coordinator, the group should work closely with the Historic Preservation Department.

All surveys carried out in the State of Kansas should use the state inventory form. (Appendix A) When completed properly, it will provide information needed for evaluation of the structure, its data can be

entered onto the computerized statewide inventory, and it can be used for planning and review purposes at the local and state level.

Surveys should consist of three principal parts. Before any field work is done, the surveyor(s) should familiarize themselves with the area by reading local and county histories, talking with local historians and historical societies, reviewing old maps, plats, and photographs, and so on. The second step is the actual survey. This step includes gathering historical documentation on the resource including date of construction, original owner, original use, etc., developing a physical description, and photographing the resource. The final step in a survey project is to evaluate the resources based on their physical integrity and historical significance.

The comprehensive survey is the most useful type of survey. It is also the most expensive and the most time consuming. A comprehensive survey can be conducted in a number of ways, depending on the goals of the survey. It can be an inventory of all types of resources—archeological, architectural, engineering, and natural; it can be an inventory of all architectural resources more than 50 years old, or it can be more specific yet and cover, for example, all bridges constructed before 1932 in Kansas. The comprehensive field survey that inventories only architectural resources is the type of survey that will most likely be carried out in Kansas.

Many sources of information on non-architectural resources are available. Archeological surveys are conducted by state archeologists and records maintained at the Kansas State Historical Society, University of Kansas, Wichita State University, and Kansas State University. If included in a comprehensive plan, archeological sites should be identified by site number or name and not by location in order to protect them from vandalism and destructive digging. Cemeteries are shown on United States Geological Survey maps, county maps, etc. Bridges have been inventoried by the Kansas Department of Transportation and the information is on file at the Historic Preservation Department. These sources used in conjunction with an architectural survey can create an accurate profile of any given area. Ideally a survey includes everything from chicken coops to fences to grand houses. In reality, every minor outbuilding and fence line may not be recorded due to time and money restrictions. Notes on shortcomings or gaps in the survey should be included in a description of survey methodology and analysis of survey findings.

The second kind of survey is called a windshield survey. This survey is seldom of any real value by itself. It is useful for becoming familiar with an area that is to be more intensely surveyed or where spot surveys will be conducted. The windshield survey derives its name from the method by which it is carried out. The surveyor drives systematically through an area noting on maps or in notebooks where various types or concentrations of buildings are. This can give professionals some idea of where they will have to concentrate survey efforts, how much time the survey is likely to take, what types of structure are very common, and which are unusual.

A third kind of survey involves comprehensively surveying small areas within a larger region. We are referring to these surveys as spot surveys. When a large area must be surveyed but time does not allow for coverage of the entire area, this method can be used to figure out what is most likely to be found within the larger survey boundaries and which structures are the most historically or architecturally significant. The initial work involves mapping where development occurred historically, where structures are known or are likely to remain, and then surveying those areas that are likely to have the most representative types of structures. This survey method should be used only by experienced professionals and is of limited usefulness.

Once a survey has been completed the inventoried resources should be evaluated as a group and the significance of individual structures, complexes, and/or building types should be determined.

The evaluation of the survey should discuss each building type separately, addressing such questions as how many I-houses or Foursquare houses were there? where were they concentrated? when were they built (within a range of dates)? what were the most common building materials? Analysis should be both quantitative and qualitative. Reference to the historical overviews of the Kansas preservation plan should help in understanding the historical context of the inventoried structures, as will the research that was conducted by the surveyors prior to beginning field work.

A set of criteria for determining the significance of structures within the survey area is absolutely necessary. The Historic Preservation Department recommends strongly that the National Register criteria for evaluation be used. These criteria are broadly stated to allow for the recognition of properties of local, state, and national significance. They acknowledge the contributions of all aspects of American material culture, from small farm complexes to huge industrial complexes, from the old corner gas station to the Beaux Arts railroad terminal. (Appendix C) They recognize that the significance of a structure derives from its historical and physical contexts, that it can be significant on its own or as part of a larger group of structures related by proximity or by concept. For example, a three story limestone barn built by a German immigrant stone mason in 1882 would be significant even if associated structures had been destroyed. A simple privy would not have significance on its own, but as part of an intact 1870s farmstead it would contribute to the overall significance of the complex.

Preservation Options, Goals, and Priorities

Identification of historic properties as discussed in the previous section is only the first step in planning for preservation. The next step for the local community or region is to write a proposal for how those historic structures will be dealt with in the future. Ideally, it should take into account such things as planned or possible future development and its impact on historic structures; the practice of knocking down old structures, fence lines, and hedgerows to add to the

cultivated land area; institutional expansion into historic residential neighborhoods; the economic and physical decay of small towns due to growing urban centers; and farm specialization and consolidation. It should make specific proposals for the preservation of extremely significant properties, and general recommendations for groups of historic properties. Following are general suggestions for implementing preservation on the local level,

Local Programs

Nominating properties to the National Register of Historic Places is one of the most direct means of gaining recognition of a structure's historic qualities and raising the level of public awareness. Most nominations that involve large numbers of resources or statewide surveys will be put together by the Historic Preservation Department. A guide to the preparation of nominations is available from the Historic Preservation Department.

Properties on the National Register are afforded a degree of protection from federal projects. Because all National Register properties are automatically listed on the State Register, they are also afforded a certain amount of protection from State and local government projects. Listing on the National Register makes properties eligible for acquisition and development grants, when they are available, and for federal tax credits in the case of income-producing properties. Information on both these programs is available from the Historic Preservation Department.

There are several types of National Register nominations. Individual nominations are used for single structures or related buildings within a complex such as a farmstead or milling operation. Historic districts are composed of contiguous structures and land areas that are somehow related.

The multiple resource and thematic group nominations are both more all-encompassing than the district or individual nomination. Areas that have been well surveyed lend themselves to multiple resource nominations. These are defined by the National Register as including

all or a defined portion of the historic resources identified in a specified geographical area which may be a rural area, a county, a small town, a large town or city, or a section of a town or city. The size of the area chosen should be determined by historic and/or geographic factors and by the practical factor of its manageability in the nominating process. The nomination should, if possible, be based upon the results of a comprehensive interdisciplinary survey undertaken to identify all of the resources of historic, architectural, and archeological significance within a defined geographical area. The survey data should be carefully analyzed to determine which properties are eligible for listing in the National Register.

While components of Multiple Resource nominations are related geographically, those of a Thematic Group nomination are obviously related by a theme. The guidelines published by the National Register state that resources within a thematic nomination may be

related to a single historical person, event or development force; of one building type or use, or designed by a single architect. . . They can be located within a single geographical area such as a county, or they can be spread throughout a State. . . The nomination should include all known properties within the group that are eligible for listing on the National Register.

While National Register nominations will serve to illuminate the historic qualities of certain areas or structures, only a broader-based educational program will provide a better understanding of the series of events that made up day to day life.

Local or county historical societies could offer programs on rural, small town, or urban life and culture, using human resources as well as artifact collections to explain various aspects of their area's history. As more people come to understand the role various structures and objects played in the historical development of their community, the value of those resources will become more widely recognized, and it will become easier to encourage their preservation. In creating new programs on history, local history and preservation organizations should remember that they can draw on the various fields of expertise in the different departments of the Kansas State Historical Society as well as at colleges and universities throughout the state.

State Programs

Any type of preservation work is ultimately a local responsibility. Directives from the state or federal level will not make people anxious to implement preservation programs or make them see the value of their historic resources. At the state level we can only provide encouragement and assistance to those who are already interested and try to educate those who may not even know what historic preservation is.

From the state office's viewpoint, local and regional plans and surveys are the most valuable documents in carrying out our various responsibilities. Plans enable us to coordinate our efforts with those at the local level, and properly conducted and analyzed surveys enable us to evaluate proposed nominations and federal and state projects more easily. Also when local organizations are able to handle local preservation concerns the state office can turn its attention to projects, problems, or issues that can only be dealt with on the state level. For these reasons the Historic Preservation Department will set a high priority on passing on federal grants to projects at the local level that will fulfill survey and planning goals for this and other study units.

Professional quality nominations will, as always, receive a high processing priority. Those that complement local survey and planning efforts or the Historic Preservation Department study units will be especially welcome.

In order to achieve more complete and, hence, more useful study units, the Historic Preservation Department will encourage the active participation of universities and colleges statewide in searching for answers to the research questions posed in the history section of this study unit. The study unit will be forwarded to professors of history, architectural history, architecture, landscape architecture, cultural geography, and so on. They may then pass on research topics to interested students and keep us informed of any of their work that may correspond with the goals of the study unit. It is hoped that this type of research will answer questions of statewide or at least regional significance that would assist us in figuring out the broad historical patterns of Kansas from 1820 to 1880 as they relate to the built environment.

APPENDICES

KANSAS HISTORIC RESOURCES INVENTORY

1a. Property name, historic (050) b. Property name, common		13. KSHS Inventory Code (054)	
2. Property address/descriptive location (062)		14. County (064)	15. Survey sequence no.
3. Legal description (070)		16. Accessibility <input type="checkbox"/> open to public <input type="checkbox"/> accessible by permission only <input type="checkbox"/> inaccessible	17. Visibility from public road or street <input type="checkbox"/> good <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> not visible
4. Original use		18. Condition (084) <input type="checkbox"/> excellent <input type="checkbox"/> ruins <input type="checkbox"/> good <input type="checkbox"/> no visible remains <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> incorporated into later structure <input type="checkbox"/> deteriorated	
5. Present use (208)	6. Other uses	19. USGS quadrangle map if required (see instructions)	
8. Date of construction (301) <input type="checkbox"/> estimated <input type="checkbox"/> documented	7. Original owner or occupant	20. UTM reference if required (see instructions)	
10. Architect (300)	9. Changes dates <input type="checkbox"/> moved _____ <input type="checkbox"/> major alterations _____	21. Current owner's name and address (096, 097)	
12. Identify any outbuildings and/or other structures associated with this building or structure. (Attach an additional inventory form for each one that has particular architectural or historical interest.)		11. Builder/contractor	
(Attach one 3 x 5 black and white photograph here.)		22. Tenant's name, and address if different from property address (see instructions)	
		23. Principal material(s) (216)	
		24. Style and/or form type (210)	
		THIS SECTION FOR KSHS USE ONLY	
		25. Category (060)	
26. Functional type (202)		27. Registration status and dates (078) <input type="checkbox"/> NHL _____ <input type="checkbox"/> listed NR _____ <input type="checkbox"/> approved for NR _____ <input type="checkbox"/> federal DOE _____ <input type="checkbox"/> listed SR _____ <input type="checkbox"/> local landmark _____ <input type="checkbox"/> HABS/HAER _____	
28. Is this property included in a historic district? <input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> NR district <input type="checkbox"/> no <input type="checkbox"/> SR district <input type="checkbox"/> proposed <input type="checkbox"/> local district Name of district (080) _____ _____ <input type="checkbox"/> contributing <input type="checkbox"/> noncontributing			

KANSAS HISTORIC RESOURCES INVENTORY

Page 2

29. Brief statement of the property's history

30. Brief description. If a thorough description has been prepared separately, disregard this section and check here []

31. Additional remarks or continuation of other sections

32. Sources of information

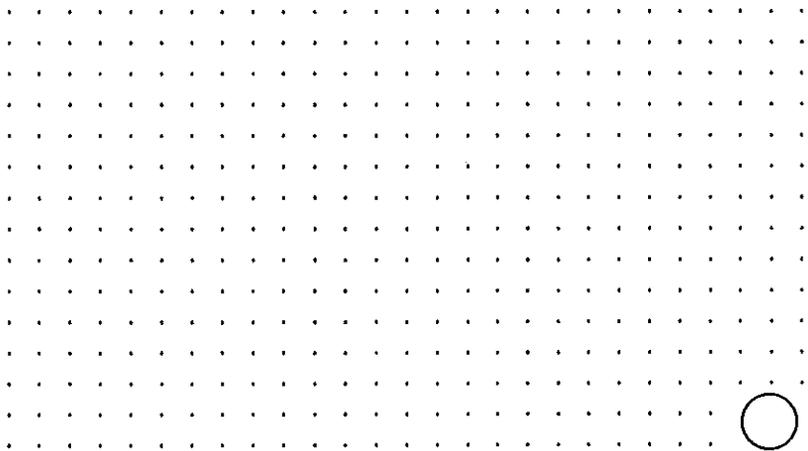
34. Photographer or photo source

35. Photo roll and frame number(s)

36. Photo date

37. Inventory form completed by
(name and organization)

33. Sketch of site plan. (Include north arrow. Show outline of building shape, locations of outbuildings, and locations of roads or streets.)



38. Survey project name

39. Date form compiled

THIS SECTION FOR KSHS USE ONLY

40. Attached supplementary materials

41. Date logged, HPD

42. Logged by

Kansas State Historical Society
Historic Preservation Department
120 West Tenth Street
Topeka, Kansas 66612

Instructions for Completing the Kansas Historic
Resources Inventory Forms

- A. General Instructions. The inventory form is intended to be a permanent record to be kept in the files of the Historic Preservation Department. Please be sure that all information is as complete and accurate as possible. Entries should be typed and where specified neatly printed in pencil. If an item of information is not known, enter "unknown"; if the item is not applicable to the inventoried resource, enter "NA."
- B. Photographs. One clear, sharp 3x5 black and white photograph showing the main facade (if for a building or other structure) or a general view (if there is not one principal building on the property) should be affixed to the lower left hand corner of the front of the inventory form with staples or gummed photograph mounting corners.
- Negatives and additional photos should be placed in an acid-free envelope and paperclipped to the back of the form.
- C. Block-by-block instructions.
- 1a. Enter the name by which the property was first known historically. For a house, identify it by the name of the first or best known occupant. If a newer building has the same name, put "old" or "former" in parentheses before the name. EXAMPLES: John W. Jones House; (Old) First National Bank.
- 1b. Enter the name(s) by which the property is most commonly known today, or write "same" if the historic name is used.
2. For properties located in towns: Give the street address of the property, including the name of the town. For properties located in rural areas: Describe the location by giving the distance and direction from the nearest town, and the names or numbers of the nearest roads. EXAMPLE: One mile west of Smithville on Hwy 4 and one-half south on county road 44.

3. For properties located in towns: Give the lot and block designation, as shown on the deed. EXAMPLE: Lot 2 and south 25 feet of lot 4, Block 6, Doe's Addition. For properties located in rural areas: Give the surveyed location as shown on the deed, including section, township, and range. EXAMPLE: NW1/4, NE1/4, NE1/4, Sec. 17, T6S, R21E.
4. Enter the original use of the historic resource: residence, church, school, retail store, etc.
5. Enter the present use of the property. If not being used, enter "vacant," "ruins", or other description, as appropriate.
6. If the structure or site has had other uses than shown in blocks 4 and 5, identify them if known.
7. Identify the original owner of the existing historic resource, if known. For a building, this will generally be the person or group for whom it was built. This does not mean the first recorded owner of the tract of land, unless that person also owned or occupied the historic resource.
8. Enter the date(s) of construction and check whether this is estimated or documented. If it is documented, state the source in block 32.
9. If the resource has been moved or has had major alterations, check the appropriate block and give the date(s). Explain in block 29.
10. Give the name of the designer (architect, engineer, landscape architect, etc.) if there was one. Otherwise enter "none" or "unknown."
11. Give the name of the builder or contractor.
12. Identify any outbuildings or other structures associated with the inventoried resource. For a farmstead, list the buildings that it comprises. Attach another inventory form for each structure that has particular architectural or historical interest, and note it in this block.

EXAMPLES: A. Limestone barn (See Inventory Form #12B)
B. Garage (not inventoried)
13. LEAVE BLANK unless instructed otherwise by HPD survey coordinator.

14. Enter the name of the county in which the resource is located.

15. When more than one resource is inventoried as part of a survey, each form should be given a sequence number. Secondary structures should be given the same sequence number as the associated major resource, with the addition of a suffix letter. EXAMPLE: A house might have sequence number 23. Its carriage house, if inventoried, might be numbered 23B. (The house itself is understood to be "23A").

16. Check the appropriate block.

17. Check the appropriate block.

18. Check the appropriate block for buildings, using the following standards:

Excellent--The resource is structurally sound and is being well maintained.

Good--The resource is structurally sound, but may need some cosmetic work.

Fair--The resource is structurally sound, but may have severe maintenance problems that could lead to more serious damage.

Deteriorated--The resource is standing but is not structurally sound.

Ruins--Only remnants of the resource remain visible above ground.

No visible remains--No above-ground remains are visible, either because the site has been cleared or because something else occupies the site.

Incorporated into a later structure--Check this only if there is clear evidence that part of the structure still remains.

19. Ordinarily field surveyors will only use this block when conducting surveys of rural areas. In the case of rural surveys using USGS maps, enter the name of the map which shows the location of the inventoried resource. For urban surveys, leave this block blank.

20. Leave this block blank unless instructed otherwise by the HPD survey coordinator.

21. Use pencil to give the name and address of the current owner of the resource. If it has more than one owner, write "multiple" and list the owners in block 32 or continue on another sheet of paper.
22. If there is a tenant, use pencil to give the name and address. If there is more than one tenant, write "multiple." There is ordinarily no need to list multiple tenants if the owner's name is known.
23. Give the principal material(s) of the exterior walls, such as brick, limestone, wood...
24. If the building has an identifiable architectural style or exhibits the characteristics of a particular vernacular classification, enter the name of that style or classification in pencil. If you are not sure of the architectural style leave it blank.
25. LEAVE BLANK.
26. LEAVE BLANK.
27. LEAVE BLANK.
28. LEAVE BLANK.
29. State briefly the highlights of the history of the historic resource, (not the land) including dates of occupancy, dates and extent of major changes, dates and explanations of relocations, names of intermediary owners, etc.
30. If this resource is not described in greater detail on an attached sheet or other referenced document, give a very brief description of it, to include the following:

For a building:

- a. number of stories
- b. plan shape or vernacular form classification
- c. exterior wall materials
- d. roof shape and materials
- e. chimney placement
- f. number and placement of doors and windows on each floor of the main facade(s)
- g. porch shape and placement
- h. any notable features

For a structure or object:

- a. type or purpose
- b. materials
- c. size
- d. notable features

For a landscape feature:

- a. acreage or dimensions
- b. vegetation and use
- c. how enclosed
- d. notable features

EXAMPLES:

- A. A two-story brick I-house with gable roof and end chimneys. Five windows on second floor over four windows and centered door, on first floor. Full-width porch. Very intact.
 - B. Stone bridge with two arches. Roadway is 15' wide and 65' long.
 - C. 200'x200' cemetery surrounded by chainlink fence. Well maintained. Several markers date to the 1880s.
31. Use this space to continue the information of other blocks.
 32. Identify the sources of any specific information about the resource, including interviews (give name of the informant), newspaper articles, and books. Also mention sources of information on or at the resource, such as cornerstones or historical markers.
 33. Sketch a plan of the site, showing distance and direction to major roads, positions of outbuildings, a north arrow, and approximate scale.
 34. Enter the name of the person who took the photograph(s), or give the source of the photograph.
 35. Enter the roll and frame numbers for the photographs.
 36. Enter the date the photographs were taken.
 37. Give your name, and if applicable, the organization for whom you are doing the survey or inventory.

38. If the inventory is part of a survey project, give the project's name.
39. Give the date the inventory information on the form was compiled.
40. LEAVE BLANK
41. LEAVE BLANK
42. LEAVE BLANK

Effective 11/86

THE CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION FOR THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

The criteria are the National Register's standards for evaluating the significance of properties. The criteria are designed to guide the states, federal agencies, the Secretary of the Interior and others in evaluating potential entries (other than areas of the National Park System and National Historic Landmarks) for the National Register.

The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:

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

Ordinarily cemeteries, birthplaces, or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the National Register. However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

- A. a religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or
- B. a building or structure removed from its original location but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or
- C. a birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no other appropriate site or building directly associated with his productive life; or

- D. A cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or
- E. A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or
- F. A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own historical significance; or
- G. a property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.



United States Department of the Interior

NATIONAL PARK SERVICE
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20240

IN REPLY REFER TO:

THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

The National Register of Historic Places is the official list of historic properties recognized by the Federal Government as worthy of preservation for their significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering and culture. Located in the National Park Service, Department of the Interior, the program is part of a national policy to coordinate and support public and private efforts to identify, evaluate, and protect our cultural and natural resources, and is maintained by the Secretary of the Interior under provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966.

Listing in the National Register provides the following benefits to historic properties:

-Consideration in the planning for federally assisted projects. Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 provides that the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation be given an opportunity to comment on projects affecting such properties.

-Eligibility for Federal tax benefits. If a property is listed in the National Register, certain tax provisions may apply. The Tax Reform Act of 1976, as amended by the Revenue Act of 1978 and the Tax Treatment Extension Act of 1980, and the Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981, contain provisions intended to encourage the preservation of depreciable historic structures by allowing favorable tax treatments for rehabilitation, and to discourage destruction of historic structures. Beginning January 1, 1982, the Economic Recovery Tax Act replaces the rehabilitation tax incentives available under prior law with a 25% investment tax credit for rehabilitations of certain historic commercial, industrial and residential rental buildings. This can be combined with a 15-year cost recovery period for the adjusted basis of the historic building. Historic buildings with certified rehabilitations receive additional tax savings because they are exempt from any requirement to reduce the basis of the building by the amount of credit. The Tax Treatment Extension Act of 1980 includes provisions regarding charitable contributions for conservation purposes of partial interests in historically important land areas or structures.

-Consideration of historic values in the decision to issue a surface coal mining permit where coal is located, in accord with the Surface Mining and Control Act of 1977.

-Qualification for Federal grants for historic preservation when funds are available.

Listing does not mean that the Federal Government wants to acquire the property, place restrictive covenants on the land, or dictate the color or materials used on individual buildings. State and local ordinances or laws establishing restrictive zoning, special design review committees, or review of exterior alterations, are not a part of the National Register program and should be clearly separated from the function of the National Register as a tool in the Federal planning process.

The National Park Service administers the program through the professional staff of the National Register of Historic Places, State Historic Preservation Officers, and Federal Preservation Officers.

Procedures for certifying local governments to participate in the program are now being developed. Responsibilities of the State Historic Preservation Officer include conducting a statewide survey, the nomination of properties to the National Register, administration of the Historic Preservation Fund grants-in-aid program within the State, and review of federally funded or licensed projects for their effect on the State's historic properties. Federal Preservation Officers are appointed by the heads of Federal agencies to inventory and nominate to the National Register properties under the agency's ownership or control.

Historic properties of national, State, or local significance may be nominated by the States and Federal agencies for listing in the National Register. Historic components of the National Park System and properties designated by the Secretary of the Interior as National Historic Landmarks are automatically included in the National Register. Properties are listed in the National Register if they meet the National Register criteria for evaluation (see National Register leaflet).

A list of the properties entered annually in the National Register is published in the Federal Register. Issues of February 6, 1979, (vol. 44, no. 26, book 2), March 18, 1980, (vol. 45, no. 54, part 2), and February 3, 1981 (vol. 46, no. 22, part 2), which include properties listed in the National Register through 1980, are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. A list of properties nominated to the National Register is published every Tuesday in the Federal Register for comment.

Federal regulations for the National Register program can be found in the Code of Federal Regulations under 36 CFR 60 (National Register nomination procedures), 36 CFR 63 (determination of eligibility procedures), and 36 CFR 67 (certifications of significance and rehabilitation for Federal tax purposes).

For additional information, write to your State Historic Preservation Officer or to the National Register of Historic Places, National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. 20240.

(12/81)