

THE SOCIAL IMPACT OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION
ON METROPOLITAN TULSA 1929-1932

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THE SOCIAL IMPACT OF THE GREAT DEPRESSION
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PREFACE

The Great Depression of the 1930's was international in scope. Maxon Wecter's Age of the Great Depression, 1929-1941 has already detailed its ramifications for the American people. The present study less ambitiously attempts to deal with the few particulars of Tulsa's social life and institutions which the economic crisis most likely affected. This monograph is also limited to a lesser number of years, those from 1929 through 1932; the theory being that the depression's initial impact was greatest.

In focus throughout are those Tulsa people which the business decline actually deprived of material necessities. But a host of others may lead parts at various stages of the narrative. Of great importance are those who tried to help the impoverished, whether they be elected or appointed public servants, or men and women assuming the heavy burden of the good deed.

After a summary look at the causes of the economic collapse, an attempt is made to establish the degree of hardship suffered by Tulsans. The balance of the first six chapters is devoted to the efforts of local, state and federal officials to aid those distressed, and to the attempts of the unemployed to alleviate their own condition through organization. The remainder of the study delves into the institutional impact of the depression, thereby bringing the family, the schools and the churches to the front.

My principal adviser has been Dr. Theodore L. Agnew of the Oklahoma

ate University History Department. Without Dr. Agnew's continued confidence in my ability, I could never have reasonably concluded the study. I offered many suggestions and made several requests, but gave no orders and laid down no demands. Others who, in an official capacity, have read all or portions of the manuscript and given invaluable constructive criticism include Dr. O. A. Hilton, Dr. LeRoy Fischer, Dr. Homer L. Wright and Dr. H. J. Henderson.

Dr. John J. Beer loaned me a photocopy machine which enabled the assembling of much data that otherwise might have been missed. Oklahoma State University's library staff assisted in the location of beneficial documents. Officials in Tulsa at the Chamber of Commerce, Public Library, County Courthouse, Public Schools, Ministerial Alliance, and the City Offices opened their files, and provided desks to work at and materials to work with. Several churches and numerous individuals extended long-term loans of useful documents. Close friends and relations offered overnight lodging, transportation, and aid in the collection, arrangement and classification of statistical information. Mrs. Molly Reid, as she accurately typed the text, exercised her considerable experience and good judgment to prevent several mistakes.

CHAPTER I

FROM PROSPERITY TO DEPRESSION

Although numerous factors produced the Great Depression of the 1930's, the regional and local importance of each cause varied widely. In Tulsa the most significant causes were rooted in the city's twentieth century economic development.¹ At Red Rock, across the Arkansas River from Tulsa, oil was discovered in 1901. This first oil well in the area did not set any production records, but it did indicate the possibility of a great new oil field. Only a slow and unreliable ferry connected Tulsa with the oil activities. Several citizens of the town, therefore, had a bridge across the Arkansas and erected a modern hotel in order to attract the petroleum business.² The oil men took advantage of these accommodations, and Tulsa thus began an accelerated period of development which continued for nearly thirty years.

Tulsa offered ample facilities for the traditional "boom town" activities of the "roughnecks." It was to the "titans," however, that the city fathers directed their special appeal. They foresaw that the boomers would soon be gone, but they hoped that the owners and producers would be enticed to establish permanent residences and corporation offices.

¹The best single account of the early history of Tulsa is: Angie Debo, Tulsa: From Creek Town to Oil Capital (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1943).

²Workers of the Writers Program of the Works Progress Administration, Norman: A Guide to the Sooner State (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1941), p. 208.

sa thus never became an oil town in the traditional sense of the m. Drilling rigs gradually disappeared from the surrounding area. ore they were gone, however, the city's special zoning laws, easy dit, reasonably priced building sites and excellent transportation ilities had gained some of the leading names in oil for the ranks of permanent citizenry.³ As a logical result of the presence of the as and company headquarters of these men, Tulsa became the center of hority for the execution of oil operations in a five-state area.

The speculative fibre of the oil industry's commercial network led turn to the development of special financial institutions which could would handle business propositions that other banks would not con- er. Profits far exceeded losses, and these institutions were soon passed only by the banks of New York City in the financing of oil rations. No small part of the gains were used in the attraction of itional oil concerns to the city. Petroleum refining became Tulsa's ding industry, and the manufacture and distribution of products used the oil industry constituted its most important other enterprises. The y's importance as an oil center was increased by the acquisition of home offices of such organizations as the Mid-Continent Oil and Gas ociation, the Natural Gasoline Association of America, the Western Pe- leum Refineries Association, and the American Association of Petroleum ineers. It also became the site for the annual International Petroleum osition. By 1929 Tulsa was internationally famous as the oil capital the world.

This era of tremendous development caused a great population boom in

³General Commercial Engineering Department, Southwestern Bell Telephone Company, Economic Survey of Oklahoma (St. Louis: Bell Telephone Company, 9), p. 258.

lsa. In 1900 it was a town with only 1,390 residents, but by 1929 it s a bustling city with 140,000 inhabitants.⁴

<u>Year</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Increase</u>
1900	1,390
1907	7,098	6,308
1910	19,500	12,042
1920	76,966	57,466
1923	101,904	24,938
1929	140,000	38,096

Despite its colossal achievements in the first three decades of the twentieth century, the continued progress of Tulsa depended upon an stable set of factors. It was, to be sure, an oil metropolis, but its tural advantage for substantial growth in other industries and commer- al areas had been largely ignored. The city was confined to a single- dustry economy, and, therefore, the possibility of a setback was never y more or less remote than the likelihood of a crisis in the highly eculative oil industry as a whole.

An industry-by-industry analysis of Tulsa business activity during e 1920's reveals the precariously balanced nature of such an oil- pendent economy.⁵ Oil, of course, set the pace, the oil men enjoying e profits of a series of booms, which were, however, divided by an almo ually frequent number of declines. A large portion of the profits from ese periods of prolific oil production were regularly being converted

⁴Workers of the W. P. A. in the State of Oklahoma, Tulsa: A Guide to e Oil Capital (Tulsa: Mid-West Printing Company, 1938), p. 24.

⁵The analysis which follows is based upon data in: United States partment of Commerce, Industrial Employment Survey Bulletin (Washington S. Government Printing Office, 1921-1930), Vols. I-IX. This bulletin, sued monthly, summarizes the industrial activity in each state and in ery major city. Taken together, therefore, they provide a rough out- ne of the history of industrial activity in Tulsa for the entire cade.

to investments in other local industries. Tremendous expansion, therefore, was usually taking place in these other industries at the same time that declines were becoming noticeable in the oil industry. By the time another spurt had taken place in oil production, the other industries-- which by now had expended most of the investments made by the oil men-- were beginning to decline. The economic expansion of the 1920's in Tulsa can thus be best characterized as a series of off-setting alternating booms.

This unusual economic situation thus provided an unemployment safety net. The bulk of the labor surplus consisted of unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Such workers, because of the very nature of their work, could easily switch from job to job, and such alternate employment was usually available. Many workers dislocated by a decline in the oil industry were, therefore, readily absorbed by another industry which was using oil capital to carry out expansion. By thus making a transition from one industry to another, in tune with the alternation of the booms, many workers were able to maintain their membership in the active labor force of the city. The relationship between oil and construction industries particularly close.

Even though the economy of the city rested on this rather uncertain foundation, the outlook for the future seemed to be good. Large scale production in the Mid-Continent Oil Field was expected to continue for many years. Additional manufacturers of oil field equipment would probably locate branch manufacturing plants in Tulsa in order better to serve the largest producing area of which the city was the recognized metropolis. Tulsa did not, however, have to rely upon the rise or fall of production in nearby fields. The transactions of the oil titans were not limited by state or national boundaries. The city's oil business was drawn from the entire

outhwestern United States and also from foreign countries such as Mexico and Venezuela.⁶

Large numbers of the unemployed, particularly the hard-hit farmers, were attracted to Tulsa by each successive boom. Labor had soon far outstripped the number of available jobs, even during the booms. The unemployment safety valve soon began to falter. The climax came in 1929, the year of the great stock market crash, when over-production drastically lowered prices in the oil industry. This resulted from the opening of the great fields at Seminole, at Oklahoma City and in East Texas. With crude oil selling for one cent per barrel, the oil companies attempted systematically to reduce output. The curtailment of expansion in other enterprises followed naturally, and Tulsa's economy collapsed.⁸

⁶Tulsa Chamber of Commerce, Industrial Survey of Tulsa (Tulsa: Chamber of Commerce, 1929), p. 88.

⁷Debo, Tulsa: From Creek Town to Oil Capital, p. 111.

⁸The author is well aware that no one single factor was the cause of this depression, and that such explanations are rightfully regarded with suspicion. The explanation here differs in emphasis rather than viewpoint from these more general interpretations. See Frederick Wis Allen, Only Yesterday (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931), pp. 2-343 for a full list of causes.

CHAPTER II

RELIEF: THE FIRST WINTER

Unemployment had been increasing in Tulsa since early in 1929. Little attention had been given to it, however, either by local officials or by the public in general. The very nature of Tulsa's economic institutions probably played a part in concealing the true state of the city's unemployment situation. In 1929 only one-half of one percent of Tulsa's factories employed more than 1,000 wage earners.¹ Those employing more than 500 workers were only 1.4 percent of the whole, and but 3.4 percent employed more than 250. The numerically small group employing more than 100 workers each, while including the largest employers, accounted for slightly less than 25 percent of all wage earners. Plants which employed 500 or less had 61.9 percent of all the workers on their payrolls. Factories employing fewer than 100 workers constituted 87.2 percent of all manufacturing institutions and employed 28.8 percent of all the workers. None of the large plants, those employing more than 500 workers shut down completely, but rather they let employees go slowly. The small plants did not employ, as individual units, enough workers for layoffs in any one plant to affect appreciably the total employment picture.

City and county officials may have been unaware at first that an

¹These percentages are calculated from basic data found in: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States: Manufactures, 1929 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 431.

emergency existed. At any rate, they took no steps to aid those affected by it. When charity agencies of the city and county began to report increased loads, city officials did little more at first than to suggest the institution of a placement bureau for the unemployed. While they debated the means of obtaining funds for such a program, on October 26, 1930, the Tulsa Tribune launched an Odd Job Bureau. The decision to open the agency followed a minor labor disturbance in the downtown district. Tulsa authorities believed that false rumors were responsible for the chief trouble. Some local unemployed men thought that the labor involved in demolishing a half-block of buildings on the site of a new federal building were "out-of-towners."²

An alliance between city authorities and private enterprise was therefore created, with the Tribune supplying funds and advertising and the city providing an office for the project and a staff of city workers. The Bureau stressed that it could not promise work to the hundreds of persons expected to register. Registration lists were to be given to contractors and they would be asked to use them if possible. The Tribune soon announced that there were 2,300 persons in the city who were out of work.³ Approximately seventy percent of the names listed in the unemployed roles were those of white men, twenty-five percent Negro men, three percent white women, and two percent Negro women. The majority of the men registering were common laborers. Some, however, were seeking clerical office work and others semi-skilled work. Between 72 and 73

²Tulsa Tribune, October 26, 1930, p. 1.

³Ibid, November 25, 1930, p. 1.

ercent were married.⁴ A month later the Tribune revealed that jobs had been found for 3,208 persons.⁵ These were in the majority of instances, however, temporary positions.

Mayor George L. Watkins was convinced by early November that unemployment was so drastic that it demanded a more aggressive public policy. He therefore requested Harry H. Rogers, a prominent local banker, to head a mayor's committee on unemployment.⁶ This administrative system was based on a suggestion made by President Hoover's Committee for Employment. The President's Committee had suggested that such local committees be staffed with representatives of labor and industry as well as with public officials and welfare administrators.⁷ This suggestion was followed closely in selecting personnel for the Tulsa committee. The body was made responsible for fund raising, the administration of work relief, the coordination of direct relief, and for publicity and research.

A cautious spending policy was developing among employed laborers as a result of their observations of heavy layoffs. If businessmen were made aware of this, Mayor Watkins was convinced that they would "stop firing and start hiring."⁸ The mayor's committee tried to get all

⁴Tulsa Tribune, November 25, 1930, p. 1. A federal census taken at this time, but not published until several years later, reveals that there were actually 4,317 persons in the city without employment: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States: Unemployment, 1930. (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 816.

⁵Tulsa Tribune, November 25, 1930, p. 1.

⁶Tulsa World, November 3, 1930, p. 1.

⁷The President's Emergency Committee for Employment and the President's Organization on Unemployment Relief, Community Plans and Actions, numbers 1-3 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1931-1932).

⁸Tulsa World, November 3, 1930, p. 1.

ossible Tulsa employers to agree that no reduction in the wage scale or the number of persons employed would take place in their establishments except for inefficiency. Favorable replies were quick in coming. The Mid-Continent Petroleum Company endorsed the committee's continuous employment resolution, thus assuring its approximately 1,600 Tulsa employees of permanent positions with no salary cuts during the winter. The Tulsa offices of the Southwestern Bell Telephone Company restored confidence to its 600 employees by approving the plan a few days later. Thanksgiving Day it was estimated that some 12,000 Tulsans had received pledges that their jobs were secure in this movement.⁹

In early December, 1930, a city employment bureau was established. It differed from the earlier Tribune-sponsored organization in that it sought jobs of a more permanent nature for the applicants it received. "Tulsa jobs for jobless Tulsans" was the motto of the new concern, but though the plan seemed to be working at first, a shattering fact soon was apparent. There simply were more jobless Tulsans than there were Tulsa jobs. Spending slumped after Christmas, and, in the early days of January, the unemployment problem reached its most acute proportions yet.

Ever greater numbers of people were forced to turn to the county for aid. By January, 1931, some 2,000 people were regularly visiting the county Humane Society to obtain grocery orders or a check to pay rent, gas, light or medicine bills.¹⁰ The lines were so long on some days that relief seekers flooded the corridors and spilled over onto the courthouse steps. It was soon obvious that county funds could not outlast the

⁹Tulsa Tribune, November 26, 1930, p. 2.

¹⁰Tulsa World, January 7, 1931, p. 3.

nter charity needs. Under an agreement which existed between Community and directors and the county, those agencies of the Fund which furnished food and shelter to families had concerned themselves with persons who had been in Tulsa for less than six months, while those qualified as legal residents were handled by the county.¹¹ Under the stress of emergency, however, the Community Fund agencies did not stand on the letter of this stipulation. They gave aid to all they could.

County officials believed that their funds would last until January . The Family Welfare Society, foremost of the Fund agencies, agreed to take over the county's load on that date. It was oiling its machinery to do so when, on January 9, the money was gone. The next morning the chariot was sent to the red brick house at 206 South Cheyenne Avenue, where many of the city's relief agencies had their headquarters. There the line wound so far back from the entrance that people called the headquarters of the Family Welfare Society asking whether a mob was attempting to loot its offices.¹²

Overwhelmed by this onslaught of the unemployed, the directors of the Family Welfare Society had to find some way to distinguish the needy from the "deadbeats." An organization was needed, it was believed, to investigate "real" need and to prevent the spread of voluntary indigency. Miss Margaret Woodson of Kansas City, therefore, was brought to Tulsa to be chairman of a special relief organization.¹³ She was a professional social worker trained in the case work principle. Before relief was granted, the home of each applicant was visited and the actual condition

¹¹Tulsa Tribune, January 10, 1931, p. 2.

¹²Tulsa World, January 10, 1931, p. 2.

¹³Tulsa Tribune, March 15, 1931, p. 3.

the family observed. The workers sought out those whose ills stemmed from involuntary unemployment, and then attempted to find the way they could be relieved permanently and economically. Men applying for relief, aiming to be unemployed, and maintaining that they had made an honest effort to correct this condition, were asked to work for the Society in return for relief. The Society, with fifteen volunteers aiding Miss Hodson, assumed, investigated and aided 419 cases in the first four days after it took over the county load.¹⁴

In January of 1930 the case load of the Family Welfare Society had been 450 cases. By January of 1931 its case load had increased to approximately 1,500 cases. The budget of the Society from November 1, 1930 to November 1, 1931 had been set at \$38,000. By March, 1931, the agency had already expended \$36,000. From November 1, 1929 to November 1, 1930 the Family Welfare Society had aided 1,700 cases. From November 1, 1930 to July 1, 1931, it aided 3,415. This was twice as many in eight months as it had aided in a year before.¹⁵

<u>Families Cared For</u>	<u>1930</u>	<u>1931</u>
January.....	673	1,506
February.....	621	1,900
March.....	637	1,772
April.....	553	1,532
May.....	457	1,275
June.....	417	1,200

On the subject of the increased activities of the Family Welfare Society, the Secretary of the organization, Mrs. Grace Cone, commented: The moral of the story seems to be that we have more applicants who have taken our time, but to each we have been forced to give less relief than

¹⁴ Tulsa World, January 15, 1931, p. 3.

¹⁵ (Tulsa) Family Welfare Society, Report of the Year's Work, 1931, 4.

would have in normal times."¹⁶ The Society had special reasons for wanting to do a good job. If increased contributions to carry them through an emergency were to be secured, they would have to prove their capacity to handle relief problems adequately. They were endeavouring to prove, in line with the lofty ideas of social work, the efficacy of investigation in discriminating between the needy and imposters. They wanted to demonstrate through the flexibility and economy of their work that the abolition of emergency agencies, which was being discussed, would be unnecessary. Perhaps the most extreme opponents of private charity in Tulsa were the labor groups, and it was largely due to criticism from workingmen that the Family Welfare Society felt it needed so badly to prove itself. Extreme labor elements felt that charitable agencies were but "an aristocratic concession to poverty."¹⁷

Meanwhile, the Tulsa County Humane Society awaited additional funds with which to work. Private enterprise cooperated in the interim. The Western States Grocery Company and Safeway Stores loaded a truck with 1,000 pounds of beans, 3,600 pounds of flour, 12,500 pounds of corn meal, 10,000 pounds of rice, 15 large cases of peanut butter, 17 cases of sandwich bread, and a large collection of miscellaneous groceries and delivered them to the Humane Society.¹⁸ The Banfield Packing Company gave a large supply of salt pork and pigs feet.¹⁹ The bakeries of Tulsa were doing their part in supplying 1,000 loaves of bread per day.²⁰ These foods

¹⁶Tulsa Tribune, January 15, 1931, p. 1.

¹⁷Tulsa Unionist-Journal, February, 1931, p. 5.

¹⁸Tulsa World, January 17, 1931, p. 2.

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Tulsa Tribune, March 15, 1931, p. 2.

re distributed in unprepared form rather than as sandwiches. W. L. North, chairman of the county commissioners, had firmly declared his position to needy families being forced into "living out of a sack."²¹

County officials made an effort to transfer funds from other departments of the government to the aid of the Humane Society. The idea was dropped, however, when North was told by the state Supreme Court in an formal advisory opinion that it would be unlawful to transfer funds appropriated for other causes.²² With it appearing that the county would be stymied in its relief efforts until the adoption of a new budget in July, a month-long series of conferences of city officials and other interested citizens ensued in an effort to find some way of easing the suffering of the unemployed. The atmosphere of these discussions was tense. Already there had been at least two minor demonstrations by the unemployed. Both of these attempts to attract attention had failed due to a lack of response by the proposed participants. Some Tulsa officials feared that not a few among the unemployed would resort to force and violence rather than to submit to the humiliation of relief from public or private charity.

Tulsa authorities were thus convinced that more extensive and different methods of relief were needed in order to preserve the public peace. This feeling was perhaps best expressed by a local officeholder when he declared:

The situation is acute, but I am confident that we will get relief somehow, somewhere. We must have it. We don't want anything to happen in Tulsa like they had over there in Oklahoma City Friday when an army of unemployed persons stormed the city hall making demands for relief.²³

²¹Tulsa World, January 17, 1931, p. 2.

²²Ibid.

Tulsa officials became even more alarmed a short while later when another incident, more drastic than the one referred to, took place at the Oklahoma capital. Three hundred members of the Oklahoma City Unemployed Council marched on a grocery store there demanding food. It had taken police officers to put down the trouble, and the incident attracted national attention. What was particularly disturbing to Oklahoma City officials, and to Tulsa leaders as well, was the fact that though the march had been made by an obviously radical element, some 3,000 persons had gathered to watch, and many had cheered the group on.²⁴

From the conference of civic leaders there finally emerged an immediate relief measure. The mayor's committee had advanced a plan where some \$10,000 would be made available to put 550 unemployed Tulsans to work on public works projects.²⁵ The plan evolved from the theory that it was better for men to work for their keep than to receive charity, and from a desire to prevent the burden on relief agencies from growing any heavier. It was also felt that this type of program would be more beneficial to the community. The city would receive some return on the money invested. The program, however, immediately drew the heavy criticism of organized private philanthropy groups. These elements questioned the assumption of the committee that such made-work was all that was needed to do away with pauperism and unemployment. These charity organizations also feared that funds procured through what they called "high pressure solicitation" would not offset the decrease that could be anticipated in

²⁴Oklahoma City Times, January 20, 1931, p. 1. See also: David A. Johnson, The Great Depression (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 119-120.

²⁵Tulsa Tribune, January 28, 1931, p. 2.

rect contributions to the existing agencies.²⁶

Those Tulsans who had been fortunate enough to maintain their jobs were called upon to participate in the financing of this project. Employees were asked to authorize their employers to deduct a minimum of fifty cents a week from their salaries during the next three months. Employers were then to match their employees' contributions, and the money would be turned in weekly to the city finance department. Since, however, not all citizens could be reached in such an employer-employee canvass, a committee mailed some 5,000 letters to other citizens asking for subscriptions that would pay a man for three days work on public works projects arranged by the city engineer.²⁷ Trusting in the people of Tulsa to respond, a group of bankers advanced an interest-free \$10,000 to the committee so that work could begin immediately.²⁸

According to the provisions of this plan, those employed would work three days a week, receiving \$3 per day for their time.²⁹ In addition to practical economic considerations, this rate of pay was agreed upon because it was believed that normal wage rates would tend to attract workers away from regular industry. Many industries had cut their wages during the depression in order to enable the continuation of work for all hands. It was also felt that fewer of the "undeserving" would be drawn to the program if the rate of payment was kept low. Although the committee did not define the term, it can probably be assumed that they were referring to migratory workers. Not only low pay, but the method of payment

²⁶Tulsa World, January 30, 1931, p. 7.

²⁷Tulsa World, January 28, 1931, p. 3.

²⁸Tulsa Tribune, February 1, 1931, p. 2.

²⁹Tulsa World, January 31, 1931, p. 4.

to be used to safeguard against such abuses. Workers were to be paid scrip, a special form of credit slip, to be issued by the city finance department. Apparently this plan was adopted at least partly out of a fear that the money paid the workers would be misspent. It is to the credit of the committee, however, that they devised a plan whereby the worker would receive greater value for his pay when paid in scrip than he did when he was paid in cash.

The scrip was to be redeemable only at a central commissary to be organized by the committee on unemployment.³⁰ In order that the funds paid to the unemployed would have increased purchasing power, food and clothes were to be sold at wholesale prices in the commissary. To avoid infringement of this privilege, no sales for cash were to be made. Workers were not to be allowed to convert their scrip into checks at this distributing center, but these checks could be cashed only at the city finance department, by landlords and by gas and electric offices. None of the executives in charge of the commissary were to receive pay. Clerks at the commissary were to be selected from the ranks of the unemployed and paid in scrip.

This combination made-work and commissary plan did not meet with unanimous approval. Labor groups criticized it both because the wages were not regular and because the participants were not to be paid in cash.³¹ Some of the small merchants protested that the city had no right to engage in trade at their expense.³² And some of the unemployed later protested

³⁰Tulsa Tribune, February 1, 1931, p. 2.

³¹Tulsa Unionist-Journal, March, 1931, p. 2.

³²Tulsa World, February 1, 1931, p. 4.

lack of courtesy on the part of clerks selected from their own
cs.³³ But none of these protests were more than weak murmurs at
st.

At daybreak on the morning of Tuesday, January 27, 1931, a long
que of men formed at the entrance to the office of the city's
:ral employment bureau on Cincinnati Avenue.³⁴ It had been an-
nced that manpower utilized in the new made-work program would have
st to be investigated by the unemployment committee or by one of the
icies of the Community Fund. Those obtaining work were supposed to
resent the neediest families in Tulsa. These men now waited an op-
unity to get inside and place their applications for jobs which
city administration had promised would be ready. This was the his-
ic date for the launching of Tulsa's first work relief program.

Almost every type of man, it was reported, was found among the first
up of workers. Administrators of the program made every effort to put
available man to work. One man with a wooden leg was given a job
oping out a warehouse.³⁵ Work relief for men consisted chiefly of
y outdoor work. Two hundred men were put to work leveling hillocks,
ning up river banks, and moving rockpiles in Newblock Park. Another
hundred men were dispatched in crews of a dozen to repair ruts beside
pavement, sweep the streets, clean up the backyards of West Tulsa,

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Tulsa Tribune, January 28, 1931, p. 3.

³⁵ Ibid., January 27, 1931, p. 2.

in dumps, build roads and clean out lakes.³⁶ Exactly 1,480 jobs were
 en Tulsa residents by the plan during the first week. The men working
 4,676 dependents, making of total of 6,156 persons benefiting.³⁷

With emergency relief measures now taken to correct the unemployment
 ation, Mayor Watkins announced that any labor disturbance growing out
 the problem would be dealt with summarily by police:

Information has come to city officials that certain individuals
 whose prime purpose in life is to destroy government, incite
 riot, and create havoc among the people are now at work in
 Tulsa. In view of the fact that arrangements have been made and
 are now in operation for caring for the needy citizens... such
 persons will not be tolerated nor allowed to ply their trade
 in this vicinity. The police have instructions to arrest any
 person or persons who attempt by word of mouth, act or deed to
 incite the populace and such persons will be dealt with sum-
 marily.³⁸

The mayor's committee had estimated that for the approximately
 10 unemployed Tulsans, a made-work payroll of \$10,880 per week would
 equired for twelve weeks. This meant, figuring \$9 a week for each
 that 10,000 Tulsa employees had to authorize their employers to de-
 at least fifty cents a week from their wages with the employers
 hing these contributions in the same amount.³⁹ Response of firms and
 viduals to appeals for cooperation in the employer-employee financing
 s were at first considered good. Among the early 100 percent sub-
 bers were six oil companies, thirteen merchants, and all the city's
 s. The Tulsa Retail Merchant Association rallied to the support of
 plan. Most of the firms which quickly delivered funds reported that

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Tulsa World, January 28, 1931, p. 2.

³⁸ Tulsa World, January 26, 1931, p. 2.

³⁸ Tulsa Tribune, February 1, 1931, p. 2.

average contribution of their employees was more than the fifty cents a week suggested as a minimum. One company gave a unique twist to the plan. Payroll contributions of \$120 per week were taken out in scrip by the company and used to hire back persons formerly employed by the company but released during the depression.⁴⁰

The hiring of large numbers of men for public works stimulated the employment of individuals to work about homes and business houses on odd jobs. The reason was that sales of scrip to private individuals and firms had begun. Individuals were urged to purchase the scrip and pay off their bills with it, or turn it back to the city so that it could be used to employ additional workers for public projects. An indication that the \$9 a week earned by the men was sufficient was seen in the fact that more than \$9,000 in scrip was outstanding on February 19. Thus it seemed that the money earned by the men had not only fed their families but also provided a little surplus. It had, incidentally, been decided that scrip should be stamped "negotiable" at the city commissary and then used for exchange with merchants anywhere in the city.⁴¹

Foreign immigrants to this country have at times had cause to complain about the reception they received. Such immigrants, however, have never known a more persistent scorn than the Tulsa officials had for transients from other cities and other states who arrived in the city during the depression. Committee members had noticed an apparent influx of transients soon after they announced the new made-work program and emphasized that only Tulsa residents would be cared for. But, as knowledge of the new plan spread, transients came in ever greater numbers hoping

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ (Tulsa) Report of the Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, February 1931 n 1

crash the gates. It seemed to one committee member as if: "the en-
Mexican population of the Adamson Coal Mining Company, east of Tulsa
now shut down migrated.⁴² The problem created here, however, was
ly solved. The committee required naturalization papers before giving
Mexicans jobs. Mayor Watkins in the meantime ordered a police drive
lear all the transients out of town. Falsification of the records
itted by workers were sometimes discovered and compensation denied.

The insistence of the mayor's committee on its right to investigate
oughly every man placed on a job through the employer-employee fund
to a clash with state authorities. A letter from E. N. Ellis, state
oyment officer in Tulsa, to state labor commissioner W. A. Murphy
ged the committee with refusing to accept men whom Ellis had recom-
ed without further investigation. The letter also stated that the
ittee was not allowing a fair share of men to the office of Ellis to
employed.⁴³ The committee refused to yield. It unanimously adopted
solution which bluntly declared that all men hired to do scrip work
d have to be cleared through the city central employment bureau or
of the agencies available in the Community Fund. To ensure an even
vigorous enforcement of the rule, a special group was appointed to
d up investigation procedures. Pending more complete financial reports
the perfection of the investigation system, the mayor reduced crews on
ic works for a limited period.⁴⁴

Although the committee's research did not reveal that unemployment
on the decrease, H. C. Tyrell, chairman of the employer-employee fund,

⁴²Ibid.

⁴³Tulsa Tribune, February 8, 1931, p. 2.

⁴⁴Ibid.

ed his belief that the original estimate of 5,000 unemployed heads families was too high. On his recommendation, therefore, the committee sed its goal of an income of \$45,000 weekly for the employment of such ents to \$20,000 a week, which for a time they believed would meet the s of the Tulsa citizenry. At the same time Tyrell declared:

The response of firms and individuals to our appeal is highly gratifying. I don't know of more than two instances in which an organization has failed to cooperate and in both cases it was a branch office with headquarters outside the state. I am confident that our \$20,000 weekly income will be subscribed within ten days.⁴⁵

By February 15th, however, it was evident that the number of men employed would have to be curtailed if more funds were not received. receipts at this stage under the plan amount to about \$5,000 a week, as \$13,000 a week was necessary to keep the program in minimum operation.⁴⁶ Believing that a large number of firms had started subscription, and therefore, that additional funds would shortly materialize, the ttee allowed its expenditures to exceed weekly income by about \$18,000. Additional funds did not, however, immediately develop. In view of fact, the committee decided that a special campaign was necessary to trimming the number of jobs being supplied. Nearly 2,000 individuals een given three days of work at \$3 a day during the three weeks the had been in operation, but the unemployment problem was far from d. A direct appeal was thus made to the citizenry to subscribe funds nemployment relief at once. The petition issued by the mayor's com- e read:

⁴⁵Tulsa World, February 10, 1931, p. 3.

⁴⁶Tulsa Tribune, February 15, 1931, p. 2.

⁴⁷Ibid.

No movement in the history of Tulsa has done more to stabilize business and prevent panic than the present system of providing work for the deserving unemployed residents of the city.

The employees of a large number of concerns have pledged amounts of fifty cents a week over a period of twelve weeks to finance the issuance of scrip for this purpose. Many employers are matching the contributions of employees. The response has been generous and gratifying, but sufficient funds have not been pledged to take care of all the deserving applicants for work.

In fact, the committee faces a deficit and must immediately curtail, to some extent, the number of men to be employed daily unless, and until, additional contributions are received. This is a responsibility of every citizen whether he be an employee or employer, a business or professional man.⁴⁸

Although the public response was never as good as the committee had nally hoped it would be, sufficient contributions were received to the program going. By March 1 scrip had been issued in the amount 5,641, with five thousand employable persons receiving approximately ach from this source.⁴⁹ Three thousand and twelve men were paid in for work done in March of 1931, which with dependents meant that an ated 10,000 persons benefited.⁵⁰ In addition many men and women were temporary outside jobs. The scrip program was scheduled to expire 7 1, but because an estimated 3,000 were still unemployed, many of with dependents, employment relief was extended for as long as the available would last.⁵¹ In April the committee was spending \$8,500 eek paying men working on public projects.⁵²

By the late spring of 1931, however, it was evident that unemployment

⁴⁸Tulsa Tribune, February 20, 1931, p. 3.

⁴⁹(Tulsa) Report of the Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, March, p. 1.

⁵⁰(Tulsa) Report of the Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, April, p. 1.

⁵¹Ibid., May, 1931, p. 1.

⁵²Ibid.

and consequent demands for relief were constantly increasing. Local funds would soon be exhausted. With summer coming, the city abruptly concluded its special emergency efforts, leaving permanent public and private relief agencies to carry on as best they could. Tulsa's tendency to limit its emergency relief to the winter inspired some criticism from representatives of private agencies. These groups were not satisfied with the spasmodic, seasonal character of charity work carried on by special committees.

On May 15, citizens of Tulsa holding the balance of the scrip issued in the relief effort were asked to turn it in. The city commissary was to be closed. Approximately \$2,500 worth of scrip was still in the hands of individuals who had either worked for it or purchased it to pay for the services of persons working under the unemployment organization.⁵³

All \$93,623 in scrip was sold during the campaign, resulting, so the committee said, in 32,000 jobs for the unemployed.⁵⁴ Roy B. Hinkle, special agent for the Federal Department of Labor for Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, and Tennessee, gave Tulsa credit for handling the situation more effectively than any other city in the country.⁵⁵

The partial success of the city's made-work program during the winter of 1931 indirectly created friction between Tulsa officials and state authorities. Indiscriminate soup lines had never been popular with the Kansans in control of relief. Such aid had been of greatest benefit for the transient population, in one day and out the next. Yet, just at the

⁵³(Tulsa) Report of the Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, May, 1931, p. 2.

⁵⁴Ibid.

⁵⁵Tulsa World, May 17, 1931, p. 3.

ime that the Tulsa depression problem had been curtailed, Governor William H. Murray ordered the establishment of state soup kitchens in the city.

Opposition quickly developed to the Murray order. This criticism is strongest among the directors of Tulsa's private philanthropic agencies, who had gained a great deal of influence when they rescued the county during the winter. These leaders maintained that the poor should be aided not in promiscuous masses at public distributing points, but by visits to their homes. They believed that indiscriminate relief would undermine the self-respect of the recipient, since individual capacity and responsibility were not taken into consideration. They, in short, opposed any kind of aid which did not take into appraisal its effect upon the receivers.⁵⁶ City officials were, on the other hand, not so much concerned with the idealistic side of the issue. In fact, they had earlier, before the adoption of the new program, requested a state soup kitchen for West Tulsa. But they did fear that relief distribution without proper investigation would draw undesirable persons to the city to share with the unemployed the funds available. Mayor Watkins, therefore, contacted Murray requesting that the state not interfere in local relief administration by the establishment of the free food camp he proposed. The governor replied that the reports of his state relief workers indicated that "in one of the outlying districts food is necessary to be dispensed free."⁵⁷ The governor went on to declare that he would not re-open all the soup kitchens until the city furnished provision for feeding

⁵⁶Tulsa Tribune, March 15, 1931, p. 3.

⁵⁷Tulsa World, February 1, 1931, p. 5.

ese persons.⁵⁸

The loose handling of the state relief organization brought the path of Tulsa down on Murray more than once. The governor had left the impression with those whom he commissioned to spread the state relief aid over Oklahoma that they had authority to feed all they found hungry. Murray's Tulsa representative Colonel L. W. Rook authorized J. P. Gallagher, manager of the Light House Mission, to charge purchases to the state relief fund. Gallagher fed hundreds with the aid of this credit, only to find his bill disallowed. The governor claimed that Gallagher never had official sanction, and that nothing but personal subscriptions could liquidate the debt. Tulsa wholesalers were forced to take the loss.⁵⁹

When the intensity of the relief crisis was temporarily alleviated in the spring of 1931, Richard Lloyd Jones, editor of the Tulsa Tribune, took a belated slap at the governor. His editorial apparently reflected strong local sentiment against the meddling of Murray:

Tulsa has been able to take care of its own. That was the decision by the representatives of relief and civic agencies... when it was announced that Governor Murray planned to send soup kitchens into Tulsa.

The unemployment situation in the state was serious. With characteristic lack of discrimination Governor Murray jumped into the breach. It meant little to him that some communities could care for their own while others were robbed of all self-support.

Tulsa did well when it declined state aid for its needy. Confidence in its local agencies prompted it to decline with thanks. And, again, the sufficiency of one centralized body to administer local relief is established.⁶⁰

⁵⁸ Ibid.

⁵⁹ Tulsa World, May 1, 1931, p. 2.

⁶⁰ Tulsa Tribune, May 1, 1931, p. 10.

At approximately the same time that the made-work program was put into operation in Tulsa, a group of physicians and health workers representing the city, the county, the Public Health Association and the County Medical Society had drawn up plans for a free medical service for the unemployed. Medical expenses for the impoverished were reduced by the enlargement of the City Health Bureau. City hospital student nurses were detailed to the Bureau, and various physicians agreed to donate their time. A group of druggists agreed to fill prescriptions issued by the clinic at wholesale prices. Hospitalization, including minor surgical work, was provided in some cases.

Only persons recommended by the city's relief agencies were admitted to the clinic. Special equipment for the clinic, as well as the actual cost of the drugs used, were paid from the employer-employee fund of the city's committee on unemployment. In the first two months of its operation, 2,309 persons were treated in the clinic and thirty-two homes were visited.⁶¹ The doctors participating in the clinic also agreed to continue to care for their own patients who had become dependents.

Some Tulsa families were deprived completely of shelter. Many of them took residence in the crudest kind of shacks at the outskirts of the city or merely lived in the open. Believing that it was foolish to have people be evicted from one house only to have to find another for themselves, the county asked many landlords to help by reducing the rent of needy families, and in some cases it was reportedly cut in half. The problem of finding new housing for relief families became more difficult as families were forced to move more frequently. Many landlords seem to have preferred to leave their properties vacant rather than accept relief

⁶¹Tulsa Tribune, March 15, 1931, p. 7.

ilies as tenants. The classified advertising section of the city's major daily newspapers indicate a constant growth in the number of available rental units while at the same time Tulsa's relief organizations conducted a persistent search for such housing. The problem of adequate housing was never really satisfactorily solved. The situation became so critical, in fact, that Governor Murray later asked the department of the city for tents to provide shelter for squatters.⁶²

One of the most disturbing outgrowths of the great depression was the problem of a migratory population. Men, great numbers of small boys, some homeless women and girls, and sometimes entire families left their homes and wandered about the country. The reluctance of Tulsa officials to extend equal benefits to these persons has already been discussed. This attitude was quite in contrast to that which prevailed in Oklahoma City. In the latter city a temporary village for non-resident families, with a few rudimentary conveniences and with a public school for children, was established.

As a consequence of the hostile Tulsa attitude toward migrants, its transient problem soon became acute. Some revelations of drastic poverty among these groups finally prompted the city to provide food and shelter for the transients until they could get out of town. The adoption of this policy was prompted by the discovery of nearly twenty persons near the park in Newblock Park where they had been living in crude shanties and tents.⁶³ A sociologist making a national study of the transient

⁶²(Tulsa) Report of the Subcommittee on Transients, Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, February 15, 1931, p. 1.

⁶³Ibid., p. 2.

blem wrote:

One woman, camped near Tulsa at the edge of a swamp, told me as she scratched away at the boils on her face, how healthy it is camping out of doors. Three hundred feet away, eight out of twelve in two families were sick with malaria.⁶⁴

City officials arranged for these people and others to be transferred to church basements and to the fairground buildings during the winter.

Private agencies such as the Salvation Army and the local rescue missions provided food and shelter for men. In Tulsa these agencies obtained some aid from the Community Fund in their operations. The Mission Redeeming Love, the Salvation Army, the Hiland Home, and the Light House Mission, all, at one time or another, handled the transient problem of the Fund. During its tenure as the Fund's official agent, the Salvation Army maintained transient men for a maximum of three days during their stay in the city. Such an arrangement, it was felt, gave the men sufficient time to find jobs in Tulsa if any were available, and if not move on to some other place. While at the home they were served two meals per day.

Children who had an insufficient or unbalanced diet at home were enabled to stay in school through an expansion of school lunch funds. Parent-Teacher Associations participated actively in relief programs in individual schools. Although the Independent Party, an organization for the unemployed, was unsuccessful in its efforts to secure free lunches in city schools, the installation of the ten cent lunch was arranged to begin with the opening of the 1931-1932 term. The lunch included a sandwich filled with meat or a meat substitute, two hot vegetables and milk.⁶⁵

⁶⁴ Robert Wilson, "Transient Families," The Family, XVI (December, 1930), pp. 243-251.

⁶⁵ (Tulsa) Report of the Central Clothing Dispensary, Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, April, 1931, p. 1.

lan to aid children who could not go to school because of a lack of table clothing was begun by the Parent-Teacher Association Council.

A central clothing dispensary was established on Bundle Sunday, ember 5, 1930, when Tulsans laid thousands of bundles of clothes on ir front porches. By June of 1931 at least one thousand adults and ldren had received 30,910 garments from this dispensary.⁶⁶ And there e many other relief services of a varied sort. The city water depart- t extended credit to needy persons under an established policy. The ahoma Natural Gas Company cooperated with the Mayor's Committee in ex- ding credit and giving free service. Between November, 1930 and May, l, more than \$5000 worth of free gas was furnished to more than 500 dy families, with more than 6,000 persons benefiting.⁶⁷ A recreation gram for the unemployed which stressed citizenship was carried on by YMCA at various locations in Tulsa.

Unfortunately for the cause of an effective permanent relief program, Mayor's Committee on Unemployment failed to consolidate the gains it made during the winter of 1931. It relaxed its efforts as soon as initial crisis was passed. It now turned to stop-gap measures for the ner of 1931 after its made-work program had come to an end. The com- tee had learned that there were many unemployed persons under its arvision who intended providing their families against hunger during summer by cultivating a garden. Aware of the potentialities of such lon, the committee authorized a city-wide canvass of vacant lots to ain plots for the use of Tulsa's registered unemployed. The committee

⁶⁶ (Tulsa) Report of the Central Clothing Dispensary, Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, April, 1931, p. 1.

⁶⁷ (Tulsa) Report of the Subcommittee on Free Public Utilities, Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, May, 1931, p. 1.

also hopeful that thousands of owners of vacant lots could be persuaded to rent them on a share basis and furnish the necessary garden elements and seeds. In some cases free use of land was offered, and the unemployed were unable to take advantage of it due to their financial condition. The committee therefore worked out a plan whereby lots were provided and seeds obtained through the free-seeds fund set by the state legislature.⁶⁸

The garden project put hundreds of families back on the basis of at least partial self-support within the few weeks required for the maturing garden crops. In some cases these gardens offered a means of supplementing low wages with early morning labor. Crops included potatoes, beans, cabbage, corn, beets, squashes, and pumpkins for the most part. Crops were produced where the soil was unsuitable for anything else. The surplus produce was sold by the gardeners to private consumers. The precedent for this program was the city's endeavor during World War I when there was a special need for the growing of all kinds of fruits and vegetables. During 1917 and 1918 hundreds of vacant lots had been cultivated in Tulsa. Real estate board officials worked closely with the subcommittee appointed by Mayor Watkins in working out plans for listing available lands.⁶⁹ All in all, however, this program proved too small and too scattered to make much of a dent in relief needs. The failure of the city to provide a more complete program of relief during the summer would mean another panic effort the following fall.

For various reasons unemployment had not been considered a serious

⁶⁸(Tulsa) Report of the Subcommittee on the Cultivation of Vacant Lots, Mayor's Committee on Unemployment, June, 1931, p. 1.

⁶⁹Ibid., p. 2.

lem by officials until late in 1930. Once its severity was recognized, efforts to correct it were, at least initially, clumsy and misdirected. City officials persisted in viewing the troublesome situation as a temporary condition. Tulsa authorities in the beginning tried vainly to correlate an over-estimated number of jobs with an under-estimated number of workers. No thorough measures were taken until the exhaustion of the county's relief funds forced a more realistic view of the situation. Partly because of the social theory of these officials and partly because of the fear of disorder among the unemployed, a made-to-order program and other activities were entered into by the city under the direction of a new, aggressive Mayor's Committee on Unemployment. The support for the program was not what had been expected, but there was a sufficient response to enable considerable alleviation of the ills of unemployment.

There appeared during the winter the first signs of several differences of opinion which were in the future destined to curtail the effectiveness of relief efforts. Sharply opposing points of view grew up over the matter of the purpose of relief and the method of distributing it. City officials tended to take a practical, economic view, while professional social workers in the charity agencies viewed relief as a rehabilitation process. A combination of these views, as well as Governor May's loose handling of the state relief program, led to a quarrel between state and local officials. They had already quarreled once over investigation procedures, a problem which could be directly traced, at least in part, to the deep resentment of Tulsans for transients.

The failure of the county to provide sufficient funds for charity work had led to a position of new respect for the Family Welfare Society. It was to result in the future in a more independent line of action by

a Society. There also resulted from this episode a big interest by
a public in just how the county appropriated its funds. The winter
closed with mere stop-gap measures being taken for the summer by the
y, a course of action which would result in a similar state of unpre-
paredness the following winter.

CHAPTER III

RELIEF: THE STRUGGLE FOR FINANCES

Prior to the great winter emergency, the Family Welfare Society had dealt only for transients, non-residents and a small percentage of the total residents of Tulsa. Then, in January of 1931, the Society had been asked to take over most of the cases formerly handled by the County Humane Society with county funds. The task had been a difficult one. The Society had neither adequate manpower nor sufficient funds to continue the work for very long. It depended for the most part on volunteers to carry out its work, and on contributions to provide finances for it. Now that the depression had eased, therefore, the Society both expected and desired to return to its previous arrangement.

The county commissioners favored the new arrangement. The laws of the State made them responsible for a large portion of public charity, and this responsibility they did not deny. The commissioners maintained their complete willingness to provide the funds necessary, but they wanted desperately to transfer the task of administration. The handling of the charity funds by the county had traditionally been rather loose. Demands were not heavy in ordinary years, and for this reason the commissioners had never worked out an effective system of administration. The county had usually appropriated for charity whatever was left over from the general fund after the other departments of government had been provided for. These funds were then distributed by the semi-public County Humane Society. The county was thus relieved when it was able to turn the administration of charity funds over

the Family Welfare Society in the winter of 1931, and now attempted to take steps to make that arrangement permanent.

Before the Family Welfare Society's reluctant new role could be made official and definite, however, a legal avenue had to be found for the transfer of county funds to an agency of the Community Fund. The new fiscal year was to begin on July 1. The Commissioners hoped to find authorization for their proposed action before that date.¹ With one brief announcement, however, the directors of the Family Welfare Society suddenly put an end to their plans. The Society served notice that after July 1, when the new county funds were to be available, they would turn back to the county the administration of its cases which they had taken over. The Society thus made it plain that it had no interest in the County's proposal. Nor did any of the other family welfare agencies of the Community Fund announce an interest.

The County Commissioners had no choice but to begin preparations for the care of the 2,500 needy families the Family Welfare Society was sending to the county. The first step taken was to tighten controls over relief expenditure. Those cases of direct immediate need were to be considered during the summer months. Where any other type of aid was felt to be available, cases were to be weeded out. This, it was hoped, would prevent serious strain on county charity funds before winter arrived with its heavy load of cases. In the interim, grocery orders were to be written at first, the payment of rents, gas, taxes and other utilities being halted during the summer to make charity funds meet more important needs.²

Most of the charity groups in Tulsa approved of the county's summer

¹Tulsa Tribune, June 15, 1931, p. 3.

²Ibid., June 28, 1931, p. 5.

my movement. The way in which the expenditures were reduced, however, had some strong protests. County widows were the first group to suffer the new rigid standards of economy. Since February of 1931 they had receiving only \$2.70 per month due to the exhaustion of county charity. The widows were ordinarily paid \$10 per month. Much unhappiness was caused by this reduction. The county's deficiencies had a way of becoming immediately painful for the private relief agencies of Tulsa, for when individuals were unable to obtain enough to satisfy their needs from the county, they frequently attempted to obtain additional help from one of the private organizations. Many of the widows had now been thrown back on non-public agencies in this manner.

This shifting of cases generated discussion as to whether the county had been paying the widows a sufficient amount to begin with. And right in the midst of this talk came the announcement by the commissioners that only \$8,000 was available for the care of the widows, and since that it could not possibly be apportioned among the 130 who were on the rolls in such a way as to provide them with their normal pension, no aid at all was to be given them.³ Of course, this is not exactly what the commissioners intended, but it was the impression they left. In reality the county was adopting the city's opinion that relief is unnecessary in the summer, and therefore postponing any further payments until September. What possible justification there was for this belief it is hard to see, but it does seem to have been the predominant viewpoint in the summer of 1931. Whereas the city had been rebuffed with only mild criticism when it abandoned its made-work program, the county did not prove to be so fortunate. And it is interesting to note that among the strongest critics of the county action were some of the city

³Tulsa World, July 1, 1931, p. 4.

officials who had satisfied themselves with stop-gap summer measures.

The county's agents in the Humane Society now turned to the serious task of handling the influx of cases from the Family Welfare Society. Perhaps the relief recipients had grown accustomed to the professional treatment of social workers. At any rate they made their return to the Humane Society noisily. Many of the applicants for aid there quickly returned to the Community Fund agency, declaring that they had been refused and had been told to "come back in a week and we will see what we can do for you."⁴ Some asserted that they could not wait a week to get milk for their babies and went to the Public Health Association for aid. One young woman claimed that she had been denied aid because "they told me they wouldn't do anything for us young people, that we would have to fend for ourselves."⁵ Allegedly she then explained that the aid was not for her but for her parents, and was told in reply that she would have to look out for herself.⁶ The Community Fund agencies with funds depleted could only tell the applicants back to the court house.

The county agent explained that only those people for whom the agency had no case record were turned away, then politely, and only for a couple of days while a file was prepared on them.⁷ He further replied to his critics:

...it is the least deserving who cry the loudest when things don't go just to suit them. Many of those who have gone back with the report that we had refused to help them came in here with chips on their shoulders. They expected us to give them money and food right on the minute. When we didn't they left in a huff.⁸

⁴Tulsa Tribune, July 3, 1931, p. 2.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid.

⁷Tulsa World, July 3, 1931, p. 3.

⁸Ibid.

Family Welfare Society, he said, had refused to allow the use of its cards, thereby making it necessary for the county to send out its own investigators. The executive secretary of the Family Welfare Society took offense. She said the case records of the Society were at the complete disposal of the county workers, adding that there had not been a single request for them.⁹

It is barely possible that all these charges and counter-charges possess validity. There is little doubt that the county was reluctant to take its cases from the Family Welfare Society. This may well have affected the spirit with which it conducted the investigation of the original releases. It is equally likely that some of the relief seekers were a little tense, a bit quick to criticize. Being herded about from agency to agency to accomplish what at best must have been an uncomfortable process for many on relief at this time was probably disconcerting. And certainly one could not deny that there are those among relief seekers at any date who have repellent personalities. The fact that no more planning had been done for the return of the relief recipients was first and foremost a failure of the county, but the Family Welfare Society could have done much more than it did to facilitate this process. The net result of it all was that administrative unity broke down on the Tulsa relief scene.

Conditions had no more than settled down to an uneasy normalcy when it was once again disrupted by relief matters. The chairman, members of the executive committee, and the treasurer of the Tulsa County Humane Society resigned. The resigning members claimed that during their tenure on the committee they had found it necessary to take action to curb certain practices with respect to the funds of the Society. In particular they referred to the

⁹Tulsa World, July 3, 1931, p. 3.

tices of checks being drawn on the bank account of the organization pay to some officer or employee with no explanation as to the expenditure of such funds except to designate it as petty cash.¹⁰

The committee had sought to correct this situation. It had passed a resolution requiring that all bills against the Society be presented to the committee for approval before they were paid. Checks, it had been ruled, should no longer be drawn to petty cash. Certain officers and employees, the committee claimed, had resented this restriction and had continued to try to secure checks designated as petty cash. In addition, the committee had learned that the president of the Society was engaged in some devious activities as an attorney.¹¹ Feeling that he was therefore not qualified to direct the affairs of the society and to handle its funds, they had demanded that he offer his resignation. The president, they held, had retaliated by calling a special meeting of the society at which he submitted and secured the passage of a new constitution. This constitution had divested the executive committee of its authority to handle the affairs of the society. The committee, therefore, resigned.¹²

When this story was revealed to the press, the president of the Society argued that it was merely a matter of the personal animosity of the members of the executive committee toward him. He further maintained that the chairman of the executive committee had been unsuccessful in his attempts to reform the Society and had thus launched a personal attack on him.¹³

¹⁰Tulsa Tribune, August 10, 1931, p. 1.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Ibid.

ever the true story was, the seed of doubt had been planted. Hereafter, commissioners announced, they would maintain direct supervision over distribution of county charity funds. The commission saw the need, it is, to discard slack methods and thereby eliminate loose access to the funds. They planned to employ trained workers to institute the case work program.¹⁴

These statements had hardly been made, however, before the commissioner admitted that they were unable to handle the cases that had been turned back to them by the Family Welfare Society. Maintaining that it was unable to employ sufficient investigators, the county urged that the Community Fund take over its work once more. Reference was made to the fact that the Family Welfare Society had case records on 2,500 families which it had taken care of during the first six months of the year. Because these records would materially aid in avoiding duplication in charity work, it was proposed that the Society take over the county load.¹⁵

The President of the Community Fund offered a qualified proposal to assume the county's case load. It would do so provided the county furnished an adequate budget, and provided that the Family Welfare Society could re-establish its budget.¹⁶ But the Family Welfare Society rejected the move. Its directors saw the opportunity to obtain a professional social work character for Tulsa charity permanently. The directors, therefore, decided that the organization could not assume any responsibility for providing a temporary form of charity relief. It was, however, willing to

¹⁴Tulsa World, August 15, 1931, p. 2.

¹⁵Tulsa Tribune, August 21, 1931, p. 3.

¹⁶Ibid., August 28, 1931, p. 3.

tiate with Community Fund officials and the county commissioners regarding a permanent plan to take over the work. They felt that the county's work had been handled too slipshod in the past, and that a definite understanding with county officials was desirable before they went into the work.¹⁷

In line with these statements and proposals the Community Fund finally agreed to assume the county's charity relief on a budget to be supplied by the county. The commissioners agreed to give the Fund a monthly budget to run until October 1 or until some permanent relief organization could be worked out. It was felt that the Family Welfare Society could probably take work on in the fall on a county budget even though it would not, perhaps could not, do so temporarily. The Fund officials, however, made it clear that their own family relief funds were nearly exhausted and that the county would have to furnish a budget immediately.¹⁸

A new organization, the County Welfare Department, was created by the Community Fund to handle the county's charity cases. Under their arrangement with the Fund the county commissioners appointed Harold M. Vaughn, Pontiac, Michigan welfare worker, as the agent to direct relief work.¹⁹ The county authorized a budget of \$4,000 per month for this new department's work, at the same time urging that it be dispensed with the strictest economy.²⁰ The handling of the cases of persons residing outside the city was at first left to the commissioners, but this was finally also turned over to the Welfare Department with a \$1,000 per month increase in the budget resulting.

¹⁷Tulsa Tribune, August 29, 1931, p. 2.

¹⁸Tulsa World, September 2, 1931, p. 4.

¹⁹Ibid., September 11, 1931, p. 6.

²⁰Ibid.

At the same time the commissioners discharged the remaining workers in the County Humane Society and ordered the court house offices of the organization closed at once. In order to make sure that the money for the welfare Department's budget would be available, the commissioners slashed salaries among workers in other departments. The county also furnished the welfare Department with four automobiles. Gasoline for the cars, a big item in the investigation work, was purchased through the highway department in order to obtain the benefit of a low price.²¹

One of the first acts of the Committee of Five, organized in the fall of 1931 to handle the over-all administration of relief, was to call upon county commissioners with the request that the county budget include an appropriation of not less than \$150,000 for charity and relief work. That amount, they declared, should be exclusive of expenditures for the county farm, county hospital, widows' pensions fund and other state welfare expenses. The committee cited the laws of the state of Oklahoma as authority for making the request. This law provided that:

Every county shall relieve and support all poor and indigent persons lawfully settled therein, whenever they shall actually need assistance and shall allow such temporary relief to persons not settled therein as shall be actually necessary pending the ascertainment of their settlement or removal thereto.²²

The committee stressed that the law said the county shall provide such relief leaving no alternative.

Only \$56,000 had been set aside for relief by the county, and more than half of that was already gone. The commissioners claimed that they were forced to stay within the four mill limit and therefore could not make

²¹Tulsa World, September 15, 1931, p. 2.

²²Oklahoma Department of State, Revised Laws of Oklahoma (St. Paul: Pioneer Company, 1912), p. 1159.

ditional appropriations.²³ With only \$26,000 remaining in the county relief fund, and with that amount being rapidly exhausted as welfare cases increased by over fifty a day, the directors of the Family Welfare Society had to take over part of the county load immediately. Thus, for the second consecutive year the Society found it necessary to go to the rescue of the county when the commissioners failed to provide enough money to care for the legal residents who were indigents. The county's failure to do so had aroused considerable indignation. The manner in which most of the responsible county officers had failed to cooperate with the city charitable agencies in planning for the winter had been most disappointing.²⁴

The Committee of Five also asked the commissioners to apply to the governor for road work and to use as much labor drawn from the unemployment registration lists in this work as possible. The county commissioners had previously been asked by a committee representing the governor's unemployment relief program to make available funds which would be matched dollar for dollar by the state to provide work, presumably on highways, for unemployed men. About \$1,000,000 was available in state funds to match county funds in this work.²⁵

The county commissioners claimed that they could not make such an appropriation without endangering charity funds which were expected to be badly needed. In the face of their failure to do so the agents of the governor became sharply critical. One called the fact that the county was spending twenty-five per-cent of its tax revenues for charity purposes "a

²³Tulsa Tribune, September 24, 1931, p. 4.

²⁴Tulsa World, September 28, 1931, p. 2.

²⁵Ibid., October 14, 1931, p. 7.

me." The state urged the county to base its charity on a "work-or-starve policy."²⁶

W. L. North, chairman of the county commissioners, was particularly strong in his opposition to the state's plan, recalling that:

...last year \$700,000 was raised by the state for relief work of which Tulsa paid at least ten per-cent and received back just \$3,500, a part of which was in free seed, so worthless it would not grow.²⁷

Ernest B. Means, chairman of the County Excise Board, disapproved of any levy which would further tend to burden the taxpayers for charity purposes:

To make jobs through government as is proposed is all wrong. You are simply educating the people to look to the government for support. The American people have always supported their poor by public subscription and can continue to do so.²⁸

Meanwhile full responsibility for any breakdown in the emergency relief work during the upcoming winter was placed upon the county commissioners by the Central Emergency Committee of Five. If the commissioners failed to make adequate provision in the budget to finance the necessary relief work, the committee threatened to recommend that the existing and wholly inadequate funds then available for charity be dispensed as rapidly as needed, and then when the funds were exhausted to let the entire charity load revert to the county.²⁹

Ernest H. Cornelius, chairman of the Committee of Five, advanced two methods by which pressure could be brought to bear upon the county to force it to live up to its charity responsibility. Full details of the charity

²⁶Tulsa Tribune, October 18, 1931, p. 5.

²⁷Ibid.

²⁸Ibid.

²⁹Ibid., December 3, 1931, p. 2.

uation could be aired through newspaper publicity, and a mass meeting taxpayers could be held at which public opinion could be engendered to bring the county commissioners into line.³⁰ At the invitation of the commissioners, Cornelius, with the assistance of auditors, began an examination of county departmental records and the county budget. He sought to trim the appropriations and reduce the budget so that additional funds could be made available for emergency poor relief. Cornelius emerged from the study convinced that additional funds could be made available for charity.

At this point in the controversy a test case was filed in the district court. The object was to obtain a legal opinion as to the extent to which the county was responsible for the care of indigents. The petition was prepared by a Mrs. Tom Baker. Said A. F. Sweeney, who prepared the petition for Mrs. Baker:

This woman, her husband and three children are living in a garage with a dirt floor, no ventilation except for the open door, a wood stove. I think it a disgrace to the city that such a case exists.³¹

Mrs. Baker stated in her petition that she had applied for relief but had been denied it by the county. The provision of the law under which the petition was filed read:

If any person shall suppose that he is entitled to benefit of the laws for the relief of the poor, and the overseers of the poor in the county in which he resides shall refuse to give such person the benefit thereof, upon application of such person, the judge of the district court may, if he shall think proper, direct said overseers...to receive such persons on the poor list....³²

Here were the roots of a possible crisis for the entire county relief

³⁰ Tulsa Tribune, December 3, 1931, p. 2.

³¹ Ibid.

³² Oklahoma Department of State, Revised Laws of Oklahoma, 1910, pp. 13-1164.

ram. If Mrs. Baker were granted relief on the order of Judge S. J. Glendinning, all other rejected relief seekers would be given inspiration to follow suit. Regardless of the merit of Mrs. Baker's case, there were many justly restricted aspirants amidst the potential throng. Aware of this, Glendinning continued the case on the grounds that:

A judgment of this kind is like a judgment of any kind when there is no money to support it--no good. That's why I want to check into the county's poor funds and see if the money is available. Then we will see if this family is entitled to aid, and if none is available, we'll see why not.³³

As the money was available, the county commissioners saw to that, and no decision was ever reached in the case.

The clubwomen of Tulsa, 10,000 or more strong, now massed their forces behind a campaign to induce the county commissioners to comply with the law by appropriating sufficient money for relief. The Tulsa Federation of Women's Clubs made a thorough study of conditions in Tulsa and emerged from it convinced that a crisis existed in the administration of charity by the county. Warning the county commissioners that their system was at the point of a complete breakdown, the Federation drafted a resolution containing the following points:

The amount which you have set aside for general charity of which only \$26,000 remains for emergency relief during the coming months is only one-sixth the amount necessary to meet the emergency....

...the Revised Statutes of Oklahoma specifically state that it is your duty to make appropriations of sufficient funds to meet relief needs.

...we recommend that an appropriation of not less than \$150,000 be set-up and the balance divided as you deem best among the other departments of government.³⁴

The Federation recognized in its resolution that the county was handicapped

³³Tulsa Tribune, December 16, 1931, p. 2.

³⁴Ibid., October 3, 1932, p. 6.

the four-mill limit, but maintained that the \$150,000 charity appropriation could still be made.

The commissioners made no move to increase their charity budget. The women, therefore, demanded that they abide by the law or get out of office. This ultimatum was presented to the county commissioners by a committee representing the Tulsa Emergency Council, a new organization of club women of Tulsa. If the commissioners did not obey the law, they announced their intention of asking the attorney general to start legal proceedings. The resolutions addressed to J. Berry King, attorney general, stated in part:

You are hereby notified that the Tulsa county commissioners have been guilty of wilful negligence of duty. They have been guilty of opposition/sic/ in office to wit: They have and are oppressing the poor in Tulsa county and propose to further oppress poor and indigent persons who are not in public charitable institutions in the county and are now being supported by the county. They are guilty of wilful misconduct, wilful maladministration in that they have refused to make this necessary appropriation to care for the poor. We regretfully request that your office investigate the facts concerning the misconduct of the county commissioners and that you forthwith institute proceedings in the Supreme Court of the state of Oklahoma to oust them from office.³⁵

Presentation of the petition to the attorney general was to depend upon action the county commissioners took upon the council's request that they be permitted to study the county budget. The commissioners gave in to demands of the ladies, and the Emergency Council appointed a special committee for the purpose of the budget inspection. The committee reported that in almost every instance maximum amounts allowable by law had been appropriated by the county for its various departments. The Emergency Council demanded to know why these maximum appropriations had been made for

³⁵ Tulsa Tribune, October 8, 1932, p. 2.

er departments while relief was slighted.³⁶ A resolution was adopted
 ing the commissioners four days in which to increase the appropriations
 charity to \$150,000. If they did not do so, the women announced that
 ir resolution asking for ouster proceedings would go forward to Attorney
 eral King. The Emergency Council further announced that it had searched
 county records only four days and found where \$63,000 could be added to
 charity funds by effecting governmental economies, and promised that if
 commissioners will "give us ten more days, we will find more than the
 0,000 that has been requested."³⁷ The committee then made eight specific
 ommendations as to how the reductions could be made.

For three days the commissioners did not comment. Then, on the fourth
 , they promised to place all funds saved by salary reductions or other
 omies effected into the county welfare fund.³⁸ But they neglected to
 tion a date when they would take action. The club women were not satis-
 d. They replied that if the commissioners failed to take action by mid-
 at, coercive measures would be applied.³⁹ The county's answer was a
 sed budget which called for little change from the original. At the
 rt they had planned to make available \$211,004 for all charity purposes,
 luding the maintenance of the County Home and the County Farm, salaries
 the operators of these institutions, compensation for widows and orphans
 other items. The budget they now submitted to the Excise Board called
 \$221,963.99.⁴⁰ What the county's critics had demanded was \$150,000 for

³⁶Tulsa World, November 4, 1931, p. 2.

³⁷Ibid.

³⁸Tulsa Tribune, November 8, 1931, p. 3.

³⁹Ibid., January 14, 1932, p. 3.

⁴⁰Ibid., January 15, 1932, p. 2.

welfare alone, and they had in mind benefits for those in need as a result of the depression, not the normal indigents.

The Emergency Council now decided to go direct to the Excise Board with its plea that changes be made in the county budget. They allied themselves with other organizations for the purpose of carrying out the fight. Groups included with the club women in the Amalgamated Charity Council were the Central Emergency Committee of Five, the American Legion, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, the Chamber of Commerce and the Community Fund. The new council presented a report indicating that there were 12,276 registered unemployed persons in Tulsa county, 11,908 without any income at all.⁴¹ They maintained that family relief work in Tulsa would fail if more money was not made available by the county. They pointed to the fact that the Family Welfare Society was carrying more than fifty per-cent more cases than it had in the previous year. The Council spokesmen also suggested that, at the prevailing rate of daily increase, the Family Welfare Society's total would amount to 1900 cases before the end of the month. The County Welfare Department, they stated, was caring for 2,200 families, more than the total of all agencies for the year before.⁴²

The commissioners attempted to stir up resentment against the administration of the Community Fund. Their hope apparently was to divert public attention from their own negligence in failing to provide adequate funds for the city. They may also have been motivated by threats of the Emergency Relief Council's investigators to make revelations of political waste in the court house. The commission's charges of extravagance in the administration of the Community Fund were, however, quickly refuted. Fred Insull, Fund

⁴¹Tulsa World, January 19, 1932, p. 3.

⁴²Ibid.

sident, produced figures which revealed that salaries paid by the organization compared favorably with those paid in other cities for the same work.⁴

The Emergency Relief Council then accused the commission of functioning tly for the benefit of job hunters. In support of this contention, an torial in the Tulsa Tribune compared the organization of Tulsa county ernment with that of Tammany Hall, contending that political workers were vided with jobs on the public payrolls before any other expenditures from lic funds were made:

For years Tammany has.../maintained/ that whatever the short-comings of its leaders, they were good to the poor. If it paid--and they saw to it that it did pay--they were good to poor. Tammany can't forget it is a political machine, even though men and women starve and children go poorly clad in the midst of want and suffering. The relief provided by the taxpayer was first withheld and then sold for political support....Tammany methods are just as contemptible in Tulsa as in New York City.⁴⁴

The Excise Board moved slowly in its deliberations. Veiled threats e directed at it by the county commissioners. It was rumored that if any stic changes were made in the budget a court test of the Excise Board's ority might be resorted to. On the day of decision, the court room of e John B. Means was packed to capacity. For two hours tense and silent and women listened to the reading of statistical findings.⁴⁵ The dis- sion of the budget by the Board was brought to a close with its announce- : that the County Highway Police Department was to be abolished. This precisely one of the departments for which the commissioners were em- ically opposed to altering allotments. The commissioners, however, did challenge the authority of the Excise Board. It is ironical that only

⁴³Tulsa Tribune, January 13, 1932, p. 14.

⁴⁴Ibid., January 16, 1932, p. 16.

⁴⁵Ibid., January 18, 1932, p. 8.

few months later the state Supreme Court ruled that equalizing boards had authority to alter budgets that came within legal limits. The Tulsa county commissioners, by not demanding the right to make their own budget, in effect acquiesced in the cuts made by the Excise Board.⁴⁶

In finally approving the budget, the Excise Board added \$48,200 to the original charity budget.⁴⁷ The final 1931-1932 county budget carried an appropriation of \$270,133.99 for charity, subdivided as follows:⁴⁸

<u>Purpose</u>	<u>Appropriation</u>
Salary, Superintendent of County Farm and County Home	\$ 2,400.00
Maintenance of County Farm	\$ 10,000.00
Maintenance of County Home	\$ 33,000.00
Maintenance of the poor:	
Rugs, hospital and burial	\$ 93,700.00
County Welfare	\$ 23,000.00
City Welfare	\$ 92,033.99
Clothing and food for school children	\$ 8,000.00
Compensation for widows and orphans	\$ 8,000.00
<hr/>	<hr/>
TOTAL	\$270,133.99

Despite this small victory for the club women and the committee of five, the relief situation did not improve. The county commissioners limited expenditures in the County Welfare Department for February, 1932 to \$10,000. In January \$35,000 had been required for family relief work, half of which had been provided by the county. The county relief load at this time included 4,100 cases of which 2,400 were under the care of the County Welfare Department and 1,700 under the Family Welfare Society.⁴⁹

⁴⁶Tulsa World, May 16, 1932, p. 2.

⁴⁷Ibid., January 28, 1932, p. 3.

⁴⁸John E. Brindley, Survey Report on the Present Administration of the Tulsa County Government (Tulsa: The Public Affairs Association, 1932), p. Dr. Brindley, of the Oklahoma Tax Economy Association, drafted this report for a group of Tulsans interested in tax reduction.

⁴⁹Tulsa Tribune, April 19, 1932, p. 2.

On February 26, 1932, the county commissioners announced that their city appropriations for relief within the city were exhausted. The Community Fund directors determined to carry on the work with their own resources. The relief load being carried by the County Welfare Department and Family Welfare Society was showing little decrease. In mid-April the county cases still numbered 2,529, while the Family Welfare Society was providing relief for 1,900. Since July 1 the Community Fund has spent \$117,107.08 on family relief alone. Of this amount \$71,107.08 had been expended through the County Welfare Department.⁵⁰ In the same period the county spent \$92,000.⁵¹

The end of county contributions to the financing of the work of the County Welfare Department came abruptly with the rejection by the county commissioners of claims for charity totaling \$5,997.24. The commissioners found this amount was in excess of the \$92,033.99 that they had set aside to be disbursed through the city's relief program.⁵² Some confusion had arisen from the assertion of Community Fund officials that they understood that an additional \$6,000 was to be allowed by the commissioners. The commissioners sent a letter to the County Welfare Department in March indicating that they were increasing the original amount available by another \$6,000 and that warrants could be issued to that amount.⁵³

The Community Fund was forced into a \$40,000 deficit because it had been necessary to assume all of the county load. This forced a curtailment

⁵⁰Tulsa Tribune, April 19, 1932, p. 2.

⁵¹Ibid., April 27, 1932, p. 3.

⁵²Ibid.

⁵³Tulsa World, May 1, 1932, p. 2.

funds apportioned among the various affiliated agencies for charity.

Fund had expended all its surplus and was operating on collections as they came in weekly. With a case load of 4,000 families, upwards of 20,000 persons were on the rolls of the Fund agencies.⁵⁴ The Community Fund directors now advised the county that unless an agreement could be reached on a budget to be furnished by the county for relief work, the entire welfare fund would be returned to the county on July 1, 1932.⁵⁵

With the Fund agencies operating on a "starvation" schedule it was decided that the "bum" must go. The agencies felt that they had been carrying professional charity seekers for several years. Now that they had deserving unemployed people who, because of the county's inefficiencies, were hungry and needed help, they were not going to be allowed to suffer because of those who had always relied upon charity. Only enough aid, it was decided, would be given physically able men to prevent acute suffering. Dependency was not to be encouraged. A "work test" was drawn up to apply to all able-bodied adults before they could receive aid from the agencies. Those who were not willing to work for what they received would not get anything. Of the first 250 men who took the city's new test about 50 failed to appear for the work that had been assigned to them. Unless they had acceptable reasons for failing to show up, these men were cut off the case lists of the agencies. Men who qualified were given one day's work a week and were supervised by the agency concerned.⁵⁶

Definite steps were now taken to place relief work in the city on a so-called "war-time" basis for the next year. Consolidation of all emergency

⁵⁴Tulsa World, May 1, 1932, p. 2.

⁵⁵Tulsa Tribune, June 26, 1932, p. 2.

⁵⁶Ibid.

relief work done by the Community Fund agencies under one organization was authorized. The movement was partly prompted by the action of oilman Wait Ellips in allowing the Community Fund to use the Tidal Building for one year free of rent. All Fund agencies could move their offices into the one building, and \$10,000 in rent saved.⁵⁷

The plan of the executive committee of the Community Fund to force a consolidation of all relief agencies, however, did not win the immediate approval of all the agencies concerned. The Family Welfare Society and the Catholic Charities continued to operate as usual and made it clear that they had not decided to go along with the new venture. The opponents of the consolidation plan maintained that it would, in effect, set up the dole system, that it would be more costly and less efficient than the old form of administration, and that it would retard the raising of the annual fund by alienating the separate agency supporters. They said, in addition, that consolidation would mean greater costs because of the addition of numerous salaried positions for all forms of charity work then being carried out by volunteers.

The Family Welfare Society had an additional, special reason for objecting to consolidation. It was believed that such a plan would cause the society to lose its membership in the Family Welfare Society of America. One of the rules of the national society was that trained social workers must be in charge of the distribution of charity in order that waste could be prevented, to provide for family rehabilitation along the way, and to prevent the creeping of political control into charitable affairs. The consolidation plan did not include a trained social worker in charge.⁵⁸

In view of these facts the Family Welfare Society decided to withdraw

⁵⁷Tulsa World, June 29, 1932, p. 1.

⁵⁸Ibid., July 1, 1932, p. 3.

from the Community Fund rather than lose its membership in the national society. In their statement of withdrawal, the Society's directors pointed out that the plan had been hastily formulated and that it was not apparent that any large savings could be made. They further protested that they were not told anything about it until they were forced to the decision of joining withdrawing. It would be a step backward, they said, to put Tulsa on a dole system of charity relief again. The directors of the Society admitted that there could be some savings in executive salaries and from consolidation of clerical work and filing. But they felt that such savings were claimed for the plan could be derived only from the abolition or reduction of case workers and the granting of relief without investigation or follow up. Such a course of action, they maintained, could only lead to dole and pauperization by developing chronic cases out of reasonably self-intentioned persons, who might otherwise have returned to normal life as a result of careful study and guidance. The dole, they said, removed the incentive toward self-help.⁵⁹

The executive board of the Community Fund bitterly criticized the society. They declared that consolidation was the demand of many of the large givers to the Fund, because they desired a reduction in the expenses of operation. An emergency existed, they thought, in the relief work of Tulsa which required the action being taken in the interest of economy. Most of all they objected to a "group of professional social workers dictating to the citizens of Tulsa on a question of business administration."⁶⁰ The Welfare Society thus found itself accused of ungratefully placing itself above the interests of the city.

⁵⁹Tulsa Tribune, July 7, 1932, p. 1.

⁶⁰Tulsa World, July 8, 1932, p. 2.

The directors of the Family Welfare Society agreed to rescind their resignations only if they were provided, in writing, three assurances by the President of the Community Fund. First of all, each of the family relief agencies in the proposed coordinated structure had to be given the right to retain its complete individual identity if it so chose. It must have the right to retain all its properties including records and office equipment. Second, an advisory committee consisting of members of each of the boards of directors of the various agencies involved had to be formed to work with the executive committee of the Community Fund in the consideration of all matters of policy, procedure and personnel. It conceded final authority, however, in all cases but one to the Community Fund's executive committee. It demanded that a trained social worker be designated as director of relief under the proposed organization from a list of names to be submitted by the advisory committee. Finally, all agencies must be given the right to withdraw from the organization at any time that the final determination of policy by the executive committee was not satisfactory to it.⁶¹

In a letter of reply, the Community Fund directors stated that they had not attempted in any way to determine what the Family Welfare Society would do concerning a retention of its identity and general activity. They said that any question of property rights, if one should arise, was a question to be decided by a court of law, and not by either of the parties concerned in the controversy. They agreed to the establishment of the type of committee that the Family Welfare Society proposed. They did not agree, however, to the selection of a relief director in the manner asked by Family Welfare workers. Instead, they pointed out that no other agency except the Family Welfare Society had made such a demand, and added that if that agency was

⁶¹Tulsa Tribune, June 8, 1932, p. 1.

not willing to proceed on the basis of the good faith of Tulsa citizens, could add no further comment."⁶² The Community Fund directors also stated that they certainly did not presume that they had the power to hold the new agency any organization that decided it wanted to withdraw.⁶³

It seems probable that the Family Welfare Society had from the beginning seen the necessity to conform. Under the principle of collective aid raising upon which the organization of the Community Fund had been built, those organizations not participating, and who had thus to depend on voluntary contributions, were not likely to be very successful. Whatever the cause, the Society now announced that it was willing to cooperate, and was only a short time later that the plans for consolidation were carried out. All family relief, including the distribution of food and clothing, thereafter handled by the United Family Relief and Service Association, consolidated agency taking over the work formerly handled by the Family Welfare Society, Catholic Charities, Jewish Charities, and County Welfare Department.⁶⁴ Five district stations were established in order to decentralize relief distribution. Each district had a supervisor and workers from the existing Fund staff.⁶⁵

Meanwhile the city's charity situation had threatened to turn tragic. There were at least 20,000 persons in the city asking for relief, and the resources of the Community Fund were virtually exhausted. Johnson D. Hill, president of the Community Fund, called upon the county commissioners to act immediately to help meet the charity load of the Fund, which was

⁶²Tulsa Tribune, July 10, 1932, p. 1.

⁶³Ibid.

⁶⁴Ibid., October 2, 1932, p. 2.

⁶⁵Tulsa World, October 1, 1932, p. 3.

ghted down with 1,500 cases which rightfully fell under the commission's responsibility. In a meeting with three commissioners and the members of Excise Board, Hill asked that \$20,000 be made available for July. When approval was voiced to this, he asked for \$10,000 for July and an equal amount for August.⁶⁶ The commissioners, while not immediately agreeing to that figure, did promise to prepare tentative budgets for the Excise Board and to include in them an appropriation for charity. They decided in doing so, however. This caused one member of the Excise Board to comment:

I waited around here for three days this week in the belief that the commissioners intended to ask for an appropriation. I was really ashamed when we finally approved expenditures for the fair which opens this month, and then took no action on the charity question.⁶⁷

Again the county commissioners had defaulted in their relief obligation, again citizens of Tulsa organized themselves for more effective protest. A new agency was the Public Affairs Association, originally the idea of a group attempting to promote lower taxes. As its initial action the Association employed Dr. John E. Brindley of the Oklahoma Tax Economy Association to survey the economic aspects of Tulsa county administration. The objective in making the survey was to point out any reductions in expenditures or savings which might be effected, without crippling the functions and services of the Tulsa county government. If such savings could be made, they would make possible the retention of an appropriation to assist and feed the poor. It might also make possible a substantial lowering of taxes.⁶⁸

The salaries of elective officers and their deputies were considered.

⁶⁶Tulsa Tribune, September 4, 1932, p. 2.

⁶⁷Ibid.

⁶⁸Ibid., p. 6.

was found that several elective officials and most deputies in the county took a ten per-cent reduction in their salaries for 1932-1933 as compared with the 1931-1932 schedule. However, no appreciable reduction in the number of deputies or other employees was made. Nor was any attempt made to adjust salaries in line with the qualifications for deputies or the duties necessary to be performed. Where salaries were not fixed by law they were apparently fixed by political expediency.⁶⁹

Some questionable procedures were found also in a check of the records regarding the feeding of prisoners during 1931-1932. The county had spent \$3,096.80 for this purpose. The total number of prisoner days was 51,408, making the average cost per day to the county 48.8 cents. The federal government paid the county fifty-five cents per day for the feeding of these inmates. The considerable profit involved for the county was going to the sheriff. Dr. Brindley contended that the daily charges were unreasonable to begin with, for food costs had taken drastic declines. It was estimated that feeding expenses could be reduced by the commissioners to around twenty-five cents per day, with a conservative saving of \$10,000 to the county.⁷⁰

The Brindley report recommended that livestock on the county farm be sold and the property rented. This rather drastic proposal followed the discovery that the farm had suffered a net loss of \$6,480.21 during 1931-1932. The report pointed out that when the county farm had been established it had been assumed that it would be maintained in part with some of the county home states and furnish gainful employment for them. Its produce was supposed to in turn contribute to the support of the county home. Neither of these

⁶⁹Brindley, Survey Report on the Present Administration of the Tulsa County Government, p. 1.

⁷⁰Ibid.

jectives, of course, had been realized.⁷¹

Evidence of inefficient practices was also found in connection with the purchase of drugs by the county. During the fiscal year of 1931-1932 drugs were bought and prescriptions were filled, by one company only, in an amount of \$12,087.33. A check of prices charged for standard drugs and supplies indicated that the county was being charged approximately thirty per-cent above standard retail charges and was then being allowed a discount of fifteen per-cent. Dr. Brindley's report suggested that a large saving could be secured by calling for bids on the purchase of drugs.⁷²

The report also asserted that certain persons on the county payroll were being over-paid. The county physician was receiving a salary of \$500 per month. This was the highest appointive salary in the county, and one of the highest in the state. It was therefore considered an unnecessary extravagance. Janitors, it was also found, were receiving a salary which was in excess of those of custodians in downtown buildings, and they did only half the work generally performed by such workers. Dr. Brindley recommended that the janitors be put on a half-time basis, reducing their pay by fifty per-cent without putting any of them entirely out of work.⁷³

The investigation also revealed lax methods in the handling of details concerning expenditures for the maintenance of roads and bridges. Payrolls were made out showing the money due each employee, but not signed by the checker. After the claim was passed, warrants were issued to the engineer, superintendent or supervisor who paid the men and secured their signatures opposite the amount supposed to be due them on the payroll. The signed

⁷¹Brindley, p. 1.

⁷²Ibid., p. 2.

⁷³Ibid., p. 3.

copy of the payroll was then transmitted through regular channels to the county clerk. But many of these signed copies could not be located. There was room for doubt that the men actually received the total amount due them; in fact, it was possible to question whether they received any of it. And there was, on the other hand, no certainty that the individual performed the work covered by the claim.⁷⁶

Payroll frauds were just a possibility, but Brindley proceeded to prove that waste and political favoritism did exist in other areas of road construction administration. Men were employed as patrolmen at certain stipulated wages and then allowed to hire someone else at a smaller wage to do the work. For heavy work men were paid \$2.50 per day for the use of their team, and another \$2.50 to drive them. In fact, however, the team owner usually hired his drivers as cheaply as he could, frequently paying \$1 per day. In order to eliminate outside competition, the county advertised contracts for only two or three culverts or structures at a time. But if a favored contractor was a successful bidder, the contract was often extended to cover several times the original work. In such cases the prices paid were greatly in excess of what bid prices would have been had the entire work been advertised for letting. The same practice prevailed in regard to paving contracts.⁷⁷

These practices were obviously costly for the Tulsa taxpayer, but the greatest extravagance of all possibly related to expenditures for the county fair. Although the fair operated only ten days during 1931, it cost the county more than \$88,000. A high salaried force for the event was maintained throughout the year although they had no reason to function

⁷⁶Brindley, p. 4.

⁷⁷Ibid., p. 5.

re than a few months annually. Of the total amount spent for the fair, Carl W. Ellmore was paid \$13,199.75 for grading the grounds. His claims are not supported by any payroll showing the forces he employed, the days worked, or the work accomplished. Nor was there any reference in the official documents examined by Brindley to any contract or any stipulated rate of pay upon which Ellmore's claims were based. An inspection of the fair grounds led Brindley to believe that the work could have been done for \$3,000. This same Carl Ellmore, incidentally, appeared on the county payroll for three other jobs, for which he received a total of more than \$5,000.⁷⁸

Dr. Brindley's report to the Public Affairs Association, therefore, supported the charges of political favoritism and extravagance which had been heard repeatedly since the Tulsa women had undertaken the winter business to find out why the county commission could not make an adequate appropriation for charity. He gave the civic groups of Tulsa enough figures to enable them to go to the court house and demand that the charity problem be handled out of the existing budget. County Commissioner W. L. North, however, branded the report "biased." He contended that it was based on conditions of two years ago." North continued:

...if I was an auditor and couldn't get out a better statement of facts than that report of Dr. Brindley, I wouldn't get out anything. It is a mass of gross exaggerations. The people who sent him here don't want to get at the truth. They are just a bunch of organized tax dodgers. I've said my little say, and that's all. We'll try to run our business, and Dr. Brindley can run his.⁷⁹

North's "little say" could well have been taken as an official statement of the county position, for the extent of county cooperation with the

⁷⁸Brindley, p. 5.

⁷⁹Tulsa Tribune, September 7, 1932, p. 5.

ty's relief program was not destined to increase. The county finally asked the Excise Board to approve a \$15,000 grant for relief, but the method announced for the distribution of funds left out the Community Fund. Each distribution was to be through the office of the county juvenile officer, who worked under the county court in checking and providing for indigent cases there.⁸⁰ It thus became necessary for the city to institute a program to fill the breach temporarily.

If the Great Depression offered any lessons for Tulsa concerning the administrative organization for relief, one of the most profound was a cognition of the fact that the existing machinery did not suffice for the institution of emergency measures. County officials had never considered the handling of charity to be one of their major functions. Traditionally they had given it only slight consideration. When they found themselves with legal responsibility to cure a great social ill at a time when that ill was most pronounced, they reacted in a way which was not in the best interests of the effective handling of that problem. Constantly they refused to appropriate sufficient funds for relief. The fumbling policy in which they used the public revenues aroused the antagonism of relief recipients. And, just as important, the inadequacies of the county deepened the hostility between public and private charity, and damaged hopes for the effective centralization of relief.

⁸⁰ Tulsa World, September 8, 1932, p. 4.

CHAPTER IV

RELIEF: THE COMMITTEE OF FIVE

A movement got underway in the fall of 1931 for the consolidation of agencies which had been set up to relieve the poor and unemployed. This attempt to centralize resulted from several factors. The repeated conflicts between private and public agencies, the seeming inability of the county to provide enough funds to carry the load, the steady increase of the number of those on relief, and the realization that there had been much duplication of effort were all sources of the desire to consolidate.

By this time Oklahoma City had developed a centralized relief organization which appeared to be functioning very effectively. The Tulsa officials turned for advice to C. C. Day, one of the organizers of the former city's program. Day suggested that Tulsa make each one of its agencies learn its work through one bureau, eliminating any agencies that proved ineffective. He added: "If American businessmen do not think and act now, we certainly will go under the dole and then the businessmen who did not act will squawk to high heaven."¹

In response to Day's advice, a fact-finding committee was set up by the coordinating committee of the Chamber of Commerce to make a survey of poverty and unemployment conditions in Tulsa. The committee's task was to survey conditions throughout Tulsa, take into account the work of the

¹Tulsa Tribune, September 14, 1931, p. 4.

roposed winter programs of the various relief agencies and determine what steps should be taken to relieve suffering and unemployment. A financial campaign which was to follow would be predicated upon their findings.² Immediately after its authorization the fact-finding committee sent out a questionnaire to all agencies doing any charity work. The replies were checked and tabulated. The records of the Better Business Bureau, the City Solicitations Committee, and the Community Fund were checked. Many individuals were interviewed, and plans which had been adopted in other communities were studied.³

The fact-finding committee emerged from its study convinced that the success or failure of the administration of relief in Tulsa depended on the measure of cooperation between the Governor's Committee, the county, the city administration and the established relief and charitable organizations. In order to insure such cooperation the fact-finders proposed the establishment of a Central Emergency Committee of Five. The aim of this committee would be to see that there was no duplication in either work relief or direct relief. The committee was not to actually carry on any of the work of the employment or charitable agencies but to serve only in an advisory and directive capacity. The committee of five, and the fact-finders, should have as its ultimate end the substitution of employment for charity in so far as possible for all able-bodied bona-fide Tulsa residents.⁴

The fact-finding committee recognized that such an organization as the

²Tulsa Spirit, September 21, 1931, p. 8.

³Report of the Fact-Finding Committee, Tulsa Chamber of Commerce, October, 1931, p. 2.

⁴Ibid., p. 1.

entral emergency committee of five it proposed was unnecessary in normal times because the several agencies for relief and social welfare had a regular group of contributors. Under the emergency circumstances prevailing, however, they felt that some extraordinary body was needed to coordinate the efforts of these agencies.⁵ The recommendations of the fact-finding committee were adopted by the board of directors of the Chamber of Commerce and subsequently won the approval of the other agencies involved. The fact-finders proposed that the committee be made up of one representative each from the Community Fund, the Chamber of Commerce, the city administration, and the county commissioners, with the fifth member to be selected by the other four.⁶

The five Tulsans thus entrusted with the power of control over the activities of the city's charitable agencies in their campaigns to reduce unemployment were Ernest Cornelius, president of the Oklahoma Steel Casting Company, and chairman of the committee, H. O. McClure, president of the Tulsa Industrial Finance Corporation, Major John Leavell, president of the Leavell Coal Company, Harry Schwartz, president of the Tulsa Labor Council, and municipal judge G. Ed Warren. Cornelius was appointed by the Community Fund and as its representative, McClure represented the Chamber of Commerce, Leavell was the delegate of the city administration, Schwartz was named by the county commissioners, and Warren was chosen by the other four.⁷

The Committee of Five decreed that as a general rule charity was to be confined to aged or infirm men and women and to families without adult

⁵Report of the Fact-Finding Committee, Tulsa Chamber of Commerce, October, 1931, p. 2.

⁶Ibid., p. 3.

⁷Tulsa Spirit, October 16, 1931, p. 6.

ale members. Before giving any charity, the agency concerned should obtain proper information as to the applicant's needs. The committee insisted upon absolute impartiality in the giving of both charity and employment. The sole test was to be the relief need of a legal resident of Tulsa.⁸

The Community Fund was ordered by the Committee of Five to prevent any unnecessary duplication in the work of its participating agencies. The committee announced its intention to appraise all other agencies doing relief work, and require inefficient agencies to discontinue operations in order that there might be no waste of funds. The committee gave the Social Service Bureau the task of passing on all cases of approved agencies doing relief work. All agencies were required to present their cases to the Bureau for clearance. Failure to do this was grounds for disapproval of the agency. In order to insure a fair distribution of combined relief through charity and employment, the central committee required coordination between the unemployment registration lists and the lists of the Social Service Bureau.⁹

One of the first acts of the Central Emergency Committee of Five, prompted by public protests, was to attempt to bring "panhandling" to an end in Tulsa. The committee established a community rooming house to care for all transients and emergency cases. The committee also authorized the establishment of the city's first overnight home for Negro men.¹⁰ During the winter of 1931-32 the rooming house fed approximately 200 men

⁸(Tulsa) General Order Number One, Central Emergency Committee of Five, October 25, 1931, p. 1.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Tulsa Tribune, December 8, 1931, p. 2.

ly, and provided 125 beds nightly, but panhandling did not cease.

In its recommendation that a committee of five be established in
 sa the fact-finding committee of the Chamber of Commerce had declared:
 suggest to the committee of five that it give earnest consideration
 the suggested means of providing revenue as well as to any other sug-
 tions that may be advanced, and arrange to make effective the means
 eed upon with the least possible delay."¹¹ During the summer of 1931
 h thought had been given by Tulsans to special plans for effecting re-
 f during the winter to follow. Although the city administration re-
 tedly expressed its desire that the made-work program be renewed, there
 e many who did not agree that it should. Some Tulsans were of the
 nion that the relief burden from a financial point of view could be
 sened by a switch to direct relief.

M. C. Hale, a Tulsa hardware dealer, was one of several citizens to
 propose agrarian-flavored alternative plans. Hale advocated a program
 whereby, he said, more than 10,000 could be fed at a cost not to exceed
 1,000. Maintaining that the county would, in any event, appropriate
 re than \$40,000 for relief, he suggested that this amount be used to
 r foods wholesale and 2,500 families of four persons each fed substantial
 ions for a five month period.¹² His plan included as a daily ration
 : a family of four: two pounds of Irish potatoes, one pound of sweet
 :atoes, one loaf of whole wheat bread, one pound of corn meal, one pound
 .t pork, one-third pound of beans or peas, one quart of skim milk, one-
 irth pint of sorghum, and one-fourth pound of lard. All of the supplies

¹¹Report of the Fact-Finding Committee, Tulsa Chamber of Commerce,
 ober, 1931, p. 3.

¹²"The Hale Plan," Relief Plans Under Consideration, Central Emergency
 ommittee of Five, p. 1.

ould be bought from farmers of the Tulsa area except the wheat, which ould be obtained through the Federal Farm Board at no cost to the com-
 munity under the plan whereby the Board would release the wheat on a credit
 p to be later cancelled by Congress. Wheat and corn could be ground
 ally, Hale contended, thereby saving the cost of regularly milled flour
 l meal. Hale even offered to donate the mill and corn shellers for the
 k.¹³

A plan proposed a short time later would have taken advantage of some
 ential provisions of the Hale plan, but would have continued the city's
 sting work relief program. This plan suggested that several carloads
 wheat, which could be purchased in the western part of the state at an
 remely low price, be obtained with charity funds. This wheat could be
 pped to small mills around Tulsa where it could be ground into graham
 ur at small cost and turned over to the central commissary. Corn could
 provided for the commissary in the same fashion. Heavy hogs, which
 e not bringing top price on the market, could be bought, and slaughtered.
 weet potato curing plant could also be established.¹⁴

Arthur F. Antle, pioneer Tulsa cattleman, proposed that the city
 evelop a cooperative farm where unemployed men might work to provide
 d for their families. It was suggested that Tulsa acquire a tract of
 d, possibly eighty acres in size, for this purpose. The plan included
 : construction of a canning factory, which would, Antle maintained, make
 possible not only to preserve the products of the farm but to secure
 ations of food and vegetables which might be canned and distributed.¹⁵

¹³"The Hale Plan," Relief Plans Under Construction, Central Emergency
 mittee of Five, p. 2.

¹⁴"The Grain Plan," Ibid., p. 1.

¹⁵"The Antle Plan," Ibid., p. 1.

A fourth plan proposed was to create a committee composed of representatives of all agencies for relief to buy food supplies direct from producers in the area around Tulsa. The object was to eliminate the profits of the middleman in supplying the needy of Tulsa. The plan would be taken advantage of the surplus of vegetable and fruit products, thereby making savings possible, and at the same time aiding Oklahoma's farmers.¹⁶ While none of these plans was ever adopted completely or even in large part, common elements of all became essential ingredients in the manner in which the committee of five and the city handled relief work the following winter.

Mayor George L. Watkins, searching for a way in which to continue the city's made-work program of the previous year, came up with a novel plan to finance. In 1929 the city and county had collected \$900,000 in taxes illegally since some of their levies were subsequently held invalid. The money was impounded in the city treasurer's office for return to the taxpayers. Watkins proposed that every taxpayer give all or a part of the refund, which he had not expected to get back in the first place, to a program of public works.¹⁷ He pointed to the severity of the situation:

The job of taking care of the relief and unemployment problem in Tulsa will be two or three times as great as last winter. Many of the contributors to the Mayor's scrip plan last year are themselves out of work this fall. I believe that \$250,000 will be needed for a work program and that we can get it from this refund.¹⁸

The mayor suggested that a reservoir which would be needed in a year or so anyway be immediately constructed in Mohawk park with hand labor, and

¹⁶"The Central Purchasing Plan," Relief Plans Under Consideration, Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 1.

¹⁷"The Mayor's Plan," Ibid., p. 1.

¹⁸Tulsa Tribune, September 18, 1931, p. 2.

t park and playground improvements be made in the same way.¹⁹

The plan had been suggested to the mayor by R. Letcher McKee, president of the Tulsa Taxpayers Association. McKee called attention to the fact that a small group of taxpayers had initiated the protest action and fought it through the district and supreme courts at heavy expense to themselves. Obviously, McKee pointed out, these taxpayers should not be asked to make the same gifts from their net refunds as should the taxpayers who profited without expenses.²⁰ Others also referred to their special situations. A representative of the Public Service Company said that the ownership and management of rental property constituted the sole business income of many people in Tulsa and that these individuals and firms should not give the same proportion of their refunds to the common fund as should the individual whose property ownership and tax refund was incidental to his income from another source.²¹ Some were outright opposed to the plan. One very aroused individual said that he would do the winter's work taxation, "unescapable taxation on oil companies for example who have never built a thing here but have made millions out of Oklahoma's soil, as non-resident landlords."²²

Not only did the means draw criticism, the end did also. It was pointed out that by creating a made-work program only part of the community's responsibility was met. "What about the women who are heads of families?" asked one man. "And the orphaned children?" He made it clear that it was his belief that the city must provide a large fund that winter

¹⁹"The Mayor's Plan," p. 2.

²⁰Tulsa Tribune, October 1, 1931, p. 4.

²¹Ibid.

²²Ibid.

r charity to be administered to hundreds who were unable to participate in any made-work program.²³ Another individual understood that Governor Murray had the relief and charity problems all worked out, and is not sure that the city needed to plan a substantial work program. In the city, he felt, though should have a campaign for charity funds, "just be sure that no one starved."²⁴ There were some Tulsans who anticipated that wholesale starvation was just what could be expected if things were left for the state's governor to settle.

M. C. Williams, southwest regional director for President Hoover's employment committee, advised the city to forego its system of made-work in favor of a system of direct taxation. Made-work was not satisfactory because of the cause the worker:

...knows it is just a guise for charity and those who really want to work for whatever they receive resent such a make-shift. Made-work is expensive, and in the long run it is cheaper to pay off than to resort to such practices.²⁵

The trend is toward direct taxation to finance work relief:

About 75 per cent of the help given last year for relief was through tax supported funds. More and more cities are realizing that this is the logical way to handle their problems. It is too late for Tulsa to adopt this method this year, but you should begin planning for next year. Study the records of the cities that have this form of taxation and you will find that it is more satisfactory than the voluntary donation plan.²⁶

Mayor Watkins, however, explained that the city was going ahead with its plans to provide work relief on the theory that there was a distinct difference between it and charity. By providing work for the unemployed,

²³Tulsa Tribune, October 1, 1931, p. 4.

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Tulsa World, October 5, 1931, p. 2.

²⁶Ibid.

e mayor contended, the number of calls for charity are lessened.²⁷ A.

Sweeney, Independent party leader, representing Governor Murray's unemployment committee at the meeting, took exception to some of the suggestions made by Williams. He remarked that the president's committee was just a "fifth wheel," and maintained that the federal authorities were just "passing the buck" with their suggestions.²⁸

A. L. Farmer, chairman of the Chamber of Commerce's fact-finding committee, proposed the raising of water rates to provide funds for charity. If the water rates were raised fifty per cent, he foresaw an additional \$50,000 income which could be used for charity work.²⁹ It was the belief of the city administration, however, that such an increase for charity purposes would be illegal since state law required that appropriations for any purpose be based upon an amount no higher than the previous year's income.³⁰ It was also pointed out that such an increase would over-burden the large industries and the small home owner. The large industries were already paying the largest water bills anyway, it was said, and with business conditions like they were, they could not afford to have their expenses increased. The "little man" generally would be a poor source because the water department was already carrying hundreds of them who could not afford the existing rates.³¹

Soon after its creation the Committee of Five declared itself to be in favor of a system of made-work for the city. The committee urged,

²⁷ Tulsa World, October 5, 1931, p. 2.

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ "The Water Bill Plan," Relief Plans Under Consideration, Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 1.

³⁰ Tulsa Tribune, September 25, 1931, p. 3.

³¹ Ibid.

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wever, that such a project be financed so as not to interfere with the using of the Community Fund, which had to be done by public donations. The committee rejected the mayor's tax donation scheme because it could not be "ascertained in advance that a substantial sum of money, say \$100,000 to \$300,000 could be accumulated from tax refunds..."³² The committee directed the sub-committee on made-work which it created to seek ways to meet two principal requirements:

First, the made-work program must return physical good to the community. Second, the work must be done almost exclusively by hand labor instead of by machine.³³

The sub-committee's first task was to work out such a plan for the city.

Local authorities, on the suggestion of the subcommittee on made-work, asked the County Excise Board for a readjustment of the city water department's budget for permanent improvements. In this way \$100,000 would be provided for an additional reservoir at Mohawk Park. The reservoir was to be constructed with hand labor as a made-work project. City officials agreed to provide trained superintendents for this project so that no big salaries would have to be paid from made-work funds.³⁴ Mayor Watkins was authorized by the city commission to receive oral bids from hardware merchants on 100 wheel barrows, 200 long handled shovels, 12 axes and 36 picks for carrying out the project by hand labor.³⁵ There was a real need of the reservoir aside from that brought by unemployment. It

³²(Tulsa) Report of the Central Emergency Committee of Five, October 15, 1931, p. 1.

³³(Tulsa) "Appointment of the Subcommittee on Made-Work," Minutes of the Committee of Five, October 15, 1931, p. 1.

³⁴(Tulsa) Report of the Subcommittee on Made-Work, Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 1.

³⁵Ibid.

s expected to provide a volume of water storage sufficient to tide the city over a maximum period of high consumption in time of drought

City officials proposed that the task of employing men on the project left to the special made-work subcommittee of the Committee of Five. The subcommittee announced its intention of using the lists of the mayor's committee on unemployment and the governor's unemployment committee as a basis for its direction and coordination of the work relief. But the subcommittee asked the mayor's committee to continue to handle the registration and assignment of jobs.³⁶

Mayor Watkins, representing the city, and Mrs. Redmond S. Cole, representing the Governor, had cooperated in the registration of the unemployed. Their intention had been to collect the names of all unemployed persons in the city as well as other information about each of them. This information was placed in a central file, to which every approved relief agency was given access. The cards were classified as to the type of work in which the applicant had experience, the type of case he represented, and whether man or woman.³⁷ After the central file was assembled, those cards coming under the classification of city employment, carrying the names of those persons seeking jobs under the city's made-work program, were turned over to the mayor's committee for the task of job assignment.

Registration had moved slowly. The larger group of the unemployed was made up of office or white collar workers and office girls, and they saw nothing in particular for them in the proposed made-work program of the city. They, therefore, were slow to confess their situation. Some had political reasons for failing to register. With Governor Murray's

³⁶(Tulsa) Report of the Subcommittee on Made-Work, Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 1.

³⁷Tulsa Spirit, September 21, 1931, p. 10.

committee in Tulsa beginning work on relief plans at the same time that Mayor Watkins was meeting with civic leaders to discuss plans for solving winter problems, Johnson D. Hill, president of the Community Fund, sounded warning against scattered effort. He made a sharp appeal for coordinated and consolidated planning before the situation got out of hand. Hill was highly critical of the governor's committee:

The governor seems to have set up an organization in Tulsa ostensibly to compete with whatever machinery is set up by the citizenry. Unless the object of the governor is to have representatives who will cooperate 100% with our regular machinery, I think most any person familiar with the situation would call his action ridiculous. Furthermore, the net result would be to destroy the coordination that we have thought to be so imperative at this time.³⁸

Obviously Hill had in mind not only past differences with the Governor, but also other current endeavors, not the work being done by Mrs. Cole in conjunction with Mayor Watkins. The statement, however, seemed to strengthen the conviction of some that anything connected with Murray had overtones of political "spoils." This led S. J. Hales, chairman of the governor's unemployment committee in Tulsa, to remark:

This movement is distinctly non-partisan, even though it has been sponsored by the governor. Gossip has it that this is a political set-up and for that reason many have refrained from registering. This is an error. Republicans, Democrats, Socialists or whatever their political alignments, will receive due courtesy in registering and equal consideration to /for?/ jobs.³⁹

The special made-work committee had concluded that more than \$1,000,000 in pay rolls would be necessary to provide a twenty-week program of work relief for the city's 8,000 registered unemployed. Since it was not

³⁸Tulsa World, September 27, 1931, p. 2.

³⁹Tulsa Tribune, September 30, 1931, p. 4.

possible to obtain this amount from city and county governments, the rest the relief would have to be provided by means of jobs given to those employed by private citizens who had something that needed to be done. Tulsa homeowners were therefore asked to provide made-work projects about their homes. It was hoped that thousands of persons would thus be aided even though their services would be needed for only one day.⁴⁰

The club women of Tulsa were asked to provide at least one day of employment per week for one of the 1,500 unemployed women of the city. The emergency employment sub-committee of the Committee of Five issued the following appeal to Tulsa club women:

There are 1,500 women looking for work--women trying to keep their children in school, women working to save their homes and families, women with no one to turn to, no men to share their burden, women without food and children without food, women cold, hungry, and discouraged!

Pledge one day of work a week, every two weeks, or once a week to some woman. Join the club women's honor roll!⁴¹

A plan to create jobs for the unemployed in support of the made-work appeal was adopted by the city street department. Department employees donated nine per cent of their salaries to a relief fund. Mechanical street sweepers and other men-displacing equipment were taken off and the men put to work. Work was given to fifty men, all heads of families. Half of these men worked the first three days of the week, and half worked the last three days. Men employed under this plan worked just as hard as the regular employees and received just as much pay.⁴²

The Central Emergency Committee of Five gave its approval to the

⁴⁰Report of the Subcommittee on Made-Work, Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 2.

⁴¹Ibid., pp. 2-3.

⁴²Tulsa Tribune, December 17, 1931, p. 5.

commissary which the city had operated in the previous winter. The committee declared, however, that it was well aware of the fact that such a commissary interfered with free enterprise capitalism, and emphasized that its operation should end simultaneously with the end of the emergency.⁴³ Meanwhile, competition with privately owned stores would be eliminated by accepting only scrip, as in the past, for merchandise. In addition, provided that price and quality were equal, local products were to be used in order that producers in the Tulsa territory might have an outlet for some of their surplus.⁴⁴ The commissary was to be made available not only to the city's program, but for the programs of the state, county and all other relief agencies as well. The purpose of the commissary was to provide a central purchasing agency for food and clothing, and thereby eliminate piecemeal buying. The advantages, it was hoped, would be increased buying power with lower costs and therefore larger parity dollars.⁴⁵

The commissary was to be under the supervision of the Committee of Five. It would operate as a clearing house for the scrip that came in, using the money to buy supplies. The minimum stock compatible with a balanced diet was to be carried. A revolving fund was established for the operation of the commissary, and a strict accounting was kept of all expenditures. Any contracts made on behalf of the commissary's operation would require the approval of the committee. All purchases were to be for cash.⁴⁶

⁴³"The Leavell Commissary Plan," Special Report of the Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 1.

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵Ibid.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 2.

A ration plan for the distribution of food through the commissary was originated by committee member Major John Leavell. It was based upon a ration system used by his regiment during World War I. Whereas previously relief recipients had been given the choice of purchasing what they wished from the commissary's stock, they now purchased the special ration developed by Leavell. While a few objected to this control over their food, most were glad to find that it was cheaper and that they therefore had additional funds with which to purchase clothing. Since the value of the ration, especially the children's ration, depended largely on the manner in which food was prepared, a cooking school was established in the front of the commissary. Public health nurses prepared special rations for malnourished indigent individuals.⁴⁷

The average cost of a weekly food ration was forty-two cents.⁴⁸ Major Leavell submitted a synopsis of the rations being distributed by the commissary to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology for a check on their food values. An analysis of the Tulsa ration revealed that it contained 2800 calories. The Institute had previously determined that 2000 calories was ample for the normal man.⁴⁹ Leavell maintained that the food value of the ration exceeded that of the "two star" ration approved by the Department of Agriculture by several thousand calories weekly.⁵⁰ He tried out each new item on his family. Records were cited by Leavell to show that persons dependent upon the ration had "a better

⁴⁷"The Leavell Commissary Plan," Special Report of the Central Emergency Committee of Five, p. 2.

⁴⁸Ibid., p. 5.

⁴⁹Harlow's Weekly, November 12, 1931, p. 8.

⁵⁰New York Times, April 25, 1932, p. 3.

alth status than those of the city at large of 150,000 population."⁵¹

At one point accusations were directed at the commissary that it had sued spoiled food. An investigation revealed, however, that there were ly two articles in the ration which could go bad--cabbage and meat. rst quality cabbage was purchased, and it was never allowed to remain the commissary for more than forty-eight hours. Beeves were delivered e at a time by the packing house and immediately placed in a large well-ed refrigerator and kept there at all times. No meat was ever allowed remain in the commissary for more than twenty-four hours.⁵²

The magnitude of the business transacted under this commissary plan best illustrated by the following chart which summarizes the food and othing distributed during one typical week:⁵³

FOOD

Flour.....	16,079	Sugar.....	3,487.5
Oats.....	2,033.5	Turnips.....	9,276
Beans.....	11,082	Cabbage.....	4,638
Lard.....	3,487.5	Carrots.....	3,500
Potatoes.....	13,025	Peanut Butter.....	3,176
Sausage.....	11,565	Cocoa.....	2,314
Powdered Milk.....	8,472.5	Tomatoes.....	1,924
Salt pork.....	1,954	Grapefruit.....	2,425
Soap.....	4,731	Cod Liver Oil.....	2.5
Soda.....	520		

All items in pounds except soap in bars, peanut butter
in large jars, and cod liver oil in gallons

CLOTHING

Shoes.....	3,000	Underwear.....	1,560
Stockings.....	2,400	Overalls.....	1,540

⁵¹New York Times, April 25, 1932, p. 3.

⁵²Tulsa Tribune, March 17, 1932, p. 3.

⁵³"Weekly Report of the Commissary Subcommittee, December 8, 1931,"
Central Emergency Committee of Five Report, p. 7.

The Tulsa commissary attracted international attention. Letters were received from such varied places as Washington, D. C., Elyria, Ohio, and Warren, Missouri asking for complete details about the ration system. At least one eastern industrial organization sent a representative to study the plan. Requests for copies of a pamphlet explaining the plan, which was published after a time, came from twelve foreign countries, including Johannesburg in the Union of South Africa.⁵⁴

The commissary plan was later adopted by the state of Pennsylvania as a part of its official relief plan.⁵⁵ Major Leavell was called to Harrisburg in September, 1932, by Governor Gifford Pinchot to explain the system. A legislative committee, the governor's cabinet, the attorney general's office, welfare heads of the state, Professor H. C. Sherman, a nutritionist from Columbia University, public health workers, and corporation heads approved the plan before it was adopted for state wide use.⁵⁶

The activities of the Central Emergency Committee of Five during late 1931 and 1932 marked the high point of relief administration in Tulsa. The committee's commissary plan attained international recognition. Welfare agencies were brought into closer unity. Relief organizations attained respect. There was one vital problem, however, with which the committee could not cope, and this was the all-important problem of finances. On the other front, the endeavor to force the public body charged by law with responsibility for relief to live up to its duty had been largely

⁵⁴Harlow's Weekly, January 19, 1932, p. 9.

⁵⁵For an extremely interesting account of the controversy which the Leavell plan later aroused in Pennsylvania, see: Arthur Dunham, "Pennsylvania and Unemployment Relief," Social Service Review, VIII (June, 1934), pp. 246-8.

⁵⁶Tulsa Tribune, September 15, 1932, p. 4.

successful. Even the finest of programs could not operate without
ances. By the late spring of 1932, therefore, the city's commissary
d been closed, its made-work program had ceased, and the committee of
ve had formally terminated its own existence.

CHAPTER V

THE ORIGINS OF FEDERAL AID

Tulsa was facing in the fall of 1932 its most severe winter of unemployment yet. Its early efforts to combat the complications of the depression had been far from satisfactory. The county had persistently refused to provide as much relief for the indigent as its critics thought as necessary. This reluctance of the county had rendered more pronounced the normal philosophical frictions between public and private charity. These conflicts had nullified, or at least interfered heavily with, efforts to centralize relief administration. Even when consolidation had been achieved, as in the case of the Committee of Five, the activities of the bodies thus created were troubled by inability to obtain theoretical criteria acceptable to all. And, even on matters upon which agreement could be reached, the consolidated effort was soon brought to an end by the exhaustion of finances.

As early as February of 1932 the reservoir made-work program initiated by the city and approved by the new committee of five had of necessity been halted, for funds were totally depleted.¹ With 11,675 registered unemployed in Tulsa, an organized spring clean-up, paint and repair campaign had been launched. It was designed to serve the double purpose of beautify

¹Tulsa's water department officials later declared that it was impossible to make profitable use of the extra reservoir at Mohawk Park in which over \$40,000 had been invested. A private contractor, would not accept the work done for nearly the amount spent: Tulsa World, June 11, 1932, . 7.

the city, and supplying work for the unemployed. City officials were hopeful that every person on the lists might benefit, at least through part-time work. Fifteen thousand women answered the call to canvass house-to-house in order to induce every property owner in the city to carry out improvements that would mean jobs for the unemployed.²

This program had been largely unsuccessful. Its meager results are not surprising in view of the mass of destitution in the city. Efforts in this direction were gradually relaxed until finally the whole problem came back with those administering direct relief. When in the late summer of 1932 the county had refused to heed the pleas and threats of the relief agencies for more funds, a temporary program, as mentioned before, had been inaugurated by the city. All city employees and a number of county employees had contributed a portion of their salaries to charity on a fixed percentage basis. A mayor's committee had called upon business firms of the city in an attempt to gain donations on a salary percentage basis in order to help finance the distribution of food to the needy. The idea was to get officials and private enterprise to give a portion of their salaries as local governmental employees were doing.³ The committee had fared very poorly.

A city-wide distribution of food was started at six district commissaries under the direction of Captain Raymond Granger and volunteer city firemen.⁴ Only those persons registered, checked against Community Fund or Red Cross records, and investigated by city firemen, were given food.

²Tulsa Tribune, February 26, 1932, p. 2.

³Tulsa World, September 1, 1932, p. 3.

⁴Tulsa Tribune, August 23, 1932, p. 1.

each sacked ration was designed as a week's supply of food for a family.⁵ The Tulsa Immediate Relief Association cooperated with the firemen by collecting two truckloads of vegetables and produce from generous farmers. Five weeks after the commissaries were opened eighty-six thousand pounds of food products had been purchased and distributed at a cost of \$2,928.88. The average cost per family was 45 cents, and the average cost per person was nine cents.⁶ Five hundred families were served with food on August 22, the first day the commissaries were opened.⁷ This number had increased by an average of approximately 400 families per week. On September 8, families numbering 2,023 were served.⁸ In all an estimated 32,475 persons obtained food through these commissaries while they were operated by the city firemen.⁹

In the meantime, since early May, city officials had been striving to get another made-work program into operation. In 1930 a \$3,000,000 bond issue had been floated for municipal improvements. More than \$1,300,000 of these bonds had never been sold. City authorities proposed now that \$500,000 or more of these bonds be cancelled, and a new bond issue ranging in size from \$250,000 to \$500,000 recommended.¹⁰ City authorities were hopeful that sale could be made to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, which, it had been announced, was to have a fund of

⁵Tulsa Tribune, August 23, 1932, p. 1.

⁶Ibid., September 9, 1932, p. 2.

⁷Ibid., August 23, 1932, p. 1.

⁸Tulsa World, September 9, 1932, p. 3.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Harlow's Weekly, May 15, 1932, p. 8.

re than \$300,000,000 for federal loans to municipalities and states on self-liquidating construction projects. If an agreement could not be reached with RFC administrators, the plan was to sell the bonds locally in small denominations.¹¹

Robert W. Kelso, regional representative of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, instructed delegates of the city, county, and Community Fund to prepare immediately a report of the charity needs, particularly among the unemployed, for the rest of the year. The report was also to include a monthly expenditure record for the years 1931 and 1932 through the various agencies. If any funds were obtained, they were to go toward unemployment relief in the main, although some, it was thought, might be used to take care of the more serious cases where outright relief was needed.¹²

The plan had plenty of local opposition. Some expressed the view that insurmountable obstacles might be encountered in the sale of bonds by either method. One doubted that made-work was worthwhile, stating that men unfit for labor would be engaged and that the slow ones would set the pace for the whole crew.¹³ One did not believe that the city should sell any more bonds for any purpose. He deplored the action of Congress in passing what he called a "grab bag relief bill."¹⁴

The Reconstruction Finance Corporation failed to make a positive reply to the Tulsa request that it purchase its bonds. The Tulsa city attorney expressed disappointment over the apparent failure to make progress in

¹¹Tulsa Tribune, May 15, 1932, p. 1.

¹²Tulsa World, September 19, 1932, p. 2.

¹³Tulsa Tribune, May 16, 1932, p. 3.

¹⁴Ibid.

gotiating with the RFC, declaring that "the more correspondence we had with them the farther away they got from the object in mind."¹⁵ In the face of its failure to obtain the cooperation of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, the city commission asked the legal department to prepare an advertising notice to bidders on \$150,000 in park bonds as a step toward public sale of the bonds. It was hoped to sell the bonds to individual citizens, banks and businesses on a patriotic basis, with the bonds being issued in the amounts of \$50, \$100, \$500, and \$1000.¹⁶ Tulsans who could afford the investment would be asked to buy one or more of the security certificates, which they could later sell at par plus accrued interest provided the market for municipal securities ever improved.¹⁷

In the preparation of the advertising notice, however, it was discovered that the ordinance authorizing the 1930 election at which the bonds had been voted, had fixed their denominations at \$1,000, while the city in its plans had proposed to sell them in amounts as low as \$50 to individual citizens.¹⁸ Thereby frustrated in both of its bond sale proposals, the city commissioners turned to the state. The commissioners requested an apportionment of \$500,000 to the Tulsa county from relief funds made available to Oklahoma through the RFC. The resolution directed to Governor William H. Murray called attention to the need of finances for a relief-work program and for general relief.¹⁹

¹⁵Tulsa World, October 4, 1932, p. 2.

¹⁶Tulsa Tribune, October 10, 1932, p. 2.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Tulsa World, October 14, 1932, p. 3.

¹⁹Tulsa Tribune, October 18, 1932, p. 1.

In late October, 1932, Tulsa received \$146,000 for relief purposes from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation via Governor Murray. All of this fund was designated to go for the payment of labor on made-work projects. These projects included a recreation lake in the northeast part of Mohawk Park, water line extensions and the clearing of timber for a new golf course in the park.²⁰ A central employment registration headquarters was set up and 1,000 heads of families put to work, most of them on the lake project. Shifts of 500 men were used, giving each shift three days of work weekly. The purpose of alternating the shifts was to enable each man on the job to receive a minimum of \$7.20 for three eight hour days each week. The standard wage was \$2.40 per day, while fifteen cents an hour was paid for teams and five cents an hour for wagons and similar equipment.²¹ A national guard rolling kitchen was procured on order of Governor Murray from Oklahoma City, pots and pans were gathered, and the men were fed on the spot.²² Unemployment registration for the county reached 13,000, including 706 widows.²³

At the same time, women were given work in town. More than one hundred women whose families were in need were employed in sewing rooms renovating clothing for the needy. The Community Fund provided these women with a daily lunch, and they were paid on an hourly basis from Reconstruction Finance Corporation funds. Two hundred and ninety-six girls, registered with the Community Fund, were given work in connection with charities and public service. Most of them had stenographic or clerical

²⁰Tulsa Tribune, October 26, 1932, p. 1.

²¹Tulsa World, October 30, 1932, p. 2.

²²Tulsa Tribune, November 23, 1932, p. 13.

²³Ibid., November 8, 1932, p. 11.

aining and were given part-time work in charity and relief offices. Clothing classes in the Tulsa senior and junior high schools completed 2,284 garments for needy students from cloth furnished by the Red Cross. Distribution was made through the Parent Teacher Association and the Attendance and Guidance Department of the schools. Supervisors reported that students who received garments showed a change of attitude and often were eager to attend school once they were adequately clothed. Robert also, Reconstruction Finance Corporation representative on a tour of the Southwest, praised the Tulsa sewing rooms and other ladies' programs as the most effectively planned that he had seen.²⁴

As far as the common man was concerned, federal aid made its triumphant entry into Tulsa on Tuesday, November 29. This was the day when first checks were issued for employment on the made-work projects. The pay was to men employed in the first three-day shift from November 14 through November 16. The total payroll amounted to \$4,700.00, with the individual checks usually being \$9.60.²⁵ This was the first pay that many of these men had received in months. Since most of them had been on the Community and charity rolls, their general attitude now showed that they were glad to be, to a degree, self-supporting again.²⁶ Men took their turns passing through a basement hall to a desk where E. B. Howard, Tulsa county made-work administrator, sat with the checks already made out. A conversation cited by the local press which took place between two men in the line was considered typical. Both were middle-aged, both clad in over-alls:

²⁴Harlow's Weekly, December 11, 1932, p. 8.

²⁵Tulsa Tribune, November 27, 1932, p. 1.

²⁶Ibid., November 29, 1932, p. 3.

'I don't have much coming, but I'll tell you, it looks big to me,' said one. 'I've got three children. It's been so long since we've had any money, I won't know how to count it.

'Me too,' rejoined the other. 'I've got six kids.'²⁷

Others among the Tulsa populace were just as happy over the payment of these men, particularly those to whom the unemployed men owed money for goods and services. These men were, as a matter of fact, so happy that they could not resist going down to the Community Fund building to extend congratulations. Of course, once felicitations had been proffered they had to have something to talk about, and what better subject of conversation was there than past due bills. The attempts of creditors to obtain payments of old accounts from men and women barely able to meet immediate needs with their made-work checks became so insistent, in fact, that relief administrator Howard declared the Community Fund building off-limits to bill collectors on pay day. Howard declared:

The made-work program was created to provide enough funds for the unemployed to keep body and soul together. Under the present rule laid down by Governor Murray, each person may receive only four days pay a month, which gives them \$9.60, and that is barely enough to cover the cost of food. I have informed merchants that no check assignments would be honored by my office and that goes for all other creditors.²⁸

Winter crept in as the made-work program continued. Since the site of major activity was eight miles from town, and since most of the men employed had no means of transportation, the cold weather presented even graver problems than normal. In an attempt to cope with this problem, Howard appealed to Tulsa businessmen to loan trucks for the hauling of men to work. The appeal went largely unanswered. In fact, only one "ill-used"

²⁷Tulsa Tribune, November 29, 1932, p. 3.

²⁸Ibid., December 9, 1932, p. 4.

ld flat-bed vehicle was delivered. This situation provoked an incident which indicates the basic attitudes of the unemployed. It snowed heavily in Tulsa on December 14. It had become established procedure for the trade-work officials to publish in the local papers a list of names of persons on the unemployed registration lists they wanted to report to work the next day. Promised jobs cutting wood for charity fuel if they could bring tools for work, 400 men, properly equipped, trudged to the Community Fund building on the morning of December 15. There they found only the battered flat-bed available for transportation. Two hundred and twenty were carried to work by the available truck. All others faced the alternative of losing a day, or walking the distance through the snow. Unanimously they volunteered to walk:

Over the shoulders of this straggling army were swung its instruments of war--axes and saws--as it munched through the business district and out North Main Street to Mohawk Boulevard, thence to the scene of the Bird Creek timber clearing project.

They sang, joked, wise-cracked, and war-hooped as they trudged along, a hodge-podge of humanity, some poorly dressed, but back of everything determined. Half were Negroes. They formed a line to string out for the long stretch along Mohawk Boulevard.²⁹

Thus the unemployed in Tulsa, far from being revolutionary or subject to radical agitation, were instead unfortunate people thoroughly dedicated to the root principles of capitalism. They demanded little from the government, and what they received, while they accepted it gratefully, they received it with no little bit of shame. Perhaps, as some historians believe, the impending New Deal eventually saved the United States from revolution. Tulsans, however, were in no such immediate danger.

By the end of 1932, indeed, the national government had begun to

²⁹Tulsa Tribune, December 15, 1932, p. 13.

ffect Tulsa's relief policies. The Reconstruction Finance Corporation, the first of many federal agencies, had achieved substantial improvement of local relief organization by insisting that a proper administrative unit be set up to distribute federal funds. It also had hastened the provision of increased state aid through its reiteration that federal grants were available only to supplement fully utilized local and state resources.

CHAPTER VI

ORGANIZATION AMONG THE UNEMPLOYED

One phase of prominence in the Tulsa depression narrative concerns the evolution of organized groups among the unemployed. Animated by their dissatisfaction with some aspect of the local relief set-up, neighborhood groups would drift into informal association. The degree of cohesiveness and degree of expansion that each of these organizations attained normally depended upon the dynamics of its leadership. Sometimes they developed a city wide membership, but in most cases the element of interest restricted membership to the original participants. Although the combined memberships of these organizations never totaled more than a very small proportion of the city's unemployed population, they were extremely vocal, and in many instances their statements were accepted as the general sentiment of all those out of work. As a result, local authorities were instructed as to which of their practices were offensive to those dependent upon relief, and at the same time relief recipients were enabled to understand better just what the aims and limitations of relief administrators were. It is probably true, therefore, that these groups contributed significantly to the lessening of hostility between Tulsa's "haves" and "have nots" during the Great Depression, and possibly enabled the city to avoid the riotous manifestations of discontent that developed elsewhere.

Almost without exception these organizations took little time to formulate broad social reforms. They concentrated instead on immediate

ocal grievances. Ordinarily they presented their views through the medium of delegations to the city's relief bureaus. Occasionally one of these organizations did stage a mass demonstration. Judging from the times when such activity took place, however, they were not usually designed to force basic changes in the policy of social agencies.¹

Of all the organizations of the unemployed which developed in Tulsa, perhaps the most noteworthy, and certainly the most colorful, was the Independent Party. Organized in the autumn of 1930, it introduced itself to Tulsans with precision drills, described as "hunger marches," on downtown streets. This group was destined to have greater permanency than any other organization of the unemployed which appeared in Tulsa during the depression. It was not until late in 1932, after the Socialists had gained ascendancy within its ranks, that the party dissolved. Even then its leftist members reorganized as the Unemployment Citizens League.

As far as members of the Independent Party were concerned, the depression had been the inevitable result of the avarice of the economic elite. These men, the party believed, had been so possessed with accumulating vast wealth for themselves that they had neglected to return enough of it to the working class.² As a result, consumers were unable to buy their products, and depressed financial conditions had descended upon the entire nation.

¹The one such incident that took on a violent character occurred in October of 1930 when a minor labor disturbance erupted in the downtown district. A small group of Independent Party members thought that the labor being employed in demolishing a half-block of buildings on the site of a new federal building were out-of-towners. Six men were taken into custody and charged with conspiracy to assault government employees. Tulsa World, October 3, 1930, p. 26.

²Tulsa Unionist-Journal, October, 1931, p. 5.

Although a few radicals within the party, even in the earlier stages of its development, recommended government ownership of industry and a national unemployment insurance program, most members scorned the dole.³ During the 1931 party convention they stated with great conviction that: "No decent American wants anyone to give him anything. All he wants is a chance to work for it."⁴

In August of 1931, at the Unemployment Relief Conference in Memphis, Tennessee, the Independent Party called its big project to national attention. In preference to charity, the Independents advocated the pro-ration of employment, that is, the reduction of jobs to a half-time basis where feasible, and the recruitment of labor from the ranks of the unemployed to fill the remaining time. Most proponents of the proration of employment advocated a three or five day week. Not so with the Independents who preferred a five hour day. The Independents pictured the operation of a policy of proration as a "benevolent circle."⁵ Even though no more money would be paid out in wages, they calculated, more money would be spent by wage earners. Those unemployed would spend because they would be lifted out of the dependent class and would have the funds necessary to meet their essential needs. And those who already had jobs would spend because, even though their incomes would be decreased, they would have security in their jobs. As fear was lifted more goods would be bought, more orders given, more goods manufactured, better prices made possible, more jobs made available, higher wages would come, and more goods would be bought.

³Tulsa Tribune, September 8, 1931, p. 3.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

Governor William H. Murray of Oklahoma had summoned the relief conference to meet at Memphis. The research work carried out by Murray's Emergency Committee for Employment had convinced him that the unemployment problem was not one of Oklahoma alone. It was a problem, Murray believed, that no state could solve within itself without cooperation of the other states.⁶ Acting on this theory the Governor called a conference of the Mississippi basin states for the purpose of organizing a nationwide program to provide work for the unemployed. Requests were mailed to Congressmen, United States Senators, Governors and mayors of cities in basin states urging that they be represented by delegates at the Memphis conference.⁷

In preparing to attend the conference, Elmer Thomas, Oklahoma Senator, wrote to Independent Party officials in Tulsa requesting information about the proposals they had made for a local solution. The letter of reply offered these suggestions:

- To limit employment in each family to one person where feasible.
- To drop either man or wife where both are found working.
- To secure from city and county officials a half-time policy.
- To ask all ministers to devote time in the churches to securing an understanding of the unemployment needs.
- To provide a citizen's committee for prorating employment.⁸

Copies of the letter were also sent to Governor Gifford Pinchot of Pennsylvania, Governor Franklin D. Roosevelt of New York, and President Herbert Hoover.⁹

⁶State of Oklahoma, Annual Report of the Department of Labor. Bulletin number 10-A for the Fiscal Period ending June 30th, 1932. (Oklahoma City, the State of Oklahoma, 1932), p. 56.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Tulsa Tribune, August 27, 1931, p. 7.

⁹Ibid.

Urging the need for a rapid solution to the unemployment problem at about the same time, A. F. Sweeney, Independent Party leader, declared:

If employment is not forthcoming the dole will be. Odd jobs are not the answer to the problem facing Tulsa and the country, but instead every man must have a job for which he is fitted. The only solution is the pro-ratation of employment.¹⁰

The unemployment relief conference was called to order by United States Senator K. D. McKellar of Tennessee in the auditorium of the Grandbody Hotel at Memphis on August 24, 1931.¹¹ Colonel Clarence B. Douglas of Tulsa was elected temporary chairman.¹² Senator Thomas, representing, at least in part, the viewpoints of the Independent Party was named chairman of the committee on resolutions. At this time Thomas was probably the leading Congressional monetary reform strategist. He had received his political baptism in the campaigns of 1896 and 1900 as an ardent spokesman for the monetary doctrines of William Jennings Bryan.¹³ In 1923, after accumulating considerable wealth in legal work and land developments in Oklahoma, Thomas had gone to Congress for two terms in the House of Representatives. He had been elected to the Senate in 1926.¹⁴

¹⁰Tulsa Tribune, October 1, 1931, p. 5.

¹¹It looked for a time as though the Memphis Conference would be a total failure. An open breach developed between Murray and the Memphis Chamber of Commerce because of the alleged indifference of that organization toward the meeting. Harlow's Weekly, August 22, 1931, p. 13.

¹²Douglas is one of the most interesting figures of the early history of Tulsa. By profession a newspaperman, he had been appointed by Murray as a colonel of militia. Lyle H. Boren, Who is Who in Oklahoma, 1935. Guthrie: The Cooperative Publishing Company, 1935), p. 138.

¹³Joseph E. Reeve, Monetary Reform Movements. (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1943), p. 148.

¹⁴Official Congressional Directory, 74th Congress, 1st Session, 1935. (Washington, D.C., United States Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 93. See also: Rex Harlow, "Elmer Thomas," Oklahoma Leaders: Biographical Sketches of the Foremost Living Men of Oklahoma. (Oklahoma City: Harlow Publishing Company, 1938) pp. 294-304.

had filed, during his first session in Congress, a bill which would have ordered the issuance of enough Federal Reserve bank notes for complete payment of the bonus.¹⁵ In December of 1929, after the beginning of the depression, Thomas had proposed an unsuccessful amendment to the Hoover tax reduction bill which would have provided 160 million dollars for public works appropriations.¹⁶ And ever since he had continually fought for larger public works and relief appropriations, and for the checking of deflation by the Federal Reserve Board.¹⁷ This, indeed, was the weak champion who carried the standard for the Independent Party at the Memphis relief conference.

The resolutions adopted by the conference indicate the significant extent of the influence of Thomas, and therefore the far-reaching effect of the Independent Party's local stand. The delegates had nothing but condemnation for the dole; but, like Sweeney, they feared its eventual necessity:

We condemn the system of the "Dole" as being not only un-American but anti-American; but costly as such a system is and deadly as its aspects are upon the morale of our people, we believe that unless some other plan for the relief of the unemployment is devised and placed in practical operation the System of the Dole is inevitable.¹⁸

¹⁵Cf. H. R. 6813, 11070, 68th Congress; Congressional Record, LXV, 280, 6322; LXV, 2280, 6322; LXX, 3204-05; LXXI, 1793; U. S. Congress, House of Representatives, Committee on Ways and Means, Soldiers' Adjusted Compensation, Hearings, 68th Congress, 2nd Session, pp. 36-40.

¹⁶Congressional Record, LXXII, 654-60, 665.

¹⁷Ibid., LXXIII, 12399; LXXIV, 50, 194-197, 316, 4787-94; LXXV, 1194-910, 3915, 4024, 4025; S. Resolution 338, S. 5482, 71st Congress, 3rd Session; S. Resolution 182, 72nd Congress, 1st Session.

¹⁸State of Oklahoma, Annual Report of the Department of Labor, 1932, p. 8. It should be pointed out that Oklahoma's delegation had its way on most of the resolutions by virtue of the non-attendance of others invited. Less than half of the executives of the other states replied to the Murray invitation. Of those who replied none agreed to attend the meeting and only a few agreed to send a personal representative. Harlow's Weekly, August 22, 1931. p. 13.

As to the proration of employment Thomas drafted, with the approval of his fellow delegates, the following resolutions:

That all employers endeavor to add employees by shortening hours.

That rotation of labor and increase of number of shifts be utilized to spread employment.¹⁹

In an address before the gathering Thomas urged a special session of Congress. He could not believe, he declared, that a petition from the conference containing its representations and demands would be either ignored nor denied.

If the president can be convinced of the seriousness of this emergency, we have confidence he will take action and recommend measures which will bring relief to those for whom we presume to speak. The sole problem is to decide to do something and then to lose no time in getting the people to work.²⁰

Murray, however, opposed Thomas on the question of an extra session of Congress. To advocate such action, Murray pointed out, might be construed as a political move designed to embarrass President Hoover and the Republican Party generally.²¹

Enthused by the publicity given its plan of proration at Memphis, the Independent Party decided on an intensive campaign to get their plan adopted by the city of Tulsa. Their first move, however, was to seek consolation for the one defeat of Thomas at the conference. The party adopted resolutions only two weeks after the Tennessee meeting urging President Hoover to call a special session of Congress for the purpose of seeking a solution to the unemployment situation, and suggesting a national plan of proration. The resolutions held that immediate relief was the

¹⁹Ibid., p. 61.

²⁰Harlow's Weekly, August 29, 1931, p. 5.

²¹Ibid.

ed of the hour and called on federal, state, city and county authorities to join in a cooperative effort.²²

The party suggested that representatives of the unemployed, the city and county officials, the Chamber of Commerce and the Community Fund would work out a cooperative plan for instituting proration. An umpire would then be named by these delegates to inquire as to what employment is usable for proration, and to make a definite division of time where practicable.²³ The Independents further appointed a committee, headed by J. F. Sweeney, to call on every employer in the city to ask that employment be prorated. The committee was instructed to press particularly hard for the proration of city, county and school labor.

Neither public nor private enterprise, however, responded very well to these suggestions. Private business feared that additional expenses, perhaps even loss, would result from the adoption of such a policy. The proposals that two five hour shifts of labor be worked instead of one eight hour shift would mean that they would be forced to pay for two additional hours of work per day. The industrialists also envisioned greater costs in providing supervisory and clerical personnel for the extended hours of plant operation. Either they would have to keep regular supervisors and bookkeepers on for an extra two hours, which would necessitate the payment of overtime, or they would have to train new foremen and hire new clerks. Decreased profits for the industrial concerns, however, was not the only drawback. The job-sharing movement was also handicapped by the fact that some sixty-six per cent of Tulsa's manufacturing

²²Tulsa Tribune, September 8, 1931, p. 3.

²³Ibid.

cerns were already working on reduced schedules of less than forty hours per week.²⁴ These obviously could not be expected to divide their work among many more employees and still allow a living income for all.

The limits to public proration were also rigidly defined. In the case of state, county, and city construction work, the substitution of manual labor for machine labor, as proposed by the party, would have resulted in increased expenses, which public budgets would not allow. Such a policy, it was felt, might also result in considerable delay of the completion of public projects which were in vital need.²⁵ Mayor George Watkins, however, did order city officials to prorate jobs where possible, and called upon contractors of public projects to do likewise.²⁶ Some precedent existed for this partial response by Watkins to the demands of the Independents. In October, 1930, a delegation of the unemployed had presented a resolution to the Mayor:

...we, the undersigned committee representing the unemployed of the city, urgently request that you take official action upon the formal paragraph and order it to be made a part of all specifications on excavation work upon city contracts.²⁷

The paragraph which the unemployed wanted included in city contracts followed:

That portion of all excavations classified as earth of loose rock to a depth of six feet and a width of 12 feet six inches or less, shall be excavated without the

²⁴United States Department of Commerce, Industrial Employment Survey Bulletin. XI, Number 9 (September, 1931), p. 31.

²⁵Even economy could not sway the city administration. They turned down a proposal by the Independent Party that the city ask for alternate bids on public projects, one bid to be used on machine labor and the other on hand labor. Tulsa World, October 29, 1930, p. 2.

²⁶Ibid., October 1, 1931, p. 2.

²⁷Ibid., October 1930, p. 4.

use of power machinery, and the back filling of all excavations shall be done in a like manner.²⁸

The unemployed asked that this be done in order that "self-respecting men" would have an opportunity to earn a livelihood for themselves and their families rather than being "objects of charity."²⁹ The city had accepted his request at that time, but had maintained repeatedly that it had gone as far as it could go. In actuality local officials labeled most public projects "vital" and refused to go even this far.³⁰

The party was dissatisfied with the meager results of its first efforts on behalf of proration, and determined to keep the matter of half-time employment before the public and the various relief organizations until, as A. F. Sweeney emphatically declared, "something is done about it one way or the other."³¹ When Sweeney spoke, the public usually listened. He had become something of a legend in Tulsa for his determined endeavors on behalf of the "lost cause." He was sixty years old by this time and had gone through careers as newspaper man, merchant and real estate broker. He was aligned with the pro-Murray faction in Democratic county politics, being a member of the delegation to the state convention elected by the bolters from the Tulsa county meeting.³²

There followed an accelerated effort to sell the public on the virtues

²⁸Tulsa World, October 1, 1930, p. 4.

²⁹Ibid.

³⁰This apparent "double-cross" was one factor behind the trouble which resulted in the jailing of six members of the party in the autumn of 1930. Tulsa World, October 29, 1930, p. 2.

³¹Tulsa Tribune, August 20, 1931, p. 3.

³²Ibid., January 27, 1932, p. 2.

proration. For employees, they proclaimed, it would mean more leisure or recreation, opportunity to cultivate gardens, time to pursue cultural and educational courses, increased incentive to prepare for managerial jobs (they felt the new system would require a larger staff in this classification), less fatigue and longer periods of rest. All these, they proclaimed, would result in a more healthy, ambitious, alert, and aggressive working force.³³ A further advantage would be greater opportunity for others who had to support their children to earn a living and yet have ample time at home to care for their families. The cost of living would be lower since all meals could be eaten at home. Workers could feel more sure of a steady job due to the absorption of more of the city's working people as a result of the increase in the number of jobs. This absorption would make the working class earners and consumers once again, and thus would stabilize the local industrial situation.³⁴

The Independents also pointed to advantages for the companies. There would be increased daily production of the plant as an operational unit, and, therefore, increased return from the capital invested in the plant and machinery. Since all employees would eat at home, the wasted meal period would be eliminated and possibly also cafeteria expense. An opportunity would also be presented for reorganizing the working force to rectify inequalities and fit all "pegs" to appropriate holes.³⁵

With all this publicity seemingly accomplishing nothing, the Independents suddenly saw the fabled door of opportunity opened wide. As a part of the efforts of local authorities to centralize the administration

³³Harlow's Weekly, August 29, 1931, p. 6.

³⁴Ibid.

³⁵Ibid.

relief in Tulsa, a fact-finding committee was appointed by the Chamber of Commerce to investigate ways and means of effecting such centralization. The fact-finding committee encouraged the party when it mentioned in one of its reports that the proration of labor seemed desirable if a way to make such a plan practical could be found.³⁶ The party was not content, however, with vague recommendations but wanted a thorough and complete program drawn up by civic leaders in conjunction with the industrialists of the city. The fact-finding committee recommended that a central emergency committee of five be made supreme authority over the handling of relief and unemployment matters in the city. Provision was made by the fact-finders for the appointment of four of the members of this emergency group, and these were to select the fifth member. The Independent Party saw immense possibilities in bringing pressure to bear on this small group while it debated the selection of its other associate. When the party demanded representation on the committee of five, the chances seemed at least fair that they could achieve it. Should they fail in their bid for a committee post, however, they would occupy a strategic position to obtain the committee's sanction of proration as a consolation prize, which, in reality was a trophy of greater importance.

In line with this policy, the Independents announced in open assembly that no committee of five nor any other central organization would have the party's support or approval unless they were given active representation on such committee.³⁷ The resolution was made even more dramatic by the fact that it came as a substitute motion after one member of the party

³⁶Report of the Fact-Finding Committee, Tulsa Chamber of Commerce, October, 1931, p. 5.

³⁷Tulsa Tribune, October 8, 1931, p. 3.

ved that the Independents go on record as opposing completely the committee originally proposed, and suggest that a new one be set up consisting of three representatives of the Independent Party, one from the city, and one from the county.³⁸

The first four members of the Committee of Five were selected in accordance with the plan devised by the fact-finding committee. The men selected, it turned out, all belonged to the Chamber of Commerce, and in this fact Sweeney found ripe ground for additional criticism. Pointing out that two of the members were actually directors of the Chamber, Sweeney held that this was a violation of the original plan, and implied that there had been collusion designed to establish the ascendancy of the industrialists over Tulsa's relief program.³⁹ The Committee of Five needed the Independent Party, said Sweeney, more than the Independent Party needed the Committee of Five.⁴⁰

In dire need of obtaining public respect in order to gain approval for its projected emergency measures, two of the already chosen members of the Committee of Five made statements that they were in favor of pro-union action. With the ranks thus split, into the gap charged the Independent Party. While the Committee of Five was in the process of choosing its fifth member, a motion was presented and carried in another public assembly of the Independents that they put forward Sweeney as the party's candidate for the committee. The motion that he be elected and that he present his credentials to the other four members of the committee passed unanimously.

³⁸Tulsa Tribune, October 8, 1931, p. 3.

³⁹Ibid., October 16, 1931, p. 5.

⁴⁰Ibid.

reeney delayed strategically the presentation of his "credentials," and, during this delay, the committee appointed its fifth member just as strategically. The man chosen, municipal Judge G. Ed Warren, was widely known for his strong pro-labor bent and was very popular in relief circles.⁴¹

A few days later the Committee of Five presented to the public a five-joint program for the proration of employment.

The victory of the party in its long struggle to obtain official endorsement of the proration of employment proved a hollow one, however. The Committee of Five never went further with the idea after making a general recommendation of proration, and even these suggestions were dismissed to avoid offending the businessmen.

The committee's recommendations were:

First, that all plants and industries operating on twenty-four hour shifts change their mode of operation to six hours per day for all common and unskilled labor wherever possible. This request does not necessarily apply to superintendents, foremen and other key men where the change would result in loss or added expense to the employer.⁴²

Not only did this statement enable a very broad interpretation of just when "added expense" would be accrued, but very few plants in Tulsa operated on twenty-four hour shifts during the depression.

Second that every homeowner in Tulsa give employment of not less than one-half day per month, and as much more as possible to mechanics in the repair of buildings, decoration, plumbing or any other class of work about the premises.⁴³

⁴¹Tulsa World, October 18, 1931, p. 1. The local federation of labor had adopted the following resolution with respect to the proration of employment: "Because industries have not openly and honestly accepted their responsibilities for regular amount of incomes to all working together in production they have been able to shift many of their problems upon public and private relief agencies." Tulsa Unionist-Journal, November, 1930, p. 1

⁴²Tulsa Spirit, October 23, 1931, p. 9.

⁴³Ibid.

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the committee also recommended that, wherever possible, housewives give as much as two days employment monthly to domestic help. Both suggestions seem to divert attention from the signal issue of a workable plan of proration involving the cooperation of public and private enterprise.

Third, that on all construction work where mechanics are employed eight hours per day that two shift of five hours per day be worked, providing that the employer may use his own discretion regarding the superintendent, foremen and other key men.⁴⁴

Here, again, the effects of proration would be necessarily limited if the employer so chose since it was left to him to define "key" men. This was the only place in which the Committee of Five accepted the Independent Party's recommendations, and here the applicability was limited to construction work.

Fourth, that on all state, county and city construction work all labor be hand labor, wherever possible, and that no machine labor be allowed except in cases where hand labor would be prohibitive.⁴⁵

That "wherever possible" was to mean was left to the discretion of public officials, and they chose to give it wide latitude. Hand labor was declared prohibitive in a great many cases.

Fifth, that all employers in Tulsa and Tulsa county employ only legal residents of the county during the depression.⁴⁶

This policy had already been followed rather conscientiously by the business men of the city, and several campaigns against transients had been carried out by Tulsa officials. This clause was, in a sense, more of a replacement for proration than a buttress for it. The most significant weakness of the recommendations from the standpoint of the unemployed, however, was

⁴⁴Tulsa Spirit, October 23, 1931, p. 9.

⁴⁵Ibid.

⁴⁶Ibid.

the very fact that they were mere suggestions. There was still no agreement between industrialists and civic leaders for a policy of proration and there never would be one.

Only a few firms of the city took measures to introduce the proration of employment, and then only on a small scale. As to local governmental adoptions of the plan, no further action occurred, except insofar as made-work was prorated, until May of 1932. At that time, in the face of the exhaustion of relief funds, a petition bearing the names of 565 unemployed persons was presented to the city commission asking for the proration of common labor to make work for more persons.⁴⁷ The city complied by asking foremen of the garbage and street department to "stagger" their payrolls in line with the request. On the national scene, however, members of the Independent Party must have obtained some satisfaction from the fact that Walter Teagle left his desk as president of Standard Oil of New Jersey to head a nation-wide job-sharing movement.

A short-lived wave of eviction notices in the autumn of 1931 led to action by the Independent Party on another front.⁴⁸ The Independents were more successful when they adopted resolutions which called on the state and federal courts to refuse appointments of receivers in mortgage foreclosure cases where homes were being lost by their owners.⁴⁹ A short time after the party took this stand, District Judge Owen Owens declared from the bench that he would frown on the foreclosing of homesteads and requests for receiverships in cases where the loss of homes would result.

⁴⁷Tulsa World, May 15, 1932, p. 2.

⁴⁸One can follow the complete legal history of Tulsa through the columns of the Tulsa Daily Legal News.

⁴⁹Tulsa Tribune, September 10, 1931, p. 8.

stated that he was taking the financial conditions of many homeowners and would-be homeowners into consideration:

Too many persons buying homes in Tulsa were caught in the business depression and now face the loss of savings of years. It isn't their fault that they can't meet the payments on their homes. To ask the court to grant orders that would mean ejection is asking the court to completely ignore the humanitarian aspect. This court won't do it.⁵⁰

The Tulsa Clearing House Association and the banks of the city were also attacked. Accompanied by about fifty members of the party, A. F. Sweeney appeared before the county commissioners and demanded that action be taken immediately to correct what was termed "corrupt banking practices." Sweeney exhibited a county warrant for \$1.00 in favor of one James Spears for a payment for services. The commissioners were told that Spears had tried to cash the warrant at a local bank. The banker, Sweeney said, had told Spears that they were not cashing county warrants any more, but that if he would take seventy-five cents for it they would cash his. Obviously indignant at the very thought of such conduct on the part of Tulsa's bankers, the fiery Sweeney commented: "If they had the money to cash it for seventy-five cents, they had the money to cash it at full value. Any banker that does that is a racketeer and should be prosecuted."⁵¹

The Independents adopted and placed before the city commission a resolution asking for special privileges for the unemployed with respect to the use of city water. The resolution urged that the water department suspend its right of declaring water bills delinquent and adding ten per cent penalties for unpaid accounts when the consumers were unemployed.⁵²

⁵⁰Tulsa Tribune, September 10, 1931, p. 8.

⁵¹Ibid., September 7, 1932, p. 2.

⁵²Tulsa World, October 29, 1930, p. 2.

that time Mayor George L. Watkins assured the Independents, however, at the water commissioner would give its members every consideration before cutting off their water supply. And, in fact, such a policy was allowed by the water department throughout the depression.

For prospective mothers, the Independent Party advocated a plan whereby local hospitals would provide for their admission and treatment until the child was born, with the added provision that minor children of the mother also be cared for during the period of confinement. All this, they urged, should be done for a fee of fifty dollars. An investigation by the party had revealed that a charge was being made which was far in excess of this figure for confinement cases and other charity cases sent to local institutions.⁵³ In a letter to the editor of the Tulsa Tribune, Weeney declared:

There is not only a necessity now to see that indigent and distressed citizens be given food, clothing and shelter but that they be provided with medical attention. And those who are employed for medical purposes should grade their fees accordingly.⁵⁴

The local hospital administrator replied to the Independent Party proposal by informing its members that Tulsa County and the Public Health Association were already providing hospital care for a nominal charge of \$15.00 to those whom they found deserving of charity.⁵⁵ It was also pointed out that the hospitals had promised to cooperate with local authorities in relieving distress. The Independents correctly replied to this assertion by revealing that this charge did not defray the cost of their treatment, but merely postponed payment. The party believed that too great a strain was put on

⁵³Tulsa Tribune, January 15, 1932, p. 16.

⁵⁴Ibid.

⁵⁵Tulsa Tribune, January 21, 1932, p. 14.

a term "deserving" under the existing hospital charity policy. From Seney's viewpoint the rate should have been based on "humanitarian principles rather than upon the basis of what the traffic will bear."⁵⁶

Whatever its successes or failures, merits or shortcomings, in other ways the Independent Party was at its best when it came to dealing with questions of the moral efficacy of the operations of relief agencies. The party continually championed the cause of the relief recipient, coming as a "watchdog" deterrent to inconsiderate behavior by relief administrators.

In the spring of 1931 an incident involving the County Welfare Department resulted in a request by the Independents for state intervention. After an internal scandal destroyed public respect for the County Humane Society in 1931, the County Welfare Department had been created through the combined efforts of the county commissioners and the Community Fund to distribute the relief funds of the county. Soon after it began operations, a number of charges were lodged by those on relief that it was not properly carrying out its function. The accusations ranged from applicants being refused food and shelter to their being put bodily out of the department offices. One woman charged that the rations given her at the commissary were not "fit to eat."⁵⁷ A man claimed that he had been denied the theory that he had "lived here too long."⁵⁸

An investigation launched by the county commissioners revealed that the county welfare workers had indeed been turning some persons away

⁵⁶Tulsa Tribune, January 25, 1932, p. 8.

⁵⁷Tulsa World, October 24, 1931, p. 3.

⁵⁸Ibid.

hout aid, but only those who were believed to be able to make their way.⁵⁹ For example, it was found that the man who felt that his length of residence was the prime factor behind his inability to obtain aid, had actually been on the county rolls for seven years even though he had a wealthy sister. Nevertheless, the suspicions of the Independent Party had been aroused, and it immediately appointed an investigating committee of its own.

The party's investigators, directed in their efforts by A. F. Sweeney, failed to turn up any evidence of unwarranted denials of relief, but they discovered in the process of the inquiry that men were being compelled to work for the city in payment of grocery orders issued through the County Welfare Department. These men were forced to do the same work that regular employees were doing, for the same number of hours, but were receiving in return grocery orders amounting to only \$1 to \$1.50 per week.⁶⁰ Presenting a petition bearing the names of 300 men he claimed had worked in the various city departments in this way, Sweeney contended that if these men worked, they should have been paid commensurate salaries.⁶¹ Questioning of the foremen in the city departments had revealed that none of these supervisors had been informed as to what wages these men were receiving, and that they had worked the men as though they were drawing minimal wages without realizing that many of them were malnourished.

⁵⁹There were occasions, however, when such charges were found to be true and when the party resorted to court orders to obtain provisions for the victims of such discrimination. Two applicants, both claiming that they had been denied aid by both the county and the Community Fund, were placed on the charity rolls by District Judge Halley in the fall of 1932. Chicago Tribune, October 11, 1932, p. 4.

⁶⁰Ibid., October 26, 1931, p. 2.

⁶¹Ibid.

A hearing was held into the matter by Mayor Watkins and the city commissioners, and the practice was brought to a sudden stop. The commissioners instructed Harold M. Vaughn, director of the County Welfare Department, who supplied the grocery orders, to stop sending men "over to city."⁶²

The Independent Party supported many of these laborers who had worked city projects in demanding back pay from the city. The commissioners, ever, denied their bill on the grounds that they had never been employed the city, but had merely worked on municipal jobs.⁶³ Angered by the lure of local authorities to make what they considered to be proper ends for such actions, Independent Party officials now demanded that county commissioners take personal charge of the administration of relief. The party asked that the county welfare work be completely separated from the Committee of Five, that the recently opened city commissary be closed, and that grocery orders issued through the county welfare departments be sent to grocery stores as had formerly been the case. Independents asserted that distributing county funds through the Committee of Five was illegal since the members of that committee were serving without bond, and that the disposal of the charity fund should be under exclusive control of the commissioners.

The commissioners, however, rejected the demands of the Independents, insisting that they had a legal right to appoint agents to carry out their charity work. In view of the failure of the commissioners to act, Sweeney contacted Mrs. Mabel Bassett, state commissioner of charities and corrections, and obtained her promise to investigate Tulsa's city and county

⁶²Tulsa Tribune, October 26, 1931, p. 2.

⁶³Tulsa World, October 28, 1931, p. 5.

city distribution.⁶⁴ He filed similar complaints with W. A. Murphy, the labor commissioner, and with Governor William H. Murray.⁶⁵ The injunction by Mrs. Bassett never got past the city's excellent commissary. The only criticism was directed at the county commissioners. They, she said, would be derelict in their duty if they did not make some shift to provide the money necessary to carry on the program.⁶⁶

One interesting outgrowth of the Independent Party movement in Tulsa was the attempted colonization, under party inspiration, of some 500 families of unemployed Tulsans on an 8,000 acre tract of land near Huntsville, Arkansas. The idea that was to germinate into the colony was born in Mrs. Ida Lawley of Sand Springs, Oklahoma, who saw that the land could be obtained cheaply. Mrs. Lawley planned the establishment of an old people's home there, but after she had discussed her idea with J. P. Gallagher of the Light House Mission in Tulsa, George Perrine, a leader of the Independent Party, and others, the plan for a colony for the unemployed was adopted. Through this endeavor it was hoped that hundreds of Tulsans would be able to re-establish themselves as self-supporting citizens.⁶⁷

The Independent Party worked closely with Dr. Herbert Clough of Tulsa, head of the sponsoring group, in securing pioneers for this constructive American back-to-the-farm project. Clough replaced Mrs. Lawley as president of the Oklahoma-Arkansas Ozark Development Association after she apparently decided the venture was too risky after all. Memberships in

⁶⁴Tulsa World, October 28, 1931, p. 5.

⁶⁵Ibid.

⁶⁶Tulsa Tribune, December 4, 1931, p. 2.

⁶⁷Ibid., October 8, 1931, p. 2.

Association were sold for \$1 originally. How many joined at this rate I probably never be known. However, with some private capital added there was enough for a \$500 cash payment on the Ozark land. On October 1931, a contract was signed by officers for the colony and W. H. Lloy, Fayetteville banker, and president of the Industrial Finance Corporation which owned the land.⁶⁸ The colonists agreed to pay \$4,000 on October 20, beginning in 1932, for nine years. Then they were to pay \$5,002.26 on October 20, 1941, and within five years thereafter \$617. This made the total purchase price with interest \$41,619.26. In addition the colonists were to pay the taxes on the land which amount to about \$100 annually.⁶⁹

The entire colonization project was to operate along community lines, somewhat after the pattern of Brook Farm, and as a self-supporting unit. For this reason the financial program that had been undertaken did not seem difficult at first. Thrown in with the rough, wooded land was what remained of an old sawmill and 300,000 feet of rough oak lumber. It would be easy, the colonists felt, to set up a thriving wood business. Highway 1, which bounded the colony's plot on the West, was an important and scenic route. It wound through woodlands and along hillcrests for thirty miles which like a park drive. Travelers would support a hotel, garage, and tourist court. The woods abounded with huckleberries which could be gathered and canned. Wild nuts, persimmons, and other fruits were also available in large quantities. The acreage was fertile and considered ideal for the growth of tomatoes, grapes, berries, and other fruits and vegetables. There was much talk about a tomato cannery. The possibility

⁶⁸Tulsa Tribune, December 2, 1931, p. 2.

⁶⁹Ibid., June 20, 1932, p. 12.

other small industries, including a furniture factory, was also a subject of conversation. Pine Creek, a mountain stream traversing the colony's land, was to be dammed in order to create a fishery and produce power for the colony's electric plant.

The colonists had visions of a new town springing up. A townsite was to be laid off and permanent homes built. Houses could be constructed of native stone and logs. It was agreed that all crops and other products of the colony were to be sold by the community as such and proceeds after expenses divided equally. Each family was to receive a ten acre plot of land, for which it was to pay eventually \$6 per acre. The first payment, however, was not to come due until after the harvest of the first crop.⁷⁰

There was not to be any radical kind of governmental system for this salvation from the machine age."⁷¹ For, as George Perrine explained, the colonists were not "Reds, radicals, Communists, or a little Russia on top."⁷² They were instead:

...merely American men out of work who seek to solve our own relief problems. We are not beggars and believe a general back-to-the-land movement might do much good for a country that has gone too far in buying paper securities. We have a plan--a ten year plan--for our rehabilitation.⁷³

Any disagreement among the members was to be settled by a board of arbitration to be selected by the common vote of all the adult people. Dr. [Name], director of the colony, was to be the court of appeals of all disputes. He was a dentist by profession but had also studied law and

⁷⁰Tulsa Tribune, December 2, 1931, p. 2.

⁷¹New York Times, December 7, 1931, p. 15.

⁷²Tulsa Tribune, January 9, 1932, p. 16.

⁷³Ibid.

ology. The colony, which was named Concord Springs, was to conform to county, state and federal laws.

The religious, educational and professional needs of the membership were also taken into advance consideration. Dr. Clough, in addition to his supervisory and judicial functions would officiate at the "House of Prayer" Church in which Catholic, Jewish and Christian Scientist members of the colony could worship together. If differences arose, any denomination that preferred could hold its own services separately, and select its own teacher from among its members. The Concord Springs school system was to meet all the requirements of the state department of education.⁷⁴ Each member of the colony was to be assigned to duties to which he or she was best suited and trained, as determined by a tryout or expression of preference. The original subscribers to the Association represented almost every trade and profession.⁷⁵

The advance detachment of thirty colonists departed for Arkansas on a cold November day in 1931. Plans were for this group to erect a commissary building and shacks for temporary living quarters for seventy-five pioneers. Then, as rapidly as additional living quarters could be completed, more members of the colony could be summoned, and eventually those already there would be joined by their families. The colonists planned to spend all winter clearing the land, and then in the spring to plant quick cash crops, mostly tomatoes, on as much of it as possible. From this crop they hoped to meet their financial obligations.⁷⁶

⁷⁴New York Times, December 7, 1931, p. 15.

⁷⁵Tulsa Tribune, December 2, 1931, p. 2.

⁷⁶Ibid., October 8, 1931, p. 2.

On North-South Arkansas highway 23, between Huntsville and Eureka
ings, the truckload of utopian-minded colonists caught first sight of
ir empire stretching for miles to the East, and engulfing large chunks
Madison and Carroll counties. Here they departed from the main road
a flint trail which led down a mountain valley. The valley grew a
tle wider as they progressed down the winding trail, revealing the
ted but majestically rising funnel of the ancient saw mill toward the
th. The oak lumber, obtained in the purchase package, was stacked
tly near the sawmill, two springs were nearby and the clearing seemed
erwise generally desirable. For these reasons it was at this site
at the Tulsans decided to set up their headquarters. At the foot of
of the towering mountain bluffs they discovered a huge, low, lime-
one cave. In it the first colonists made their winter home.⁷⁷

The \$1 memberships provided just enough revenue to make the down
ment on the land. There was nothing for the first colonists to live
. This problem was remedied by raising the price for new members to
0 and then to \$50. With these funds to provide for their subsistence,
d by Perrine, a contractor in pre-depression days, they were able to remai
d to construct a dozen oak and roofing paper shacks. The way was thus
eared for the arrival of new families. Some of them came after listening
the utopian predictions of the sincere but impractical Dr. Clough, who
d remained in Tulsa to promote the colony. They scarcely realized the
sts of the building. They were broke when they reached the colony, and
d been promised that they would be supplied with money until they could

⁷⁷For a description of the area reliance has been placed upon the
count of a visitor to the colony found in the Tulsa Tribune, June 20,
32, p. 12, and on the geographical information given in: Workers of
e Writers' Program of the Works Projects Administration, Arkansas: A
ide to the State (New York: Hastings House, 1941), pp. 263-264.

duce their first crops. A few had skills suitable to the task, but it had to learn.⁷⁸

The discovery had quickly been made that the sawmill, upon which the plans of the colonists had been so largely based, was totally inoperable. For the most part, they had no tools, no teams, no trucks--virtually nothing to work with. The pioneers had hoped to get a start by cutting and selling cordwood. Wood cutting and the "hacking" the Tulsans learned yielded poor dividends. With their lack of experience and shortage of tools, the most they could manage was three ricks of wood a day. This they sold for \$1.50 a rick in Eureka Springs, some eighteen miles away. But the reason for the sale of cordwood was rapidly running out. With this as their only cash income the colonists found themselves with little or no food most of the time. On any day that the weather or some other obstacle stood in the way of the preparation of the wood to be sold, there was likely to be no food at all available. Each morning a truck carried the food from the colony into town, and each evening it returned with the provisions ordered by George Carlon, commissary manager, a plasterer in Tulsa before the depression hit. All this was a big disappointment to the colonists, who had expected to see the project well-housed and permanently settled by spring. A number of them now returned to Tulsa discouraged with the prospects.⁷⁹

About ninety men remained struggling to make Concord Springs a success. They existed upon a monotonous food ration. For breakfast they usually ate a flour and water gravy, pancakes and black coffee; for lunch it was

⁷⁸Tulsa Tribune, December 2, 1931, p. 2.

⁷⁹Ibid., June 20, 1932, p. 12.

beans and cornbread; and for dinner more beans and cornbread and perhaps little soup.⁸⁰ Ingenious methods typical of the frontiersman were adopted. One colonist traded a rifle for a power saw, which was repaired and put into running condition at the colony. The engine of the old saw-mill rendered bearings and other parts for a hand-made forge. Oil drums were transformed into workable stoves, while shoe soles were made from automobile tires. Vegetables were once traded for a bull which was slaughtered by the colonists, and thus provided exactly one half of Concord Springs' meat supply during the first year.⁸¹

Meanwhile, in Tulsa, the energetic Dr. Clough was placed under arrest and charged with obtaining money under false pretenses. A man had gone to Clough's office and inquired about joining the colony, expressing a desire to build a house and later have other members of his family join him. His subscription fee was accordingly accepted, and he left for the colony. Shortly thereafter, however, the man's father had appeared and demanded transportation to the colony. When it could not be immediately made available to him, he demanded the money back, claiming that his son had obtained it from him. Since the son was already at the colony, Clough refused to return the money, and charges were therefore filed against him. Although Clough was acquitted, his discouragement was so great that he resigned from the presidency of the colony. His negotiations for cannery machinery and three trucks were thus halted. He had already completed a contract for the sale of some railroad ties during the summer. Perrine, who was still at the colony, became its acting head.⁸²

⁸⁰Tulsa Tribune, January 12, 1932, p. 11.

⁸¹Ibid., June 20, 1932, p. 20.

⁸²Ibid., January 9, 1932, p. 16; January 12, 1932, p. 11; February 4, 1932, p. 6.

At Concord Springs dissension arose, and a state of "civil war" issued. The precipitating cause of the dispute was the manner in which food was being distributed. The sole commodity in the commissary's stock was beans, but one faction wanted these divided differently. Actually the hostility had been simmering beneath the surface for some time. The crisis for it was a misunderstanding about how the revenues derived from the sale of memberships in the colony were to be used. Some of the original subscribers had not realized that their membership fees were being used to pay for the land, and most of the newer colonists were unaware of the fact that their larger subscriptions were being used to keep the colony going before they ever got to Arkansas. Both felt that the money should be used to pay for food and implements. W. J. Markham assumed the leadership of the rebel group, which charged the older Perrine-led Independent Party faction with assuming a "domineering attitude" and demanded more plentiful and higher quality food and better general living conditions.⁸³ The rebels gathered and elected their own officers despite the fact that the nine men who were incorporators of the colony were already officers, and empowered under the Arkansas charter to hold all stock in the colony and to elect their own successors. The revolutionary action then went to a neighboring justice of the peace and secured a re-levin on the charter of the colony, a legal action without precedent. At the same time they seized control of the commissary by force, and commandeered the colony's truck.⁸⁴

The incorporators of Concord Springs turned to Colonel Charles D. James, a Eureka Springs attorney, for aid. James had long been convinced

⁸³Tulsa Tribune, January 12, 1932, p. 11.

⁸⁴Ibid., June 20, 1932, p. 12.

that a back to the land movement would be an effective way to solve the financial depression, and had thus become very interested in the colony when he learned of its founding. He had earlier sent out 300 pounds of salt meat to the colony in order that its members could season their vegetables. An able lawyer, James quickly went to court and secured a cancellation of the replevin. During the fight the food problem had become serious. W. H. McIlroy, who had sold the land to the Tulsans, sent Captain E. K. Hooper, a national guard officer, and several guardsmen to protect a truck load of Red Cross supplies to the camp. McIlroy had been distracted to the difficulties when the rebels proposed to divide the colony. Meanwhile James had obtained an injunction from the district court at Huntsville restraining the rebellious group from harming the property or persons of the other colonists. The court also ordered four families of the rebels to leave the colony. The ruling held that the rebels had forfeited their membership in the colony by their failure to work for it and to cooperate in its success. No member, however, was deprived of any just rights in the colony if he labored in harmony as was the original understanding and object of the colony.⁸⁵

Subscribers back in Tulsa had, in the meantime, become concerned over their investment. The arrest of Clough and stories of corruption in the administration of the colony led many of them to demand that they either be allowed to go immediately to Concord Springs or given their money back. The colony's builders could do neither. The funds of the subscribers had been exhausted by the trail blazers in an attempt to get the enterprise started. The objective for the present had to be to take care of those already on hand in the Arkansas hills. As one member put

⁸⁵Tulsa Tribune, June 20, 1932, p. 12.

": "We can't let them all come now that the beanpot has enough in it
 to feed us."⁸⁶ It was earnestly hoped, however, that all members could
 gradually be admitted. The plan was to notify ten members at a time,
 informing them that they had to go to the colony immediately or forfeit
 their rights.⁸⁷

The inter-colony strife had convinced the members who remained that
 they needed an executive head, and they appealed to James, who had won
 their court battles for them, to become their president. This James
 finally consented to do upon the following conditions:

First, I was to prepare a suitable set of by-laws for the
 colony to operate under and I was to have full powers with
 the advice and assistance of the board of directors in the
 management of the affairs of the colony. Second, that all
 members were to forget all differences and work in full har-
 mony and collectively for the success of the colony.⁸⁸

to these qualifications the former Tulsans unanimously agreed.

On Captain Hooper's recommendations, after his two weeks in camp,
 McIlroy refunded virtually all of the \$500 down payment that had been
 made on the land. McIlroy further insisted that any profits the colonists
 made from an order they had received for railroad ties should go to pay
 the taxes on the land or the interest on the note. For the other wood
 which the colonists had already trucked to town to sell, McIlroy felt
 that if the land should eventually be returned to him, that he would have
 received fair value due to the clearing that had been accomplished. With
 his refund the colonists were able to secure two teams, nails, roofing
 and other needed items.

⁸⁶Tulsa Tribune, June 20, 1932, p. 12.

⁸⁷Ibid., July 10, 1932, p. 14.

⁸⁸Ibid.

In Eureka Springs James was able to obtain nearly 10,000 pounds of the flour being made for the Red Cross from government wheat. The plight of the colonists had also attracted the attention of others. Mrs. L. S. Reed, managing editor of the Fayetteville Democrat, conducted a campaign for food contributions to Concord Springs through four counties. Another county, which had received drought relief only the year before, sent over a truck loaded with eight tons of food stuffs.

The colony's largest population at any one time had been 120 people. After the hardships and disputes of the first year there still remained 21, representing 28 families. At one time there had been 40 single men in the group, but at the end of the year there was but one. Of the 21 children, only one was not of school age, and, of course, Dr. Clough's modern educational system had never materialized. The children were, no doubt, denied a balanced diet. The colony had no cows, but milk was purchased for the one small child. The remainder of the children had not had milk since they arrived. Regular visits by the county health nurse, however, revealed that the children were healthy, only one being underweight.⁸

During the fall and winter of the first year seventy acres had been cleared, and in the spring vegetables of all kinds were planted. From somewhere the members of the colony obtained a large number of glass jars. They were thus able to can large quantities of food for the next winter and store it in their cave.

As the United States prepared to meet the worst year of the depression yet, the Tulsa colonials contended with the problem of meeting delinquent taxes. The fact that there seemed to be no possible way of obtaining the \$500 needed to meet this obligation did not seem to worry the average

⁸⁹Tulsa Tribune, June 20, 1932, p. 12.

olonist a great deal. They still had great faith in the ultimate success of the colony, and they were well aware that it had always been difficult to oust a squatter in Arkansas in less than a year. Thus far the meager gains of their own hard labor and a judicious amount of philanthropy had kept Concord Springs alive. Through more hard work they felt they might be able to get the payments on the land extended and to produce enough profits to pay the taxes.

Even if they were unable to pay, they would still be one year's existence to the good. Financial worries were nothing new for these refugees from charity. Though provisions were scarce and plain, the colonists repeatedly insisted that they were more contented than they had been before undertaking the venture. In Tulsa they had been entirely dependent upon charity. In the Ozark mountains of Arkansas they were at least partially providing for themselves and their families. Concord Springs was probably a hopelessly idealistic scheme from the start. Perhaps the super-enthusiasm that the immigrants from Tulsa continually exhibited was a necessary prerequisite. History indicates that the pioneer's quest has always been for all the things which he did not have, and places in a soup line were all that these people had left.

There were in Tulsa, however, organizations of the unemployed which were not at all concerned with the administration of relief. The purpose of the Tulsa Immediate Relief Association, organized in the spring of 1932 was to provide relief for its members in order that they could renounce charity. The constituents of this group insisted that they would rather work for their food than to receive provisions from the public. They had rallied around M. W. "Wildcat" Williams, a professional engineer and former refinery operator, when he became dissatisfied with an earlier organization. The sole aim of Tulsa's previous groups of the unemployed, it seemed to

Williams, was to seek charity.⁹⁰

The Association directed its major efforts toward acquiring food for its members. Contracts were made with farmers who had crops of fruits and vegetables that they were willing to have gathered on shares. Half of what was gathered each day went to the farmers under contract. The remainder was distributed among the members of the Association. In addition Williams closed a deal with the state game and fish department by which the members of the Immediate Relief Association rescued perishing fish from drying streams and lakes. The state furnished equipment and the Association the manpower.⁹¹ Odd jobs were also sought by the Association and members detailed to work at them.

Every member of the organization worked or else he did not share in the distribution. Williams summed up the no-work, no-member philosophy in this way:

When they are sent out on a job, they are put on their honor to do the work. We don't keep up with them all the time, but when we find one shirking work, out he goes. Naturally we have had some deadbeats, but as soon as they are discovered they are eliminated from our rolls.⁹²

There was not a single member of the Association on the Tulsa charity roll.

Neither politics nor radicalism was tolerated. On several occasions radicals appeared in the ranks of the Association, but their memberships were quickly terminated. At one point Williams became convinced that extreme left wingers were trying to disrupt his organization, and made a tour of the city speaking in the parks to the unemployed about the matter.

⁹⁰Tulsa Tribune, September 18, 1932, p. 7.

⁹¹Ibid., September 27, 1932, p. 2.

⁹²Ibid., September 18, 1932, p. 7.

In one such speech he declared:

It is no good to shoot a red; he is not worth the powder. This nation is in a bad condition, but even so it is the best in the world, and we don't need long-haired Russians coming over here to tell us how to run it.⁹³

Although the Association had originally been intended to serve members only, it slowly evolved into an informal relief organization. So successful were its efforts that supplies still remained after the members were cared for. Noting that there were needy families in the suburban districts where neither city nor county relief organizations operated, the members of the Association began to distribute their surplus among them. Before long about 120 families whose wage earners were out of work, ill or incapacitated were being taken care of. The Association further extended its relief activities with a successful appeal for the use of vacant lots for the raising of turnips. Promises of a thousand lots were received, and a large amount of volunteer labor was made available.⁹⁴ The city provided plows, tractors and other equipment. In the summer of 1932, when both city and county charity funds were depleted, the efforts of the city employees to cope with the situation drew heavy support from the Association.

With the Immediate Relief Association's initiation into relief work an accomplished fact, city, county and state relief agencies began to rely heavily upon the group as a means of communication with the unemployed. A committee was created by the Association to hear grievances and investigate the complaints and reports of needy persons. Another committee was appointed to handle legal phases of the relief work. The membership rolls

⁹³Tulsa Tribune, September 20, 1932, p. 6.

⁹⁴Ibid., September 7, 1932, p. 3.

of the Association included a competent lawyer and a reputable physician.

Many more temporary and less active organizations of the unemployed also developed in Tulsa. During one extremely bad period a soup line was organized by the Ex-Service Men's Association, a group of 115 men.⁹⁵ The members investigated applicants for a place in the line and fed something like sixty families once daily. A local plant donated fifty pounds of soup bones and fifty pounds of pigs' feet day for the preparation of the ration.⁹⁶

The members of the Unemployed Association worked for pay in commodities and operated an exchange service for the goods they received. Scrip issued by the Shirtsleeves Exchange could be used by its members to pay other members for labor, or to make purchases of food or other necessary articles. Eventually the Exchange opened a cafeteria at which scrip was accepted in payment for meals.⁹⁷

A group of girls and young women formed an unemployment service for themselves. The Girls Cooperative Employment Club soon had a membership of 250 single, unemployed girls, all of them badly in need of employment. The organization was self-supporting with the unemployed girls donating their services in seeking, listing and assigning jobs as well as attending to all office work.⁹⁸ Regular meetings were held with lecturers and experts appearing to discuss such subjects as oil stenography, sales technique, personal appearance, and how to keep physically fit.⁹⁹

⁹⁵Tulsa World, September 15, 1932, p. 4.

⁹⁶Tulsa Tribune, September 7, 1932, p. 10.

⁹⁷Harlow's Weekly, November 16, 1932, p. 6.

⁹⁸Tulsa Tribune, January 29, 1932, p. 5.

⁹⁹Ibid., February 21, 1932, p. 3.

The development in Tulsa, during the great depression, of organized groups among the unemployed was a phenomenon which seems to have flowed from the natural gregarious instinct of people with a common problem. Some of these groups, notably the Independent Party, concerned themselves with attempts to correct the shortcomings of relief administration in Tulsa. Others, like the Tulsa Immediate Relief Association, were primarily interested in self-help, a system of organized barter or exchange of goods among themselves. In this latter type of activity goods obtained in exchange for work done outside the group and donated materials, such as surplus crops, were brought to a central point and divided to meet the needs of the whole group. Although the Independent Party concerned itself with politics in a minor way, Tulsa was fortunate enough to avoid the more violent forms of behavior by the unemployed.

CHAPTER VII

THE IMPACT ON RELIGION

The Great Depression brought about some significant religious changes in Tulsa, and placed tremendous pressure on the church and the clergy. The weight of this burden affected the attitude of the church leaders toward the secular order in all its phases, the church as a social institution, and their conceptions of their own roles. Ministers were called upon to counsel with many people regarding their troubles during the depression. Since many of these ills were rooted in unemployment, the individual as an individual could do little about them. Recognition of this fact forced ministers to think on the major issues of the time.

Some Tulsa church leaders saw a disguised blessing in these troubles of the people. Previous depressions, they believed, had turned men away from materialistic considerations and toward God. They linked earlier economic disorders with great religious revivals. It was their feeling that in times of trial men turn to God because their self-reliant attitudes are either totally destroyed or at least weakened to the point where they are no longer self-sustaining.

Among Tulsa's ministers the most articulate spokesman of this point of view was the Reverend R. J. Bateman of the First Baptist Church. In an address entitled "Christ and Commerce," delivered before a Chamber of Commerce luncheon, Bateman expounded his beliefs concerning this subject. There is, he felt, a moral question at the very core of commerce. This was true because people and business rise and fall simultaneously.

Roger Babson has made a chart of American history. By this he shows the money panics of the United States. Compare with this the chart showing the religious revivals in the United States. He shows that periods of prosperity are followed by periods of religious indifference and increased immorality, drunkenness and crime. These are always followed by financial depression, money panics and hard times.¹

At the beginning of each period of commercial crisis and deprivation had always been followed by a quickened interest in religion. As Bateman saw it, then, business depressions were caused by "dissipation, dishonesty, disobedience to God's will and a general collapse of moral character." They were cured by "moral awakening, spiritual revivalism, and rehabilitation of righteousness."²

The Reverend Frank W. Wright of the United Presbyterian Church was in almost complete agreement with Dr. Bateman. "Providence," he once declared, "always wears a beautiful face under a dark mask. In depression and drouth, crime and unemployment are the means of humbling us and bringing us closer to God."³ The Reverend O. M. Stallings of the Emmanuel Baptist Church also believed that the depression would be a source of good. It would "goad dormant minds into great thinkers. Weaklings will wax strong."⁴ Another Tulsa minister, the Reverend E. H. Ackel of the Trinity Episcopal Church, also quoted the economist Babson in commenting on the depression. He was quite sure, he said, that:

before prosperity can return there must be a renewed interest in the spiritual life of both individuals and nations. Such times as these are a challenge to the manhood and womanhood of each and every one of us, and the kind of courage that we most need today is the kind that is based on faith in God.⁵

¹Tulsa Spirit, January 30, 1931, p. 14.

²Ibid.

³Tulsa Tribune, November 24, 1930, p. 7.

⁴Ibid., January 5, 1932, p. 8.

⁵World, July 11, 1932, p. 2.

1 these statements and other similar ones seem to indicate that there is a rather widespread conviction among Tulsa ministers that a religious awakening would result from personal experiences of the people during the economic crisis.

If church membership can be taken as an adequate guide, the religious awakening which these Tulsa ministers anticipated did in fact occur. Accepting denominational figures, total membership of all of Tulsa churches increased by almost twenty thousand persons between 1926 and 1936.⁶ Some of these new members made their way into new congregations, twenty of which were organized in Tulsa during the early years of the depression. The growth in the number of congregations was such, indeed, that twelve of the groups were forced to hold their meetings temporarily in such varied places as movie theatres, auditoriums, schools, parks and county fair buildings.⁷

Church membership continued to be more attractive to females than to males. The number of men who were members increased from 13,349 in 1926 to 18,047 in 1936, a total gain of 4,698. During the same span of years

⁶The term church is used here, and elsewhere when the need for brevity dictates broad general statements, to include all worshipping religious organizations--Catholic, Protestant and Jewish. I have accepted the dates 1926-1936 as those approximately right to show the effects of the Great Depression. Total Tulsa membership increased from 35,106 to 54,659. United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Religious Bodies, 1926 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1930), p. 356.; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Religious Bodies, 1936 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1941), p. 434. Hereafter cited as Religious Bodies, 1926 and Religious Bodies, 1936).

⁷Polk's Tulsa, Oklahoma City Directory, 1929 (Kansas City: R. L. Polk Company, 1929), pp. 904-906.; Polk's Tulsa, Oklahoma City Directory, 1932 (Kansas City: R. L. Polk Company, 1932), pp. 761-762. There were 97 church edifices as compared to 109 congregations: Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 434.

men who belonged to worshipping organizations increased from 19,077 to 26,802, thus expanding by 7,795. The number of males to every one hundred females, therefore, showed a decline of from seventy to sixty-six in Tulsa.⁸

The greatest gain in affiliates was made by the Baptists, who welcomed almost six thousand into the fold. The Baptists thus attracted over one-fourth of Tulsa's total of new church members. Nearly two thousand fresh members were involved in the Roman Catholic expansion, while Presbyterians and Methodists, in that order, had the next largest increases in membership. The following table indicates the exact statistics of gain for most of the major denominations.⁹

TOTAL MEMBERSHIP

denomination	1926	1936	Gain
Baptist.....	7,511	13,466	5,955
Roman Catholic.....	5,055	7,027	1,972
Presbyterian.....	4,617	6,224	1,607
Methodist.....	7,076	8,195	1,119
Assembly of God.....	598	1,530	930
Protestant Episcopal.	1,487	2,089	602
Christian Scientist..	439	918	479
Lutheran.....	369	828	459
Jewish.....	2,400	2,850	450
Mazarene.....	72	330	258
Mormon.....	293	476	183
Seventh Day Adventist	172	283	111
Unitarian.....	124	190	66
Greek Orthodox.....	150	170	20

Even though the rolls kept by the Tulsa denominations thus indicate significant membership increases during the years of the great depression,

⁸Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 356; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 434.

⁹Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 560; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 696.

e must beware of certain potential flaws in these records. In the first place, the definition of a church member varies widely in meaning from one denomination to another. Some groups include almost the total population as members, while others use the term in a much narrower sense. Competent statisticians warn also of the tendency among Protestant Churches to "keep names on the rolls as members even when the individuals have died or have psychologically separated themselves from the church."¹⁰ The accuracy of the conclusions drawn from the statistics herein, however, should be safe from distortions resulting from these particular deficiencies. In the accumulation of the figures cited safeguards were adopted to avoid such errors. Each congregation was asked to report as members only those persons who had been accepted into the church through that particular denomination's ceremonial initiation, if any, and who attended with some degree of regularity.¹¹

There is always also the possibility, of course, that church membership grew from natural increase rather than from added interest. This does not appear to have been the case in Tulsa. In the entire decade of the nineteen-thirties the population of Tulsa expanded by only 399 persons.¹² Such a very limited increase in population indicates also that migration into the city could not have been a major factor behind

¹⁰ Samuel J. Kincheloe, Research Memorandum on Religion During the Great Depression (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1937), p. 15.

¹¹ Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 1; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 1.

¹² United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Sixteenth Census of the United States, 1930: Characteristics of the Population (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1943), Part 5, p. 937. Available statistics do not permit an exact comparison of membership and population increases.

the increased willingness of the Tulsa citizenry to attach themselves to religious body.

If doubt still remains as to the major source of the enlarged religious bodies of Tulsa, a look at the number of children who were members may help to dissolve it. The number of non-adults who belonged to a church did expand. In 1926 they numbered 3,916, while by 1936 they amounted to 5,395, a total gain of 1,479. This increase thus constitutes only a very small percentage of the total newcomers to the worshipping organizations of the city.¹³

In contrast to the statistics for total membership, Presbyterians, not Baptists, led all other denominations in the number of new adherents who were children. Their gain in this category of followers amounted to more than a thousand, and was almost three times the size of the increase of child members registered by the second place Roman Catholics. Baptists were far back in fourth place with only 266 such newcomers. They might attribute this position to their policy of voluntary membership for children.¹⁴ The following chart reveals the exact statistics for many of Tulsa's denominations as to non-adult members:¹⁵

CHILDREN MEMBERS			
Denomination	1926	1936	Gain
Presbyterians.....	4,248	5,610	1,362
Roman Catholics.....	1,581	2,108	527
Methodists.....	768	1,083	315
Baptists.....	450	716	266
Protestant Episcopal.	227	375	148
Assembly of God.....	13	119	106
Lutheran.....	91	194	104
Mormon.....	14	29	15
Greek Orthodox.....	25	40	15

¹³Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 356; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 434.

¹⁴William B. Lippard, "What do Baptists Believe?" A Guide to the Religions of America (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1955), p. 4.

¹⁵Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 560; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 696.

While an increase in religious interest seems to be indicated by church membership figures, the degree of participation by members in the activities of the church probably reveals more. The size and scope of the educational work of the church may be the best yardstick for determining the support given to the church program by the membership. The most common form of educational work carried on by the church is the so-called Sunday School. The Baptists, who led in the recruiting of new church members, also had the largest number regularly attending Sunday school during the depression. An average of 7,852 Baptists were regular scholars in the Sunday Schools of their congregations in 1926, while the usual number in attendance by 1936 was about 9,059. The total increase in average attendance at Sunday educational programs for this denomination was therefore 1,477. The obvious conclusion is that many, though far from all, of those people who joined the Baptist Church during the economic crisis had enough interest to carry through by actively participating rather fully in the total program of their congregations.¹⁶ In contrast, the Methodists, who had a sizeable increase in total membership, registered a decline in average Sunday School attendance. This suggests that many Methodists who started their membership during the years of depression did not take part fully in the church activity. The table which follows gives some of the pertinent data relative to the attendance at the Sunday schools of Tulsa's churches during these years:¹⁷

¹⁶Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 357; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 435.

¹⁷Ibid.

SUNDAY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

<u>denomination</u>	<u>1926</u>	<u>1936</u>	<u>Gain or loss</u>
Baptists.....	7,582	9,059	1,477
Presbyterians.....	4,500	5,120	620
Assembly of God.....	2,159	2,640	481
Lutherans.....	223	385	162
Methodism.....	135	254	119
Protestant Episcopal...	275	370	95
Seventh Day Adventists.	130	195	65
Quakers.....	46	93	47
Greek Orthodox.....	24	42	18
Jewish.....	220	235	15
Methodists.....	4,423	3,632	-791
Church of God.....	258	178	-80

It is impossible to prove that all or any part of the people who became members of Tulsa's churches during the depression did so because of the business slump. People accept religious membership for many reasons, causes which only the individual member could reveal. It is just as difficult to prove that the depression had any relationship to the number attending Sunday School or participating in the various other parts of the church program. This analysis of the available statistics does strongly suggest, however, that many Tulsans joined the churches of the city as a direct result of the economic crisis, but that most stopped a step short of complete involvement in the activities of their congregations.

The fact that many Tulsa churchmen anticipated spiritual profits from the depression did not obscure their concern with the practices which they felt had caused it. For them they had nothing but condemnation. And while they did not specifically divide the groups of American society as to their responsibility for these evils, their sermons imply that some groups were more deserving of the blame than others. Principally there were two such groups. One was made up of those in control of the means of production, the capitalists. The other was in

ontrol of the means of controlling the capitalists, the politicians. The
 depression might curb the unrighteousness of the masses, but some special
 effort was needed to check the sinfulness of those who would remain un-
 affected by the economic crisis, and who were in fact responsible for
 t.¹⁸

What appears to be an ambiguity of religious thought thus reveals
 itself in their sermons. On the one hand, they pointed to the sinfulness
 of the people at large as a cause of the depression, while on the other
 and they defended this undefined mass against the greed of the economic
 elite and the corruption of the politicians. They were led to the first
 assignment of guilt by doctrinal tenets which proclaimed all men to be
 natural sinners. The second conviction resulted from the hard facts
 of the times which suggested that the sins of some people could be more
 drastic in their repercussions on society than the sins of others. They
 claimed that what people had always considered to be individualism was
 actually no such thing. It was rather a stark individualistic materialism.
 The Tulsa ministers were thus carried logically to a denial of economic
laissez-faire.

If what had passed for individualism had, in reality, been only the
 philosophy of selfishness, where was the true example to be found? It
 could be seen in the life of Jesus as a workingman. As Dr. Bateman said:

¹⁸The list of those who served the churches of Tulsa during the
 depression is impressive. The present analysis, however, is not an
 attempt to explore the totality of their religious thought. Its object
 above all is to present their views as to the causes of the depression
 and the best solutions for it. When, moreover, a greater amount of
 space is given to some messages than to others, the reason is that
 some expressed thought about the nature of the depression more than
 others; some dealt more than others with the main subject of this
 study.

We think of him as having a carpenter's shop...in Nazareth. Here the farmers came to have their ploughshares made. He was far-famed for his honesty....His business was not done in a slip shod way. He was a good collector for his work. I can imagine that it was ever his principle to render unto Caesar the things which are Caesar's and unto God the things which are God's He recognized the rules of the game. He endorsed the idea of acquiring and possessing property. He never once yielded to the idea of socialism.¹⁹

If such a spirit could govern business now, Bateman maintained, the whole world would be changed. Businessmen would see that if the factory existed for the good of the people, the people would work for the good of the factory. The laborers would feel that "capital has a soul" and that they were going to be cared for.²⁰

An indictment was thus brought against American civilization as it had developed, not against the basic institutions and ideology which had served it. Accordingly poverty was a disgrace not because it was bad in itself, but because it could be eliminated. American politics, and churches for that matter, needed to be reformed not because they were weak institutions, but because men had not properly used them. Bateman and many other Tulsa ministers contended, therefore, that the critical problem faced by the United States was not the immediate abnormality of depression but the attitudes which the people had shaped during America's historic development.

Perhaps nowhere is their philosophical position indicated better than in a sermon delivered by the Reverend Walter Douglass before the congregation of the Centenary Methodist Episcopal Church. Douglass based his address on Frederick Lewis Allen's book, Only Yesterday, which is

¹⁹Tulsa Spirit, January 30, 1931, p. 14.

²⁰Ibid.

essentially a resume of American activities from the end of World War I to the great stock market crash in 1929. Allen, Douglass correctly pointed out, did not propose to analyze depression, nor offer a remedy for it. He evaded philosophy, adhering closely to the historical survey.²¹ The object of his sermon, Douglass stated, was to examine conditions in the world and point the way "out of normalcy."²² He continued:

Our problems are grounded in business, politics, crime, poverty, church, school and home. The world needs a present day attitude. So long as men think in terms of 'Jeffersonian Democracy,' 'Old Time Religion,' 'Back to Normalcy,' 'The Good Old Days,' and 'The Old Fashioned Home,' civilization will stagnate. We need men who can think in terms of their own generation.²³

Starting with these basic ideas, the Reverend Mr. Eckel pointed to three basic truths about labor which he believed that Jesus had taught. If these truths were incorporated into the industrial life of the time, recovery would follow and a social order would be created that would endure.

The first truth is that society owes every man a job. The second...is that society owes every man a living wage. The third...that society must make some provision to tide the worker over the periods of enforced unemployment.²⁴

Not every man, in fact not even most men, could have a job if the selfishness of a few was to be allowed to wreck the stability of the American

²¹The book closes enumerating overproduction, prices, silver, international finance, foreign unrest, mental attitudes and general reaction as the seven basic causes of the financial crisis: Frederick Lewis Allen, Only Yesterday (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1931), pp. 342-343.

²²Tulsa Tribune, December 6, 1932, p. 4.

²³Ibid.

²⁴Tulsa World, September 6, 1932, p. 4.

conomy. A living wage would be denied as long as big businessmen were allowed to set the standards. The business of caring for the unemployed must become a duty of the government if the industrialists persisted in neglecting them. Eckel closed his sermon by advocating some form of unemployment insurance.²⁵

In the last months of 1932, therefore, a rather large group of Tulsa ministers had moved philosophically to the advocacy of reforms which the New Deal would soon carry out. They were, in fact, proposing the fundamental political compromise which the administration of Franklin D. Roosevelt would make between unrestrained capitalism and socialism. Church leaders probably recognized that the crisis might make the totalitarian state eventually acceptable to the masses of America, and knew that such a government often left no place for religious groups to function. This seems to be the point that the Reverend John Allen Hudson, minister of the Tenth Street Church of Christ, was trying to make:

Statesmen must thrash out this problem or revolutionary sentiments will be fomented on a giant scale before this nation is aware. Meanwhile the sway of the Gospel of Christ is the one element that can neutralize and balance dangerous tendencies.²⁶

The Tulsa clergymen, however, moved only hesitantly into the realm of politics. In doing so they bumped into a serious question posed by secular authorities: What had the church to do with a man's wages? A sermon by the Reverend Claude E. Hill provoked a letter to the editor of one of the local newspapers which well indicates this sentiment in an extreme form. The writer of the letter declared:

²⁵Tulsa World, September 6, 1932, p. 4.

²⁶Tulsa Tribune, January 12, 1932, p. 4.

Hypocritical professed Christians are mostly responsible for our plight. And that of the world also. Christ.../did not claim/ for himself the last thought as so many of his professed believers do for themselves.²⁷

e ministers were thus forced to justify making the management of the affairs of state and of economics one of their responsibilities.

They found the grounds for this excursion into the political world humanitarianism. Almost unanimously they concluded that there was no excuse for wealthy America to have the poverty which then existed. The Reverend Mr. Hudson openly debated the matter with himself:

But what concern has a minister of the Gospel of Christ with political and governmental problems? He might have as good a conception of such problems, even better in some instances than the average man, but he has another role cast for him. There is /however/ no apology for blundering that needlessly brings human suffering and surely there is something radically wrong when there can be want in a land of plenty.²⁸

ie church must, therefore, go to the aid of those who were deprived. In the words of the Reverend Mr. Eckel:

The silent church, the one that is unresponsive, unsympathetic, selfish in the present stress...it matters not how many services are held within its sanctuary, nor how many jewels shine in the cross upon its altar, nor how many prayers are prayed, that church lacks credentials.²⁹

The extent and intensity of unemployment and poverty caused many churches to abandon all efforts to provide charity or relief for their distressed members. Contributions to Tulsa's denominations had declined drastically during the depression, and in consequence church expenditures had to be curtailed. City-wide expenditures declined from \$1,167,719 in 1926 to \$704,168 in 1936, or from an average of \$13,270 per church to

²⁷Tulsa Tribune, January 2, 1932, p. 20.

²⁸Ibid., January 12, 1932, p. 4.

²⁹Ibid., October 11, 1932, p. 9.

,581.³⁰ The following tables indicate depression effects on total expenditures of two of Tulsa's largest denominations, Baptists and Methodists, by major congregations:³¹

BAPTIST EXPENDITURES³²

Congregation	1929	1930	1931	1932
First.....	\$9,961.53	\$10,793.88	\$6,906.88	\$5,698.57
Manuel.....	\$1,770.99	1,850.92	817.95	517.41
North Trenton..	\$ 38.11	264.53	86.75	169.18
Randall.....	\$ 60.25	19.75	32.91	33.91
Wethel.....	\$ 39.00	119.05	122.35	113.37
Greenwood.....	\$ 241.77	228.67	100.29	127.82
Clinton.....	\$-----	59.33	1.65	36.98
Wagles.....	\$-----	118.47	291.02	397.86
Phoenix Avenue.	\$-----	188.93	156.70	119.83
Wheeler Station...	\$-----	83.85	64.62	173.43
Springdale.....	\$-----	190.53	115.79	116.02
Temple.....	\$-----	3.20	1.25	9.74
Trinity.....	\$-----	15.00	23.25	30.60

METHODIST EXPENDITURES³³

Congregation	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
First.....	\$12,843	\$11,909	\$9,085	\$7,024	\$1,287
Diversity.....	\$ 1,960	1,825	1,272	1,032	342
St. Pauls.....	\$ 2,416	2,613	2,182	1,342	660
Arkview.....	\$ 350	259	159	129	132
Rose Hill.....	\$ 306	409	380	277	180
Wethel-Baldwin.	\$-----	35	78	65	82
West Tulsa.....	\$ 1,071	961	755	623	571

³⁰Religious Bodies, 1926, p. 357; Religious Bodies, 1936, p. 435.

³¹These figures, published by the denominations concerned, may not be entirely trustworthy. The decline in Methodist expenditures during 1933, for example, seems exceptionally sharp. It nevertheless appears safe to accept the validity of trends indicated by these statistics.

³²Minutes of the Twenty-Fourth Annual Convention of the Baptist General Convention of Oklahoma (Shawnee: The Oklahoma Baptist Press, 1929), pp. 23-124; Minutes of the Twenty-Fifth Annual Convention of the Baptist General Convention of Oklahoma (Shawnee: The Oklahoma Baptist Press, 1930), p. 80-81; Minutes of the Twenty-Sixth Annual Convention of the Baptist General Convention of Oklahoma (Shawnee: The Oklahoma Baptist Press, 1931), p. 73-74; Minutes of the Twenty-Seventh Annual Convention of the Baptist General Convention of Oklahoma (Shawnee: The Oklahoma Baptist Press, 1932), p. 107-108.

³³Official Journal of the Thirty-Eighth Session of the Oklahoma Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Methodist Book

Many Tulsa churches were heavily in debt at the onset of the depression, and the congregations had to make strenuous efforts to meet interest and principal payments. Special drives and financial plans were instituted both by denominational leaders and by leaders of local congregations. H. B. Collins, Tulsa district superintendent of the Methodist Episcopal Church, indicated in a 1930 report to the Annual Conference meeting how severe this problem was:

Thirteen banks within the bounds of the Tulsa district have closed their doors this year. Regardless of the statements of optimists that the bad financial conditions are largely a state of mind, it is our opinion that some very grim and concrete facts caused the state of mind. Serious and threatening debts upon nine churches of the district have brought worry and heavy burdens upon pastors and laymen.

Beautiful, commodious and attractive church buildings are to be desired but our people would better worship in a tent, a rough tabernacle, or a rented room, than to assume obligations which are to be a millstone around the neck of Methodism for a generation. Overburdened with debt, pastors and churches find it difficult, and in some cases impossible, to put on an effective program for World Service stewardship and evangelism.³⁴

Because of these financial problems, much of the relief which Tulsa's churches had formerly given had to be taken over by other agencies. Consequently, many ministers felt a sense of defeat in accomplishing the good work for their members. They felt a responsibility to see that the work

ncern Press, 1929), p. 188; Official Journal of the Thirty-Ninth Session of the Oklahoma Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Methodist Book Concern Press, 1930, p. 282; Official Journal of the Fortieth Session of the Oklahoma Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Methodist Book Concern Press, 1931), p. 376; Official Journal of the Forty-First Session of the Oklahoma Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Methodist Book Concern Press, 1932), p. 76; Official Journal of the Forty-Second Session of the Oklahoma Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church (Cincinnati: Methodist Book Concern Press, 1933), p. 162. (Hereafter cited as Official Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933.)

³⁴ Official Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church, 1930, pp. 222-223.

which they had previously controlled through the church was properly carried out by other organizations. They, therefore, supported, and, to some extent, came to regard themselves as leaders of social, political and economic reform.

In interpreting the secular order and proposing reforms for it, these Tulsa Protestant leaders of churches necessarily moved away from conservative religious policy. They emphasized man's initiative and ability to achieve progress. They contended that man could give a rational interpretation to God's message to man. And, in assuming these doctrinal positions, they turned back to the Calvinist-Lutheran Reformation theology.

One direct social effect of the Great Depression on Tulsa, then, was the partial secularization of religion. Relief activities once performed by the church were completely divorced from it, and taken over by other organizations. When the Tulsa ministers reached out to claim leadership over new reforms, they further secularized religion, even though they were actually attempting to spiritualize economics and politics.³⁵

Tulsa's clergymen were also affected in a more personal way by the Great Depression. Pastors' salaries seem to have suffered from a decline in contributions. Although available statistics do not cover all of the city's churches, it can be definitely established that the salaries of ministers in the Methodist Episcopal Church were reduced. The following table indicates the extent of these reductions.³⁶

³⁵During the nineteen-twenties, Tulsa ministers rarely lectured on business or politics. Sermons which were delivered on these subjects seldom, if ever, proposed their reform.

³⁶Official Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church, 1929, p. 180; Official Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church, 1930, p. 270; Official

METHODIST MINISTERS' SALARIES

Congregation	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
First Church....	\$8400	8400	8400	7680	6750
University.....	\$4280	4600	4600	3100	1800
St. Paul.....	\$4600	4600	4105	4200	4200
Ark View.....	\$1562	1337	1500	1180	720
Rose Hill.....	\$1240	1300	1400	1000	1000

The Great Depression, therefore, seems to have carried with it many implications for the churches of Tulsa. A definite increase in church membership was registered during this period of financial crisis, despite the fact that the general population of the city increased almost negligibly. Some students of religion maintain that churches which are dominant now. The reasoning is that those groups which have the largest memberships in any community have a larger proportion of their natural constituencies than do the groups which are in the minority. Moreover, where churches are weak their incoming members do not find them.³⁷ This survey of depression effects in Tulsa supports such an hypothesis. The city's four largest denominations, Baptist, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian and Methodist, all registered sizeable gains in membership.

The depression may also have had a positive effect on religious educational programs. In general the same denominations registered numerical gains in this area as in the category of church membership. The gains were not so great, however, and there was one notable exception. This probably reflects the fact that while more people joined churches during the depression, they failed to participate actively in the total church

Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church, 1931, p. 368; Official Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church, 1932, p. 68; Official Journal of the Oklahoma M. E. Church, 1933, p. 150.

³⁷ Kincheloe, Research Memorandum on Religion During the Great Depression, p. 15.

programs.

Contributions to the Tulsa churches declined during the depression, and as a result expenditures did also. Since a great many of the city's churches had accumulated large debts during the prosperous twenties, the decline in revenues placed church officials under a great strain. Ministers were also made keenly aware of the state of the times by the necessity of counseling individuals who were unemployed or on relief, and who had other financial problems. Aside from these professional relationships with the economic crisis, the ministers suffered personally as their salaries were drastically reduced. All this was reflected in the message of the church.

Ministers spoke more and more on secular subjects as the depression progressed. Most of them attributed the hard time to the sins of the individual. They anticipated the return to the church, which at least in part actually occurred. But they singled out two groups for special criticism. The capitalists, in their opinion, had been most responsible for the depression because they had employed corrupt business methods. The politicians likewise were blamed for doing nothing to regulate the conduct of big business. The opinions of the ministers in political matters, however, may be best described as "middle of the road," since they saw nothing wrong with the existing institutions, but quarreled instead with the way in which they were being used.

CHAPTER VIII

THE IMPACT ON THE FAMILY

Almost every Tulsa family was probably affected in some way by the Great Depression. The nature and extent of the effect depended on a large number of varied factors. It seems certain, however, that the level of income of each family was the most important of these factors. The 36,970 families living in the city in 1929 represented most occupations and nearly every level of wealth.¹ Family activities center around the home, and many families consider the house to be the home. For this reason, in any study of depression effects on the family, the expenditures of these social units for shelter are significant. The amount paid by the family for housing probably reflects, at least to some extent, the total sum which it is able to pay.

The census bureau estimated that 13,852 Tulsa families owned or were paying on their homes in 1929.² Indeed, the percentage of homeowners in the Tulsa population was much greater than that of any other Oklahoma city. This probably resulted from favorable conditions in the nineteen-twenties. An almost unlimited supply of land was available near the industrial districts for the building of houses for workers. This property could be landscaped at little cost. Probably

¹United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930, Population, VI: Families (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 1069 (hereafter cited as Census of Families).

²Ibid., p. 1071.

more important, however, was the intense competition among the various building contractors of the city. The boom period of the preceding decade resulted in over-building by this industry and meant lower costs for home-buyers.³

Those Tulsans who had bought homes prior to the depression, however, did not in a majority of cases purchase the cheaper units. Only 1,733 city dwellings were valued at less than \$3,000.⁴ On the other hand, some 3,107 of them were valued at better than \$10,000.⁵ In fact, the value of property owned by Tulsans was greater than that of the nation as a whole, as the following chart indicates:⁶

<u>Value of Housing</u>	<u>Per-Cent Ownership</u>	
	<u>Tulsa</u>	<u>United States</u>
Less than \$1,000	4.1	7.6
\$1,000 to \$1,999	4.6	5.4
\$2,000 to \$2,999	4.0	5.1
\$3,000 to \$3,999	9.6	11.1
\$5,000 to \$7,499	22.7	22.3
\$7,500 to \$9,999	24.9	21.9
\$10,000 to \$14,999	10.0	9.4
\$15,000 to \$19,999	8.9	8.6
\$20,000 or more	6.2	3.4

The purchase of many of these homes during the supranormal economic period of the twenties, of course, created big problems for the depression family. A large number of foreclosures resulted.⁷ Much resentment toward money-lenders and other protest actions developed

³Southwestern Bell Telephone Company, Economic Survey of Oklahoma (St. Louis: General Commercial Engineering Department, Bell Telephone Company, 1929), p. 258.

⁴Census of Families, p. 1071.

⁵Ibid.

⁶Ibid., p. 17.

⁷See the discussion of the Independent Party in Chapter VI.

among many of the city's families. Extracts from a letter on the matter by a Tulsa citizen offers a sample of this sentiment:

A certain man in 1929 bought a home in Tulsa, made a payment of \$15,000 cash and assumed a mortgage of \$14,500. Yes, it was a very nice home! He was a man of ability and accustomed to some measure of success. But a catastrophe not of his own making struck down his income.

Result: Foreclosure. Judgment. Forced sale on a frozen market. Another American family made homeless; deprived even of their necessities, for of course the money-lender must be protected as to his capital.⁸

Considering that Tulsa was a metropolitan area, few of its families lived in apartments and flats during the years of depression. Most, a total of 21,510 families, lived in private residences. The largest single category of Tulsa's rent-paying families, numbering in all 4,369, paid \$75 or more in rent per month. The next largest group of families in private residences were those who paid \$15 or less per month. There were 3,823 families in this group.⁹ This means that better than one-third of the families of Tulsa who rented private residences lived in either the most expensive or the least costly housing available.

Such a condition suggests that the economic distribution of Tulsa's families was slightly irregular. Although comparable statistics for the entire United States are not available, one would expect to find the bulk of the renters concentrated around the middle of the scale rather than at the upper and lower extremes. This was definitely the case for ten of the other leading cities of the country. It appears, therefore, that through some quirk in its natural development Tulsa

⁸ Tulsa Tribune, February 29, 1932, p. 8.

⁹ A Study of City Markets, 1928-1929 (Philadelphia: The Curtis Publishing Company, 1929), p. 165.

failed to provide the usual economic opportunities to its citizens.¹⁰
The middle group on Tulsa's private residence rental scale, those paying from \$35 to \$45 per month, totaled only 2,262 families. Renters of residences valued at from \$45 to \$75 per month accounted for 6,601 of Tulsa's families, while those living in shelters of this type renting for more than \$15 but less than \$35 numbered 4,995!¹¹

Apartments in the city provided living quarters for 729 families. The owners of this type of housing unit very definitely catered to the more wealthy element. Apartments renting for more than \$75 per month were occupied by 368 families. There were 286 families living in those requiring payments of from \$60 to \$75 per month. In contrast, only fifty-five families lived in the apartments of the city which rented for less than \$45 monthly.¹²

The dominance of the upper class as occupants of the city's flats was only slightly less marked.¹³ For this type of shelter families totaling 272 paid at least \$75 per month. The total number of families occupying flats renting for \$60 to \$75 each month was 539. Six-hundred and forty-one justified their occupancy with payments of from \$45 to \$60 per month. This means that of the 2,129 families living in flats, 1,452 were paying more than the average rental of \$53.

¹⁰A natural surplus of executives, who are generally willing to pay high rents, may well have been a contributing factor.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²A Study of City Markets, 1928-1929, p. 165.

¹³An apartment differs from a flat in that the former is a part of a divided building while the latter occupies an entire structure.

property owners extracted rents of from \$35 to \$45 per month from 315 families, while the other 362 occupants of flats in the city paid less than \$35.¹⁴

Rental statistics, therefore, indicate that Tulsa property-owners were prospering in the pre-depression years. They were, indeed, receiving rental payments that exceeded the median charge from better than half of the occupants of all three types of housing. The apparent willingness of so many people to pay higher rents suggests two interesting possibilities. Probably a considerable number of families were paying higher shelter costs than they could with ease. Any slight readjustment of their economic status would therefore necessitate the abandonment of these quarters. The abnormal number paying higher rents probably raised the prices of all housing considerably, and thus forced the families on the lower rungs of the economic scale to live in quarters which strained their ability to pay.

Regardless of whether these theories are valid, the property owner whose income came from the leasing of homes was severely affected by the depression. The possessor of high priced housing quickly lost many of his renters, who moved to less expensive quarters. Some families, however, could not afford to move, nor could they pay their rents. One landlord expressed his viewpoint on the matter:

I believe the property owners are in worse condition than the tenants, because tenants can move. I believe there are twenty per cent or more tenants unable to pay their rents. That is one reason property owners can't pay their taxes.¹⁵

The condition of landlords made them the worst enemies of transients

¹⁴A Study of City Markets, 1928-1929, p. 165.

¹⁵Tulsa Tribune, April 14, 1932, p. 18.

d the greatest friends of the made-work programs of Tulsa. In early 1932 they attempted to organize a Taxpayers and Citizen's Vigilante League, and, although the movement was ultimately unsuccessful, the discussion concerning it casts much light on the viewpoint of the de-pressed property owner of the city. The group pushing for the organization of such a league demanded that all "contractors doing work for the city of Tulsa and Tulsa county...be required to use legal residents and taxpayers who have...helped build Tulsa."¹⁶ They also advocated a moratorium against building and loan payments, a halt of receiverships and foreclosures of mortgages, and reductions in the salaries of city and county government officials. "We should also investigate the loan shark companies who are preying upon the unfortunate citizens of our city, compel them to operate upon legitimate lines or drive them from the city."¹⁷

The families in Tulsa forced to accept relief were those most aware of the depression. A total of 5,283 families fell into that category during the first three years of the depression. Some 3,470 of these were white, 1,788 Negro and the other 25 were Mexican and Indian.¹⁸ It might be expected that the family with the largest number of members would be most drastically affected by the downturn in the business cycle. This does not seem to have been the case. In fact, 1,416 had no children at all, and 1,025 had only one child.¹⁹ Almost half of the families on

¹⁶Tulsa Tribune, April 14, 1932, p. 18.

¹⁷Ibid., April 30, 1932, p. 28.

¹⁸Federal Emergency Relief Administration, Unemployment Relief Statistics Number One (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1934), pp. 86-87.

¹⁹Ibid.

relief, therefore, were of the smallest size. The larger the family, the least likely it was to be on relief. Recognition must be given to the obvious fact that there were fewer large families than there were small ones. This natural factor no doubt accounts for much of the difference. The following chart indicates the number of relief families by size:²⁰

CLASS	TOTAL	FAMILIES COMPRISING											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Total	5,283	771	1,416	1,025	820	542							
White	3,470	409	858	670	597	396							
Negro	1,788	360	552	353	220	140							
Other	25	2	6	2	3	6							
Total	313	196	119	49	20	8	4						
White	236	149	97	37	11	6	4						
Negro	73	45	22	12	9	2	0						
Other	4	2	0	0	0	0	0						

In addition to its obvious economic difficulties, the Tulsa family on relief had problems of a psychological nature. Most of them were thoroughly discontented with the state of their financial affairs. They are especially unhappy over their dependence on relief. The statements of relief administrators refer again and again to the professed willingness of these people to work for what they received. Said one such official in the spring of 1932:

Too many persons, seeing the groups of idle men on the streets brand them as bums and loafers who wouldn't work if they got the chance. It is the chance they need. They come in here and tell me that they have literally walked the souls /sic/ off their shoes looking for work....²¹

His authority went on to state that the spirits of the unemployed heads of families were being broken by their inability to obtain work, and

²⁰Federal Emergency Relief Administration, Unemployment Relief Census Report Number One, pp. 86-87.

²¹Tulsa Tribune, March 2, 1932, p. 7.

indicated that this was leading to broken homes:

Broken spirits and discouragement come with a man having to go home and tell his wife again that he has failed to find a job. This continued failure has led to many men deserting their families in the belief that the welfare agencies would care for the wife and children while the men would shift for themselves.²²

Another person who had been working as a volunteer in writing grocery orders for the unemployed commented: "We now have...fifty big strong men begging for work for themselves."²³ Another relief official expressed the same conviction and documented it with cases out of the files of the agency in which she worked. One family, which included nine children, was attempting to earn money for food by selling newspapers. An unemployed painter and paper hanger was offering to do anything in order to keep his two daughters in high school.²⁴

While these officials spoke with vigor about the unhappiness caused for the family by its necessity to take relief, the unemployed themselves did not remain silent. In a letter to the editor of the Tulsa Tribune she made the following remarks:

today about sixty able-bodied men went to the commissary and carried away a week's rations and will loaf a week and then go back for another helping. And each day in every week.../we have to/ follow the same routine.... At this same time the city has a contract to construct a viaduct over the railroads at Utica Avenue, for which they will have to pay the contractor cash. For just what reason can't the men who are living on charity (when they don't like to) go down there and tear down the old wooden structure and repay the city for the provisions they got the day before?²⁵

²²Tulsa Tribune, March 2, 1932, p. 7.

²³Ibid., January 4, 1932, p. 8.

²⁴Ibid., March 2, 1932, p. 7.

²⁵Ibid., June 16, 1932, p. 8.

nother person in the ranks of the unemployed relief recipients directed
 pungent appeal for work through the same medium:

I am writing this letter hoping that it may be the means of my obtaining work. Have been a reader of the paper ever since it was established....However, I am not reading it now for the reason I have not the price. I am a landscape gardener and florist, and I know the care of chickens. I do not use tobacco in any form, neither do I drink. In other words, I am strictly sober. A small wage with a suitable place to live would be satisfactory to me.²⁶

rganizations among the unemployed, in particular the Independent Party and the Tulsa Immediate Relief Association, further indicate this feeling of dissatisfaction with a dependent status.²⁷

Despite this fact, there was a continued effort on the part of many expected local citizens to convince the public that degeneration was not far away if something was not done to furnish the unemployed with jobs. The best summary of the literature of this campaign perhaps appeared in an editorial in the Tulsa Tribune which declared:

Hundreds of good steady workers in Tulsa who have been forced to appeal to charity agencies for help during the depression are yet facing a tragic loss of the energy and self-reliance necessary to self-support even in normal times. When unemployment is long delayed, those who are at first uncomfortable at the necessity for seeking assistance and grateful for whatever is given become demanding and grasping. After the initial embarrassment of a first recourse to charity is overcome it is easy to find work, accept a position of dependence, rely on the agency and criticize its methods.²⁸

This is merely one example of the steady stream of such expression. One wonders how many workers gave in to a permanent state of dependence simply because they had heard so many times that it was inevitable. E. B. Howard,

²⁶Tulsa Tribune, January 27, 1932, p. 14.

²⁷See Chapter VI.

²⁸Tulsa Tribune, March 26, 1932, p. 26.

Tulsa County "made-work" administrator for the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, once commented that the "fear of losing the chance to work has been instilled in many of the men dependent on made-work jobs by efforts of 'humanitarians' to shut down the program when the weather turned cold."²⁹

These predictions of irreparable character damage constantly antagonized the families on relief. Even more disturbing, however, were the efforts of some local citizens to force their standards of conduct on families dependent on relief agencies for their subsistence. The lack of independence among these families made them susceptible to criticism of their personal habits by their providers. Some of this showed up in an inoffensive way in the city's commissary program in its second stage, when only a prescribed ration was permitted. It revealed itself in a more destructive form in criticisms of dress, attitude, and habitual indulgences. A good example can be seen with respect to cigaret smoking. On this subject one citizen declared: "How is it they can find money to buy cigarettes but have none to buy bread. We believe in charity but when we help a poor fellow, we would prefer he did not blow smoke in our face."³⁰ The latter type of criticism, however, never gained much currency with Tulsa officialdom.

Tulsa's families on relief maintained a remarkably good spirit despite the criticisms, inconveniences, and general discomfort which they had to endure. It was because of their full cooperation with city officials that most of the relief programs were successful. Nowhere is this

²⁹ Tulsa Tribune, December 18, 1932, p. 4.

³⁰ Ibid., February 25, 1932, p. 18.

Willingness to cooperate better indicated than in connection with Tulsa's vacant lot garden program.³¹ Many made an effort to carry their individual participation in the program beyond the size which the free seed allotment allowed. One man drove a truck for the Family Welfare Society during the winter in order to save enough money to buy a sack of seed potatoes. Then, as he described what followed:

...I went down to a hardware store on First Street and asked 'em what I could do to earn some seed. They set me to work, and I got a lot more. Then I worked out planting some tomatoes for another feller and I got a bunch of tomatoes. I'm going to have just lots to eat this year.³²

The garden program, like all the relief services, had its problems, and at one point the administrators were forced to distribute something less than a variety of seed. A Tulsan who had been unemployed for a full year appeared at relief headquarters in April of 1932 requesting seed. The officials had only beets available. Apparently only mildly discouraged, the man commented:

Mister, you can live on beets, We pretty near lived on 'em last year. I always plant beets when I can get 'em. Why, my wife, she put up 36 one-half gallon jars of beets last summer. We got lots of folks to eat 'em too. Five of us at home, and then some of my older children who's away come back and say: 'Dad, mother, how's the beets?' And mother, she gets out a half-gallon of beets. And boy, sometimes there's some left and sometimes there isn't.³³

All this is not to say that relief recipients never criticized the programs created to benefit them, but for the most part these protests were mild. One group opposed the favoritism which was shown to the heads of families. This group was composed mostly of single men and women who had dependents. They believed that the relief priority given to family

³¹See Chapter II.

³²Tulsa Tribune, April 29, 1932, p. 3.

³³Ibid.

ads was perfectly right, but asked consideration for themselves also, maintaining that they had:

cared for parents, educated young brothers and sisters, made investments in real estate, which they...lost to the mortgage companies, and now...found themselves out of money and not any work or financial aid to be had.³⁴

few Tulsa relievers objected also to the fact that many of the city's retail merchants employed individuals who were not so much in need of work and income as they were. As one complained:

Go into the offices and you will find that young women, usually married, and sometimes living at home, are given the salary so that she might dress more elegantly. Note the fur coats on the streets at the noon hour. Even go into the offices of the Community Fund and you will find a large number of young boys and girls, some from the exclusive homes of the South side. Also many married women, whose husbands have good jobs; the secretary and her sister being members of the latter class.³⁵

Some, though not so many, also criticized the nature of the work they were given to do in the Tulsa made-work program, considering themselves hampered by tasks like picking up scraps and leaves in the parks and on vacant lots.

By far the greatest volume of protest which came from the ranks of the relief families, however, was directed at the city's special commissary plan during the second winter of its operation. The low cost of the rations led many to believe that they were not being given enough to live on.³⁶ Moreover, although the ration was wholesome and adequate, its ingredients were not particularly appetizing to some, consisting of skimmed milk in powdered form, meal and flour and ground beef. The meat

³⁴Tulsa Tribune, December 5, 1932, p. 8.

³⁵Tulsa World, March 28, 1932, p. 8.

³⁶Tulsa Tribune, October 27, 1932, p. 16. For additional details on the program see Chapter IV.

s mixed with about twelve percent powdered milk to create a sausage meat loaf, and was the most unpopular item in the diet. These expressions of dissatisfaction with food supplies by the commissary soon subsided, however, and some of the relievers even became defenders of the program. Their initial flurry of protests seem even less unjust when one considers that the commissary ration had its critics among Tulsa relief officials, and, indeed, even made an enemy of one national journal. An editorial in The Christian Century denounced the plan in the following terms:

...a menu whose monotony might not be revolting to livestock, but can't be any more appetizing to modern humans than were the quail of the desert which in thirty days proved too many for the ancient Israelites. And then there's the spectacle of a young commonwealth of vast resources; in which the best that the free expression of sturdy individualism could produce, after forty years, is a city of redundant skyscrapers, mortgaged cathedrals and two cent charity meals! That there should be any pride in the accomplishment shows how utterly detached from the rational conduct of life our social order now confesses itself to be.³⁷

Of all Tulsa families, those most disturbed by the loss of their economic independence were the white collar workers. To them the prestige factor was apparently as important as the basic desire to provide for their own. Probably no other group in Tulsa, however, achieved more sympathy for their predicament. In past years they had contributed to charity agencies regularly. Now they were forced to turn to the same agencies for aid. Their reluctance to do this prompted the adoption of special policy in their behalf by the Community Fund. Such persons were asked to bring their problems before the agencies through special appointments which would avoid publicity. An official of the Fund justified the policy with the statement that: "People of this type

³⁷"Editorial," The Christian Century, XLIX (April 20, 1932), p.500.

itate to join the regular lines of charity seekers and come to find themselves in desperate straits."³⁸ One relief administrator declared that it was "heart breaking" when she came across the name of some person on the unemployment lists whom she had known in "happier times."³⁹

While most of the white collar workers wanted to keep their conditions as little known as possible, they had the same desire as other earners to register a protest against their situation. While the industrial laborer turned to the Independent Party or to the Tulsa Immediate Relief Association or some similar organization, the white collar workers looked elsewhere. The Socialist Party, with its economic interpretation of history and its general intellectual orientation, proved to be a satisfactory instrument for expressing the protest of many professional and clerical workers. W. L. Garver, secretary of the Socialist Party of Tulsa, credited this factor as being responsible for the rise in strength of the party just prior to the election of 1932.⁴⁰ Despite the fact that Oklahoma's Socialists were denied the ballot in the presidential campaign, Norman Thomas, the Socialist candidate, delivered a political speech in Tulsa. He was greeted by an overflow crowd of some 4,500 when he spoke in the city's Convention Hall.⁴¹

The disenfranchisement of this party by the state election board brought about a liberal protest in the city. This protest drew support from non-Socialists, even from some very orthodox Republicans. When the

³⁸Tulsa Tribune, January 25, 1932, p. 1.

³⁹Ibid., June 18, 1932, p. 8.

⁴⁰Ibid., December 10, 1932, p. 28.

⁴¹Ibid., October 18, 1932, p. 4.

Tulsa Socialists began raising a fund to question the state's electoral
 vote and called for contributions in the name of the "right of suffrage,"
 it was reported that considerable revenue poured in.⁴² Even more signi-
 ficant was the action of Richard Lloyd Jones, editor and publisher of
 the Tulsa Tribune, and an active campaign worker for President Hoover,
 of presenting the issue to the Supreme Court of the United States. His
 letter read:

Has the Supreme Court of the United States the power to protect
 the franchise rights of American citizens? If not, are those
 rights without protection? I am not a Socialist and will not
 vote for Thomas. But in the interest of the American freedom
 of ballot and as an American citizen I respectfully ask, has
 the Supreme Court of the United States no power on its own
 motion to reverse the Supreme Court of Oklahoma which today
 ruled that the Socialist Party cannot appear on the national
 ticket to be voted by Oklahoma citizens next November 8? Has
 any state the power to disenfranchise a national party of the
 Socialists' proportions? By all the processes of reasoning of
 the Oklahoma Supreme Court, any state or group of states could
 have disenfranchised all those who voted for Theodore Roosevelt
 on the Progressive ticket in 1912, and the Republican party
 could never have started. Has the Supreme Court of the United
 States no power, no duty to protect the freedom of conviction
 and the rights of franchise of every American citizen? Should
 not the people's highest court now establish precedent by de-
 ciding and ordering that no state can obstruct a national
 election?⁴³

There is little doubt that the action of Jones, and lesser expressions
 of sympathy with the Socialists by others, was the product of their ex-
 perience in seeing the families of white collar workers lose their income
 and then have their political voice stifled. For Jones, and the others
 as well, had an intimate acquaintance with and respect for the members
 of these families.

The family, of course, formally begins to function in our society

⁴²Tulsa Tribune, October 28, 1932, p.15.

⁴³Ibid., September 27, 1932, p. 16.

ly after a legal marriage ceremony. The number of marriages in any year in any city depends upon a variety of factors--some known and some not known--that induce people to marry. In Tulsa it appears that the descent of the business cycle induced people to refrain from the act. The marriage rate in the city, however, did not fall off abruptly in the first year of the depression as it did in the sociologists' typical American city, Middletown.⁴⁴ Instead it continued a steady climb in numbers which had begun in 1926, and reached an all time high of 1,956 marriages in 1929. This undoubtedly reflects the fact that the latter year was considered by most Tulsans to be perhaps the most prosperous in the history of the city. The full effects of the business slump were not registered until late in 1930.

The fall off in marriages between 1929 and 1930 was negligible, the rate being reduced only from 1,956 to 1,871. Then followed, however, a sharp descent to 1,449 in 1931, and a further decline to 1,144 in 1932.⁴⁵ It seems certain that this lessening of those marrying was attributable, at least to some extent, to the depressed economic conditions. The county

⁴⁴Robert S. and Helen Merrill Lynd, Middletown in Transition (New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1937), p. 152.

⁴⁵United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Marriage and Divorce, 1928 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1930), p. 82; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Marriage and Divorce, 1929 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 82; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Marriage and Divorce, 1930 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1932), p. 83; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Marriage and Divorce, 1931 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 68; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Marriage and Divorce, 1932 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1934), p. 24. (Hereafter cited Marriage and Divorce, 1928; 1929; 1930; 1931; 1932.)

riage license clerk thought so. On one occasion he commented: "In the depression the old saying that two can live as cheaply as one has been found lacking by the young people, and they are afraid to take the risks."⁴⁶ At another time he issued a statement to the press which blamed the slump in marriages on general business conditions, stating that many prospective grooms were coming in for licenses without sufficient funds to pay the fees.⁴⁷ There seems to have been two major ways, therefore, which the depression lowered the Tulsa marriage rate. Both involved the inability to meet financial necessities. Some who would have liked to marry postponed the event for fear that they would be unable to provide for the upkeep of the home. Others were willing to marry but did not have the funds required to make it legal.

The divorce situation in Tulsa during the early years of depression was an unusual one. The theory has been advanced many times that while hard or business conditions cause a decline in the marriage rate, they do not account for the number of divorces. Divorces, however, did not decrease as much as marriages in Tulsa, and the city's number still remained high as compared to the rest of the nation. In 1929 there were 1,307 divorces, in 1930, 1,250, in 1931, 1,058, and in 1932 there were 970.⁴⁸ In all, then, despite the fact that marriages should theoretically be greater in number than divorces, marriages declined by 812, while divorces dropped only 337 in the first three years of the depression.

⁴⁶Tulsa Tribune, December 17, 1932, p. 8.

⁴⁷Ibid., May 7, 1932, p. 2.

⁴⁸Marriage and Divorce, 1928, p. 82; Marriage and Divorce, 1929, p. 83; Marriage and Divorce, 1930, p. 83; Marriage and Divorce, 1931, p. 68; Marriage and Divorce, 1932, p. 24.

Since the decline in the divorce rate was hardly noticeable from 1929 to 1930, many Tulsans did not see the reduction as resulting from the depression. Some of them, indeed, believed that the economic crisis was causing the large number of divorces rather than contributing to a decrease. An economist on the staff of the University of Tulsa believed that the high number of divorces resulted from the frustration of the economic desires of an abnormal number of men who had been earning between \$10,000 and \$15,000 per year. He further commented:

There is to be sure a substantial number of divorces due to absolute poverty. But that number is essentially the same in Tulsa as in other cities, Oklahoma City for example. Our surplus must come from the groups in our citizenship that the average city does not have.⁴⁹

A professor of biology at the University agreed with his colleague that the divorce rate was associated directly with the depression. As to the differences between the rates of Oklahoma City and Tulsa, he felt a "tenor of optimism" caused by "sound economic reasons" was the explanation.⁵⁰

A leading psychiatrist believed that Tulsa was a city of "four-flushers" and that this necessarily led to a high divorce rate. Tulsa, in his opinion, was no longer a boom town economically but still was morally:

Make no mistake about it, the major reason for divorce here or anywhere else is maladjustment in the sex life. In the city of Tulsa you have a most unstable assortment of people. They are pleasure seeking and unsettled in temperament. I believe that there is a greater number of kept women in Tulsa than in any other city in the United States.⁵¹

A woman lawyer who specialized in settling marital difficulties among

⁴⁹ Tulsa Tribune, June 23, 1931, p. 4.

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ Ibid., June 24, 1931, p. 3.

the poorer classes considered "poverty and drink" as the causes of most of the strife and discontent which was leading to Tulsa county divorces. She too, therefore, believed that economic conditions influence the divorce rates. She was convinced that the city was one of extremes--poverty and wealth. As to those impoverished she had discovered that divorce in most of these cases has just one meaning for women--alimony."⁵² The great wealth of the upper economic group resulted in loose conduct socially which, in turn, resulted in divorce.⁵³ If the major motive behind the Tulsa divorce proceedings started by women was alimony, however, any females desirous of their "freedom" were frustrated after January of 1932. At that time, Judge S. S. Clendinning, following up his liberal stand on mortgage foreclosures, began in numerous cases to reduce alimony payments previously ordered. In cases which were now brought before him, Clendinning was slow to grant alimony where no children were involved, and slower still to send men to jail if they could not meet the payments later.⁵⁴

The number of births in Tulsa did not decline during the first three years of the depression. As a matter of fact, they increased yearly until 1932, when they declined only slightly. Perhaps the depression stimulated rather than reduced births. This might have been caused by a new solidarity on the part of the family in the face of the business slump. Moreover, idleness and the lack of funds for amusement and entertainment probably contributed. In considering birth statistics, of course, the

⁵²Tulsa Tribune, June 21, 1932, p. 5.

⁵³Ibid.

⁵⁴Ibid., January 12, 1932, p. 8. For a discussion of Clendinning's earlier liberal decisions, see Chapter VI.

actor of delayed results must be recognized. Thus the decline in birth rates would not show until later in the depression. Unplanned births also have to be considered. The following table indicates the number of Tulsa births for the early depression years.⁵⁵

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number</u>
1928.....	2,186
1929.....	2,214
1930.....	2,266
1931.....	2,293
1932.....	2,114

The Great Depression thus had some important implications for the families of Tulsa. Many of them had purchased homes, some of them quite expensive, during the boom period of the nineteen-twenties and now had to wage a hard struggle to keep them. Tulsa's renter families also were in many cases dislocated since they could no longer afford to pay as much as formerly. There was, therefore, considerable intra-city migration on the part of the families of Tulsa. Other families could not afford to move, and their failure to leave quarters for which they could not pay resulted in eviction or a turn to charity. Either way the families of Tulsa's landlords were affected, and they became an effective pressure group for anti-transient and made-work programs.

⁵⁵United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Births, Stillbirths and Infant Mortality, 1928 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1930), p. 108; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Births, Stillbirths and Infant Mortality, 1929 (Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 156; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Births, Stillbirths and Infant Mortality, 1930 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1932), p. 162; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Births, Stillbirths and Infant Mortality, 1931 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 112; United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Births, Stillbirths and Infant Mortality, 1932 (Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1934), p. 104. Illegitimate birth records are of questionable accuracy, but indications are that the number slightly increased.

The families on relief suffered the most. They were not only forced to live on little, but in many cases were subjected to intense criticism as well. In addition they were disturbed by continued prophecies of their impending doom to a life as parasites. In spite of these difficulties, however, they maintained a good spirit during the early years of the depression. Only a minority of the reliefers criticized the programs which were established to relieve them, and generally these protests were not unjust.

The most embarrassed group among the relief families, and the unemployed generally, were the former white collar workers. Many of them attempted to register their protest through the Socialist Party. This turn to Socialism and the state's denial of the ballot to them, produced a particular current of liberalism in the city.

The number of new families formed in Tulsa during the depression were few, and many old ones broke up. Marriages sharply declined with the business cycle, but the number of divorces seems to have been raised by the depression. Births showed some increase each year until 1932 but declined a little in that year. Without doubt, every Tulsa family was affected in some way when the Great Depression descended upon the city.

CHAPTER IX

THE IMPACT ON EDUCATION

The Great Depression directly affected education in Tulsa by reducing school revenue. Reduced funds made retrenchments necessary. While the danger always exists that curtailments of this type will hamper the effectiveness of the schools, the first three years of the financial crisis did not bring this experience to Tulsa.

Most of the schools of the nation reacted to the problem of reduced funds by releasing part of their personnel. In many instances this resulted in "large classes, crowded classrooms, increased absences, lowered standards, lower quality of work, and finally because of...lost faith in the schools, less income from taxes."¹ Salaries formed eighty per cent of the Tulsa school budget in pre-depression days, and necessarily had to come in for some consideration in any effort at retrenchment.² It was possible to achieve a lower salary outlay either by reducing the earnings of teachers or by dismissing a portion of them. The first step taken by the Tulsa Board of Education was a straight percentage reduction of teachers' salaries. A system-wide lowering of ten per-cent was the

¹ Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, Research Memorandum on Education in the Depression (New York: Social Science Research Council Bulletin Number Twenty-Eight, 1937), pp. 7-8.

² United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1930 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1932), p. 310. (Hereafter cited as Biennial Survey 1928-1930).

principal item in economies effected in drafting the 1931-1932 school budget. An attempt was made, however, to retain salary schedules as a real feature of teachers' contracts. Rather than freezing salary schedules, Tulsa granted its normal increases scheduled, and then made the cut. Increases were halted only to the extent that the usual bonuses for foreign travel and summer session work were discontinued.³

As further reductions were required, higher salaries were trimmed first and most drastically. The lower salaries were reduced only as a last resort. In 1932-1933 all persons who had salaries higher than the revised schedule provided were cut fifteen per-cent. Although the change was not mandatory for administrative leaders, they took this curtailment in salary voluntarily. A five per-cent reduction was made in the salaries of those who had been receiving below \$1600 a year.⁴ Although the salaries of beginning teachers were not so much affected as the pay of experienced teachers and supervisors, they were somewhat lessened. The Tulsa schools now paid entering women teachers \$1,260 per year and starting men teachers \$1,530 annually. The minimum salary previous to the depression had been \$1,900 for men and \$1,600 for women.⁵

In spite of the good intentions of the Tulsa Board, it was forced to release seventeen teachers prior to the 1932-1933 term. No particular sex was discriminated against in these dismissals. In many cities married women were released at the beginning of the depression, but this was not done in Tulsa. Nor did the Tulsa Board in the first three years of the

³Tulsa World, September 1, 1932, p. 12.

⁴Tulsa Tribune, August 25, 1932, p. 2.

⁵National Education Association, Department of Superintendence and Research, Educational Circular Number Three, 1932, p. 3.

pression consider discharging unmarried females in order that more men with families could have work. The ratio between the sexes, as is indicated by the following chart, stayed about the same:⁶

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>
1927-1928	739	112	627
1929-1930	866	132	734
1931-1932	835	126	709

As a result of a policy of dismissing teachers with least seniority first, the average age of the Tulsa teacher, however, did increase. By 1932 women teachers averaged thirty-five years of age, while men teachers were on the average thirty-six.⁷

Where retrenchment was effected by reducing members, staff reorganization became necessary. Several methods were used to increase the work load of the remaining teachers, and thereby fill the gap in the staff. First and most important was an increase in the size of classes toward an average of forty. Major school systems throughout the country were already above this point when Tulsa made its move.⁸ In addition, three administrators were given teaching assignments.⁹

To avoid heavily over-loading the teachers, the Tulsa Board resorted to other tactics as well. A rule was introduced requiring a higher testin average for admitting under-age children to school.¹⁰ This resulted in

⁶Biennial Survey, 1928-1930, p. 125; United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1930-1932 (Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1934), p. 127. (Hereafter cited as Biennial Survey, 1930-1932).

⁷Tulsa Tribune, February 7, 1932, p. 10.

⁸National Education Association, Department of Superintendence and Research, Educational Circular Number One, 1931, p. 4.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰National Education Association, Department of Superintendence and Research, Educational Circular Number Nine, 1933, p. 4.

ome reduction in enrollment. The device of double-promotion was used judiciously in the elementary schools to help balance the size of classes. Every such pupil elevation saved the taxpayers approximately \$40. Double-promotions were used only when pupils were developed sufficiently to merit promotion. The action was based on intelligence tests and the judgment of principals and teachers.¹¹ Some of the seventeen teachers who were dropped from the school system were saved by curriculum rearrangements. For example, two teachers in the junior high schools were saved by an adjustment of time spent on English and on Industrial Arts or Home Economics in the seventh grade. The school health department as a separate unit was eliminated, its salaries being included with those for instructional employees, with the justification that "the purpose and intent of the health department is instructional service."¹² All employees in the health department were forced to obtain teaching certificates from the state board of education before signing contracts for 1932-1933.¹³ Finally, the line of division between the two junior high schools was moved. The boundary was relocated in such a manner as to eliminate small classes in both schools.¹⁴

Before any of these reductions were made by the Tulsa Board in the areas of instruction and personnel, huge curtailments were effected in the system's construction and upkeep expenditures. Building programs were halted, and only worn-out equipment was replaced in the existing structure. The only repairs made were those "necessary to preserve the investment of

¹¹Tulsa World, September 10, 1932, p. 6.

¹²Tulsa Tribune, October 14, 1932, p. 4.

¹³Ibid., August 28, 1931, p. 2.

¹⁴Harlow's Weekly, August 29, 1931, p. 6.

taxpayer."¹⁵ Expenditures of this type were reduced from \$794,177 in 1927-1928 to \$92,286 in 1931-1932.¹⁶

Superintendent of Schools Merle Prunty determined to enlist his teaching staff in the economy effort. They were, therefore, instructed concerning the school budget. Prunty explained the procedure used:

First, get the teachers together and decide what to teach, that is building a curriculum. Then, assemble the teachers again and determine the best and most economical way of presenting this material...third...make the teachers aware of the entire budget structure.¹⁷

Actually the Tulsa schools received a large share of total expenditures. Indeed, they received a far greater sum than the educational systems of most towns during the early depression years. The percentage of the total payroll which education received, however, steadily declined. In 1929 60.5 per-cent of the city expenditures were for the schools, in 1930, 56.3, in 1931, 55, followed in 1932 by a slight gain to 56.7 per-cent.¹⁸

Not until the beginning of the 1932-1933 school term did the members of Tulsa's teaching profession begin to warn the people that retrenchment was likely to damage or was already damaging the schools. In an address to the staff of the system at the beginning of that year, Prunty pointed out several ways in which teachers could seek to gain greater support from

¹⁵Harlow's Weekly, April 2, 1932, p. 8.

¹⁶Biennial Survey, 1928-1930, p. 192; Biennial Survey, 1930-1932, p. 93.

¹⁷Tulsa Tribune, January 17, 1932, p. 4.

¹⁸United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, State, County, and Municipal Survey of Government Employment and Payrolls, 1929 through 1938, "The City of Tulsa and Tulsa County Oklahoma" (Washington: The United States Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 8.

a public. He suggested that teachers, regardless of what grades they might, could impart to their pupils facts about school organization and budget. Comparison, he suggested, could be made between school costs and the costs of entertainment. This was the fundamental element in a long range program to cultivate the support of the next generation. Second, he urged teachers to visit the homes of their students to inquire about the well-being of the child. This would, he felt, win the support of the parent. Prunty also advised the mailing of letters, reports and other materials to the parents which emphasized the important points in the schools' service. Finally, he urged that teachers and principals take a larger part in civic and community life. In this way they could win for the school the approval of those who could lead in efforts to improve the situation. He concluded:

...the keynote of recovery from today's conditions must be careful planning in the light of facts and needs...recovery must inevitably be slow and gradual. The schools can help by placing their own house in order, by recognizing the relationship between taxation and the general economic life of the nation, and by insisting that the money which is spent for the schools shall be spent with the utmost efficiency at the point where it will accomplish the most good.¹⁹

Enrollment in the Tulsa schools increased only slightly during the early years of the depression. During the 1929-1930 school term the total enrollment was 32,083. It arose only to 32,328 by the 1931-1932 school term. The increase in average daily attendance from 24,443 to 25,792 was somewhat greater than the rise in enrollment. Since the school population, meaning all those under the law eligible to go to school, increased by almost nine thousand during this period, it seems

¹⁹Merle Prunty, "What Can We Do?" The Oklahoma Teacher, 14 (February, 1933), p. 14.

ely that the depression had some effect on the number in attendance. this was true, the fact that more students attended regularly might mean that the group no longer in school normally showed up less often in classes. There seems to have been no significant change in the sex ratio of those in school. Boys outnumbered girls 16,104 to 14,974 in the school year of 1929-1930, and the girls, with 16,052 enrolled, gained slightly on the boys, who had 16,276 in school, in 1931-1932.²⁰

Whatever the case may have been with respect to attendance and enrollment, there is little doubt that the depression created special problems for the students of these years of economic crisis. This is dramatically indicated by the several policies adopted by the school administration during these years to aid the unfortunate students. Few, if any, Tulsa school children were deprived of education through inability to purchase the necessary books. Appropriations of the Oklahoma legislature for free text-books had never been adequate, but the Tulsa system had managed a partial distribution of books on its own during the nineteen-ties. In the elementary schools all texts were loaned to students. Senior high school students received their books for required subjects free, but had to purchase those to be used in optional subjects. It was, therefore, the students from the ninth grade upwards, if they were in poor economic condition, who had the most severe problem to face in the depression.

School administrators adopted a policy in the 1929-1930 school term whereby students would not have to worry over the text-book problem. In cases where students or their parents were able to show that they actually

²⁰Biennial Survey, 1928-1930, p. 125; Biennial Survey, 1930-1932, 127.

ould not purchase the volumes, any student could obtain free texts in required subjects. The student or parent simply applied to the principal of the school for his district, who immediately wrote an order for the books. The school authorities then drew upon the county for the cost. In the meantime an investigation was made to determine the true facts in each case. If the condition of the student and family had been correctly stated, the student remained in possession of the books. No publicity attended the requirements. This was purposefully arranged in order that the students would not be embarrassed.²¹

Although Tulsa had an attendance and guidance department before the depression, its functions and policies were considerably altered by the decline in business. A placement service was established within it to seek work for high school students. Many students were enabled to continue in school as a result of the part-time-work they received through this service. The placement bureau also sought permanent jobs for the graduates of the high school.²² Many other students were able to continue attending school largely because of the ten-cent lunch which was made available or by other means that were provided.²³

The most important change which is observable in the activities of the Tulsa schools during the first three years of the depression related to the curriculum. Although no courses were completely dropped, at least one new course was added, and significant alterations were made in the existing subjects. The most profound developments took place in the social science

²¹Tulsa World, September 9, 1932, p. 12.

²²Tulsa Tribune, November 14, 1931, p. 6.

²³See Chapter II.

urses, and these changes were directly caused by the down-turn in the business cycle and the reconstruction of thought caused by that decline. Realizing, as a result of the depression, that there had to be some social planning if the American culture level was to be maintained, the social sciences were selected as the area where this kind of training could be provided.

A new curriculum of social studies was worked out by a committee of Tulsa teachers, headed by assistant superintendent Will French, and put into operation with the beginning of the 1932-1933 school year. As a course of study, it represented an evaluation of all material taught in the social sciences and in reading courses. The material was arranged in an instructional pattern that ran through the fourth, fifth and sixth grades and the entire junior high school period.

French and his committee believed that the social sciences are concerned with the whole process of living. They did not think that a certain period could be set aside each day for the study of each of the social science disciplines. Rather they considered the problem to be one of finding "all education in the schools to magnify the social importance of the things which are read and studied." They rejected the theory of the social sciences which calls for the teaching of straight facts. The program which they attempted to set up called for an interpretation of the facts. The plan worked out in Tulsa was allied to the indoctrination philosophy of education which had developed in the late nineteen-twenties and early nineteen-thirties at Teachers College, Columbia University. This philosophy recognized education as a social tool with which children's social attitudes could be shaped.²⁴

²⁴Harlow's Weekly, February 11, 1932, p. 4.

The Tulsa committee developed six social viewpoints as the core of course. Rearrangement of material and reintegration of courses was done with these objectives in mind. The six social viewpoints were:

1. Social change is both inevitable and desirable... The adult generation can no longer pass on...solutions to social problems. Children should be taught to be expectant of social change.
2. Social and economic planning is necessary. Maximum benefits from change can be achieved only when it is a guided and directed movement. The rotting fruits of a planless social and economic order are now everywhere more evident.
3. Interdependence is a fact of modern social living. Desirable plans of social welfare cannot be reached through a program of isolation and sectionalism.
4. Competition and its inherent individualism...has been emphasized to a degree not justified in present day living.
5. Tolerance must break down prejudices. Deep-rooted, unreasoned prejudices obstruct the stream of social progress.
6. Human beings are more important than things. The prime purpose of American government is to protect people not property.²⁵

With the adoption of these objectives, the Tulsa schools brought a stern reprimand against the American institutions and ideology which the Great Depression had caused to be questioned.

A new course which obtained a place in the Tulsa curriculum during the 1932-1933 term also indicates the influence of the depression on the instructional program. The course was entitled: "Making the Most of One's Leisure Time." A local administrator attempted to justify the course:

The time when schools needed to apologize for teaching children worthy use of leisure time is past. We are going to have leisure whether we want it or not. It is being forced on us. And it is up to the school to find pleasant, profitable, social and valuable use for leisure time.²⁶

Before the end of 1932 the Tulsa schools had definitely felt the impact of the Great Depression. The curriculum was most importantly

²⁵Tulsa Public Schools, Teacher's Guide to the Social Studies, (Tulsa: Tulsa Public Schools, 1932), p. i.

²⁶Harlow's Weekly, July 1, 1933, p. 15.

ected by the depressed conditions. For the first time the school attempted to form certain basic student social attitudes. The schools were affected quickly with the problem of lowered revenues, but the reduction was not so great as it was in many other American cities. Teachers' salaries were lowered, and eventually a few teachers were released. Employment policies of the Tulsa school system, however, did not discriminate against men--married or single.

Larger classes were necessary, but the Tulsa schools had been well below the national average in this respect prior to the depression, and the increase created no major problem. Various other methods were used to fill the gap caused by the decrease in teachers. The first voices were raised by the teachers of Tulsa against retrenchments late in 1932, protests which would grow ever louder in the years to follow.

The depression may have reduced enrollment, since fewer of those eligible to attend actually went to school during this period. Several special services were provided for the unfortunate student by the schools in order that he could continue to attend. These included free textbooks, aid in obtaining part-time employment, the ten-cent school lunch, and sometimes clothing. The depression consequences for the city's educational system, while severe, do not appear to have been as drastic as for some of the other institutions of Tulsa.

CHAPTER X

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Tulsa first felt the full force of the Great Depression during the winter of 1931. Some unemployment and deprivation preceded that date, but the rather unusual nature of the city's economic institutions obscured it. An international event, the depression had many roots, but perhaps its major cause was over-expansion of business in the nineteen-ties. In Tulsa, which had never developed a diversified economy, the crisis was precipitated by over-production in the oil industry.

The depression was not sudden, but it was unexpected, and Tulsa, like the rest of the nation, was unprepared to cope with the critical problem of unemployment. Oklahoma law vested relief responsibility in the county, but Tulsa County's funds proved inadequate to meet the needs of the people during the first depression winter. A private organization, the Family Welfare Society, had to come to the rescue. City officials organized two employment bureaus and encouraged businessmen to keep all employees at work in their plants, but nevertheless the crisis deepened.

Eventually, as conditions failed to improve, Tulsa adopted a make-work program in which the unemployed were given jobs on public projects. Workers in this program were paid in scrip, a form of credit slip. This scrip could be used to buy food and clothing wholesale in a specially established commissary or in payment for necessary items such as shelter, lighting, heat and water. Subsidiary programs provided the unemployed with free meals and medical attention, assisted them in retaining possession of

their housing and public utility service, and distributed some clothing. School children were later the beneficiaries of a ten-cent lunch. Tulsa authorities were strongly hostile toward transients throughout the crisis, but the discovery of squalid migrant camps finally induced them to aid such persons with temporary room and board.

The temporary success of these quickly drafted policies was deceptive. Their adoption promoted a variety of disputes. Exacting investigations of candidates for the made-work program produced friction between Tulsa officials and the administrators of Governor Murray's state relief program. When Murray attempted to establish soup kitchens in the city, the conflict was intensified. Locally, the supervisors of public and private charity were soon at odds. They disagreed mainly over methods of dispensing relief. Economic expediency was the predominant objective of the city, while the non-public agencies demanded time-consuming and costly professional social-work techniques.

Perhaps the sharpest of the struggles, however, resulted from the county's continued failure adequately to finance Tulsa relief work. Unable to do so in 1931, the county commissioners were unwilling to do so in 1932. The county's attitude won the disapproval of relief recipients, the city administration, professional charity agencies and many private citizens. A large group of Tulsa women, representing the social clubs of the city, undertook to strengthen this opposition by uniting these diverse groups. A successfully organized Emergency Council threatened to ask the Oklahoma Attorney-General to intervene, but this move did not inspire the county to accept a larger share of the charity burden. Undaunted by this failure, the Council next undertook to petition the Excise Board, an agency thought to be legally capable of altering the controversial county budget. Although the Excise Board enlarged the relief allotment, the raise was

nsiderably inadequate. Consequently, the city was forced to continue providing most of the required finances.

During this financial controversy, many charges of inefficiency and several hints of political corruption were directed at the county commissioners. Dr. John E. Brindley, a tax expert, subsequently investigated Tulsa county government, and proved the validity of several of these charges. But even honesty would not have been enough. Maximum results were not being achieved with the money which was available. Tulsa was separately in need of a more effective relief-dispensing organization.

City authorities seem first to have recognized this need in the fall of 1931. At that time Tulsa was obviously facing another crisis in its attempts to aid the unemployed. The city's original made-work program had been allowed to lapse. Its single summer replacement was a substantially inadequate vacant-lot garden program. These developments partly were caused by the shortage of funds, but they also reveal the failure of Tulsa officials to fully comprehend the depression's scope. The results of this stop-gap seasonal approach to relief were not encouraging. The controversy between public and private charity methods, the uncooperative financial policy of the county commissioners, and the need to serve ever greater numbers of the deprived were just as discouraging.

Having identified these shortcomings, many Tulsa authorities were now convinced that relief must be centralized. The Chamber of Commerce took the lead by appointing a fact-finding committee to survey depression-associated charity work in the city. Declaring cooperation to be essential, the fact-finders recommended the creation of a Central Emergency Committee of Five. This body would attempt to eliminate duplication of effort by existing agencies, and replace the dole with employment wherever possible. The city, county, and private charity organs quickly approved the proposal,

d shortly the first Committee of Five was appointed. Virtually every aspect of Tulsa's relief program was now brought under the committee's control.

The most controversial obligation of the Committee of Five was the most important task of selecting basic procedures for aiding the unemployed in Tulsa. At least three different types of relief had been proposed. One group led by the city administration, wanted another made-work program. Others, including federal representatives, preferred a system of direct relief. They argued that made-work was more expensive and that it did not reach all who were in need. Still another faction suggested leaving the whole problem to the state. Tulsans differed sharply also as to how their program should be financed. Mayor Watkins wanted to use \$900,000 in illegally collected taxes, rather than returning it to the taxpayers. Several others, who of course favored direct relief, wanted to grow food or buy wholesale from farmers for distribution to the needy. A few city residents advocated the establishment of a cooperative farm where men could work for their food. A final proposal was that the necessary extra income accumulated by a raise in water rates.

After considerable debate, the Committee of Five adopted essentially the same program the city had used the previous winter. Again, the major features of Tulsa's relief organization were to be a system of made-work and a commissary. Rejecting all proposed financial plans, committee members agreed that part of the water department's budget should be diverted to finance a \$100,000 reservoir and extensive playground improvements in Mohawk Park. In order to curtail all unnecessary expenditures, they ordered a more thorough investigation of all applicants for aid. Recognizing, however, that this program still could not provide enough jobs for all the unemployed, the committee encouraged various supplementary

asures to support it. Private citizens were urged to give temporary part-time jobs to the unemployed. Tulsa's club women, at the request of the committee, made a special effort to secure work for women who had lost their positions because of the depression. The city street department replaced machinery with additional men, with regular department employees donating a portion of their income to provide salaries for the new workers.

The Committee of Five also revised and expanded the commissary. Now converted into a central purchasing agency, it aided the relief work of both city and county. The former open-shelf grocery store procedure was abandoned. Major John Leavell devised a standard ration which was distributed to all participants in the city's program. At the amazing low cost of forty-two cents, food containing 2800 calories was provided. The rather unattractive nature of the diet provoked some criticism, both locally and nationally, but the complaints were mostly mild. The fact that other cities, states and even foreign countries eventually established similar commissaries reveals the ultimate success of the plan.

The Committee of Five was outstanding for its accomplishments in organization. The smoothly operating machine which it created enabled Tulsa effectively to care for its vastly increased number of dependent families during the opening months of 1932. In dealing with the sadly familiar problem of finances, however, the Committee of Five failed as completely as its predecessors. With their entire program stalled, the discouraged committee members resigned in early spring. Still desiring to do some work, city officials searched unsuccessfully for a means. A bond issue to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation was attempted, but that new federal agency seemed disinterested. Tulsa then intended to reduce the size of the bonds and sell them locally, but a legal obstacle thwarted

his plan also.

Varied minor programs, none publicly sponsored, had to fill the vacuum. Too few citizens agreed to hire the unemployed as part of a campaign to beautify Tulsa. City and county employees and some businessmen boosted relief with individual contributions, but the total collections were negligible. In the summer of 1932, therefore, Tulsa resorted to soup-kitchen style charity. At key city locations, firemen dispensed rations donated by farmers and gathered by voluntary organizations such as the Tulsa Immediate Relief Association.

Tulsa's relief population was unexpectedly saved by the federal government. In July, 1932, Congress permitted the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to make temporary loans to the most depressed states. Governor Murray quickly qualified Oklahoma for such a loan, and Tulsa, which earlier had rejected state aid, requested a portion of the funds. After some discussion, Murray granted the city \$146,000 for a new state-supervised made-work program. The program eventually gave 1,000 Tulsans three days work weekly at \$2.40 per day. Nor were the ladies neglected. Women were employed making clothes for the needy and as secretarial help in charity agencies. In federal intervention, therefore, Tulsa finally found a solution for its persistent and crucial problem of relief finance.

Meanwhile, government aid seeming ineffective, Tulsa's unemployed formed various organizations to improve their own position. The largest and most active of these groups was the Independent Party. The Party blamed the depression on capitalistic greed, but proposed no radical solutions. Partly because of their agitation, Tulsa's courts limited mortgage foreclosures, the water department continued supplying destitute Tulsans, and hospitals lowered medical costs for the unemployed. Closely watching relief administration, the Independents found men working full schedules

for the city in return for food, and insisted they be paid regular wages. Although the practice was halted, Tulsa officials would not grant back pay. Contending that the county should supervise relief, the Party then demanded termination of the Committee of Five and all its policies. When this demand was also rebuffed, they requested a state investigation of city charity work. Mrs. Mabel Bassett, Oklahoma Commissioner of Charities and Corrections, conducted an inquiry, but completely approved Tulsa's program.

Opposed to a dole, the Independent Party advocated distributing available work among all the jobless. In Tulsa, however, business leaders feared higher labor costs, and government officials believed employment proration would strain public budgets and delay vital projects. With both public and private enterprise opposing their policy, the party attempted to secure direct Committee of Five representation. City and county agencies had already chosen four members of this body. Charging industrial domination of the committee, the Independents demanded the right to select the fifth officer. Should that privilege be denied, they hoped for the acceptance of their proposed solution to the unemployment problem as consolation. Needing public support badly, the original committee members added a pro-labor spokesman, and shortly all officially approved proration. Because the policy was recommended rather than ordered, however, few industries and public projects were prorated. Although never fully successful locally, the Independents sent an outstanding representative to the Memphis Unemployment Relief Conference in August, 1931. United States Senator Elmer Thomas, a leading Congressional monetary reformer, persuaded the Conference to condemn the dole and propose national proration.

Hoping to regain their independence, some party members and other

Dissatisfied Tulsans established a large Arkansas colony. With fertile oil and many other resources available, the project seemed economically sound. The colonists formed a government and planned educational and religious facilities. The land was collectively held at first, but each settler could, for a modest investment, eventually own an individual portion. Cooperation and typical frontier ingenuity prevailed at the start, but a monotonous diet and severe financial difficulties soon disrupted harmony. In Tulsa, moreover, Dr. Herbert Clough, the colony's founder, after charges of misappropriating funds, resigned his post. With tempers short, a minor quarrel over rations soon erupted into a violent struggle for governmental control. National guardsmen quelled the disorder, but peace was not completely restored until the "rebels" were expelled and a new regime installed. And, although temporarily sustained by the enterprise, these migrant Tulsans never really prospered.

Members of the Tulsa Immediate Relief Association lacked interest in colonization, but they also attempted to look after themselves. The Association, among other projects, gathered farmers' crops on shares and divided the produce among its membership. After providing for its own needs, the Association rendered vital help to less fortunate city residents. This group's success inspired the development of additional self-help associations in Tulsa. All these organizations, by advertising their viewpoint, helped develop a better understanding between the dispensers and recipients of relief.

The mental and physical adjustments of Tulsans to the problem of unemployment relief are mostly obvious. Other depression-engendered social modifications in the city, though just as important, are far less apparent. Both directly and indirectly, the vastly changed economic

circumstances altered the social groups and institutions of the community by reshaping individual conceptions of their roles, values and desirability. Thus, the depression had a significant impact on religion, on the family, and on education.

The economic crisis brought about a great spiritual resurgence among the people of Tulsa. This is evidenced by a substantial increase in membership in the various religious denominations of the city. Revived religious feeling was not limited to selected faiths, but encompassed them all. Greatest membership increases, however, were made by the larger denominations of the city--the Baptist, Methodist and Roman Catholic establishments. Accelerated participation in the activities of the church, especially in the area of religious education, indicates that new spiritual alliances were not shallow. The depression naturally reduced the income of the churches, and consequently placed limitations on the expenditures of the worshipping organizations. Unable to continue their normal charity work in the emergency, the ministers of the city's various denominations began to speak out more on the social problems of the times. Blaming the economic plight on the bosses of big business, they advocated a solution which proved very similar to that which was later carried out by Roosevelt.

Fewer Tulsa families were established during the first three years of the depression. Although it is impossible to prove that the depression helped reduce the number of marriages, many local citizens believed this to be the case. The crisis undoubtedly broke up some city families, but divorces did not increase greatly. Births do not seem to have declined importantly between 1929 and 1932. Those families of Tulsa in relief were, of course, most extensively affected by the depression. Few families enjoyed economic dependence, and most hoped and worked for

return to their previous status. Nevertheless, all seemingly appreciated the aid given, and they directed little criticism at either the amount or methods of relief.

Some retrenchment was necessary in education, but Tulsa appears to have fared better in this area than many American cities. Every effort was made to avoid reducing the quality of schooling during the emergency. A few teachers lost their employment, and all were forced to accept less pay, but the instructional staff was not seriously overloaded. Classes increased in size, but the city's classes were well below the national average before the depression. The most important consequence of the economic crisis for Tulsa education was changes in the curriculum. In the social science courses, Tulsa's educators rejected traditional concepts of rugged individualism and laissez-faire economics, and made an effort to promote social planning.

Since the stock market crash in October of 1929, the economic collapse had affected nearly every Tulsan and most city organizations. Jobs had been lost, business firms closed, relief provided, attitudes altered, controversies sparked and resolved, new organizations created, and the traditional functions and characteristics of homes, schools, churches, and even governments modified. And no end was yet in view for the Great Depression.

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