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to refuse induction because the nonresistant draftee could perhaps secure an agricultural furlough.[45]

A few weeks after the first registration date Ewert suggested that a number of informed men from Mennonite communities should begin to tend to the Mennonite draftees' legal as well as spiritual afflictions. The Hillsboro columnist himself assumed that responsibility and personally counselled many Mennonite men during the war.[46] In his articles published in the *Vorwaerts* he reached many more.

There is very little indication as to how non-Mennonite citizens accepted Ewert's and Schellenberg's articles in the *Vorwaerts*. Schellenberg, however, had difficulty with another one of his newspapers, the *Zionsbote*. A self-appointed investigator informed the federal government that Schellenberg in the *Zionsbote* was "radically pro-German and always has been making light of the government. . . . His paper is comparatively clean, except his editorials, in which he often attacks the government directly or indirectly. Some of his utterances come very near exciting riots."[47] Although the informer did not mention the *Vorwaerts* in his denunciation, since Schellenberg followed a similar editorial policy in both newspapers, the investigator would have surely passed the same judgment on the *Vorwaerts*. In the summer of 1917, the *Vorwaerts* indicated that it and other German-language newspapers were under attack from Gov. Arthur Capper. According to the *Vorwaerts*, the governor maintained that all German-language newspapers were disloyal and anti-American, and brave Americans had been misled by them. "According to him, a German newspaper should no longer be allowed to publish at all." *Vorwaerts* retorted by exclaiming that the governor could probably not read a word of German.[48] Despite the questionableness of Capper's or other Americans' competency with the German language, they were becoming suspicious of the German-language press.

In October, 1917, congress passed the first law in the country's history for the specific control of the foreign-language press. The law prescribed that all printed matter about the war found in a foreign-language newspaper had to be translated and filed with the local postmaster. Only until the government was convinced of the loyalty of a foreign-language newspaper was the newspaper exempt from the cumbersome filing procedure. Editor Schellenberg

45. *Vorwaerts*, March 22, 1918.
46. *Ibid.*, July 13, 1917.
47. Schellenberg, "Editor Abraham L. Schellenberg," *Mennonite Life*, p. 26.
48. *Vorwaerts*, August 17, 1917.

commented only briefly about the law but hinted that it was really a type of censorship. "We must first adjust ourselves to it [the law], and then we will print as much as we can or may."[49] Editor Schellenberg mentioned in his other newspaper, the *Zionsbote*, that he had discussed the law with the Hillsboro postmaster, and the postmaster had confided in him that within the next few weeks the local post office expected not to be troubled any more by processing translations for the community's foreign-language newspapers.[50] But the *Vorwaerts* never secured an exemption permit. Its sister general conference newspaper, the *Herold* in Newton, was free from submitting translations within a few weeks of the passage of the law.[51] As a comparison, one year after the enactment of the law every important newspaper in Ohio with the exception of the *Waechter und Anzeiger* was issued a permit.[52] The situation in Ohio could divulge much about the *Vorwaerts* and its attitude towards the war, because the Hillsboro paper continually reprinted articles from the *Waechter und Anzeiger* throughout the war.[53]

IV. RENDERING TO CAESAR

The *Vorwaerts* first revealed its critical attitude about the war in its comments concerning Liberty Bonds. Shortly after America's entrance into the war, congress authorized the issuance of Liberty bonds to raise money for the American war effort. In response to the first bond issue in the summer of 1917, the *Vorwaerts* remarked that the buying of bonds was not necessarily a proof of patriotism. John D. Rockefeller, the newspaper asserted, bought $5,000,000 worth of bonds. Two days after the purchase, though, the price of gasoline went up two cents. "Morgan, Rockefeller and similar patriots buy these bonds out of thriftiness. They save, by this, the war taxes on their incomes as well as all other taxes which are levied by the state or municipality."[54] But patriotic, public-minded Americans did not heed such cries of outrage from the *Vorwaerts*.

In every small community across the United States, a bond committee was established to publicize and facilitate the sale of Liberty Bonds. The Hillsboro community had such a committee. In early

49. *Ibid.*, October 12, 1917.
50. *Zionbote*, Hillsboro, October 17, 1917.
51. The author surveyed the issues of the *Herold* from October, 1917, to April, 1918, and found no indication of filing translations. Under the law, any newspaper had to state before every article pertaining to the war that a translation had been filed. Before no article could that statement be found.
52. Carl Wittke, *The German-Language Press in America* (Lexington, University of Kentucky Press, 1957), p. 265.
53. *Vorwaerts*, February 22, March 22, September 6, and October 11, 1918.
54. *Ibid.*, July 8, 1917.

1918 this committee announced the campaign for the third issue of Liberty Bonds on the front page of the *Vorwaerts*. The advertisement stated:

> Anyone who refuses to support this loan is comparable to the person who says that it does not matter what happens to our soldiers and land. No German-American places a few comforts before his country, his flag, and his defenders.[55]

In nearly every issue in 1918 two or three pages of the eight-page newspaper were dedicated to stimulate the sale of war bonds and to create enthusiasm for the war. To refuse to print such material furnished by the government would probably have exposed the *Vorwaerts* to charges of disloyalty.[56] It must have satisfied non-German Americans who glanced through the newspaper to discover one quarter of it filled with war propaganda. But usually the press releases from the government were in English, and Schellenberg neglected to translate them into German. It is doubtful that many of his Mennonite readers could clearly understand them. Editor Schellenberg and columnist Ewert expressed their true opinions about Liberty Bonds in the German section of the newspaper.

They, like many of the Mennonite brethren, agreed that Liberty Bond purchases contributed directly to the war effort. Thus these purchases were morally wrong. During the war there were many incidents in which Mennonites were caustically denounced and physically abused for their refusal to buy Liberty Bonds. Pressured by hostility and intimidation from the local community, many Mennonites purchased war bonds.[57] Ewert, though, held fast to his beliefs and expressed them in the *Vorwaerts*. In the same issue that the local Liberty Bond committee announced the third issue of bonds, he denounced the committee for employing high-pressure tactics to force people to purchase the voluntary bonds.[58] To raise the necessary money for the war, Ewert instead suggested an increase in federal taxes.

> One can console himself with the words from the Holy Scripture: "Render therefore unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's; and unto God the things that are God's." Let us request the government impose the wanted sum as compulsory tax so that we can also truly "give" according to the Lord's word without collecting interest from the matter.[59]

The columnist also recommended that Mennonites who had already bought Liberty Bonds should turn them over to the Red Cross. By

55. *Ibid.*, April 19, 1918.
56. Wittke, *The German-Language Press in America*, p. 267.
57. H. C. Peterson and Gilbert C. Fite, *Opponents of War, 1917-1918* (Madison, University of Wisconsin Press, 1957), p. 143. Guy F. Hershberger, *War, Peace, and Nonresistance* (Scottdale, Pa., The Herald Press, 1944), pp. 122-123.
58. *Vorwaerts*, April 19, May 3, 1918.
59. *Ibid.*, April 19, 1918.

doing this, they would not have to excuse themselves for making money from the war, and the government would also obtain a significant sum for Red Cross hospital work.[60]

Although some Mennonites opposed supporting the war by purchasing Liberty Bonds, they nevertheless wanted to contribute to the American cause.[61] Aaron Loucks, chairman of the old Mennonite conference committee on nonresistance, suggested a solution to the dilemma in a circular letter published in the *Vorwaerts*. He recommended that Mennonites purchase Farm Loan Bonds. "Investing in Farm Loan Bonds," he argued, "would not compromise our faith in the principles of non-resistance." This federal loan program, enacted before America's entry into the war, provided capital for farmers to purchase land and liquidate mortgages. "This," Loucks asserted, "is in no sense a war measure." Yet the pacifistic Mennonites could prove their willingness to share the responsibilities of American citizenship by purchasing Farm Loan Bonds.[62] Columnist Ewert supported Loucks's suggestion and explained:

> Whoever participates in this does our land a great service; and the government does right when it recognizes participation where one cannot contribute to the other loan without injuring his conscience and principles. It is a shame that such an agreement with the government has not already been concluded and arranged so that the local administrations [Liberty Loan committees] recognize the matter, and the non-resistors will be no longer harrassed.[63]

The *Vorwaerts* boldly depicted one such incident of harassment which occurred immediately after Germany's capitulation. On November 11, 1918, a crowd of patriotic citizens physically abused Mennonite John Schrag for his refusal to purchase Victory Bonds to pay off America's war debt. The mob also demanded that the pacifist kiss a United States flag and parade down the street of Burrton with it. The *Vorwaerts* mentioned that he refused to kiss the flag and held it only as long as someone pressed Schrag's fingers to the shaft. When the flag fell to the ground, someone stepped on it. According to the *Vorwaerts*, the mob accused the

60. *Ibid.*

61. An interesting analysis of Mennonite contribution to the war effort was presented by James C. Juhnke in a speech entitled "Mennonite Benevolence and Civic Identity: The Post War Compromise," at the 1969 Menno Simons Lecture Series at Bethel College on October 25, 1969.

"Mennonites give, in part at least, because they want to be acceptable American citizens.

"The peaks of Mennonite giving, then, coincide with the bursts of militant American nationalism because benevolence is the Mennonite attempt to discover the moral equivalent for war. It is most urgent for Mennonites to give money and engage in relief programs precisely at those times when Americans are demanding national-military sacrifices."—Page 8 of Dr. Juhnke's copy.

62. *Vorwaerts*, May 3, 1918.

63. *Ibid.*

Mennonite of having dishonored the American flag. After the mob began to beat its victim, Schrag's friends called the Harvey county sheriff. He arrived soon and put Schrag into jail to save him from the crowd. The Hillsboro newspaper also reported that at an investigation the pacifist would give "a couple thousand" dollars to the Red Cross but "not one cent" for war material bought with Victory Bonds. All other Mennonite newspapers in central Kansas neglected to mention the incident since they were too concerned about public condemnation, if they supported this unpatriotic pacifist.[64]

V. Returning to Normalcy

Throughout the war, the *Vorwaerts* also forcefully reported about the government's treatment of conscientious objectors in military camps. The Selective Service Law of 1917 authorized the President to define alternative work which constituted "non-combatant" service for conscientious objectors. Because President Wilson was slow to act, pacifist inductees had to report to military camp without knowing what type of work they were to perform. Ewert protested against this apparently furtive government action in the *Vorwaerts*.

> Just what kind of work will be demanded from this "non-combatant" part of the army should be told to the concerned individuals when they first arrive at the camps. This [lack of knowledge about the work] creates a dangerous situation for our chosen men with conscience uninjured and whether any one can remain true to his principles when he enters the military system in this way. . . .[65]

Finally on March 20, 1918, nearly six months after the arrival of the first conscientious objectors at military camps, President Wilson designated noncombatant service as work in the medical, quartermaster, and engineering corps. Any draftee, the President further proclaimed, who conscientiously refused to engage in this type of work was allowed to obtain an agricultural furlough. Ewert immediately expressed mild satisfaction over Wilson's plan.[66] But within a few months the columnist completely reversed his opinion.

Although conscientious objectors could obtain furloughs, the army seemed to process the necessary papers at an exceedingly slow pace. While waiting for these, the pacifists were confined to the army camp. There other soldiers scoffed at them and threatened

64. *Ibid.*, November 22, 1918. The Schrag incident is reported slightly differently in James C. Juhnke, "John Schrag Espionage Case," *Mennonite Life*, v. 22, July, 1967, pp. 121-122, and in James C. Juhnke, "The Political Acculturation of Kansas Mennonites," pp. 166-168.

65. *Vorwaerts*, August 17, 1917.

66. *Ibid.*, April 5, 1918.

to send them to France for their agricultural work.[67] Ewert, though, did not relate the most cruel punishments of the conscientious objectors in the *Vorwaerts* until after the end of the war. In December, 1918, the columnist began to chastise the army for its treatment of the pacifists.

> The brutal treatment which the conscientious objectors have suffered has not been usually reported publicly because it was the opinion that the publication of the matter could have had no beneficial consequences at that time. Among hundreds of letters I have received from members of our denomination, there are many which report a treatment which one would have held . . . impossible in this land of freedom.[68]

Ewert then proceeded to cite some examples of military brutality in the article.[69]

Although the *Vorwaerts* primarily discussed topics only pertinent to Mennonites in the first World War, the newspaper in 1917 reported almost weekly about the progress of the war. But due to the inaccessibility of news releases from Germany, it continually mentioned that the news it received was slanted towards the Allies. Also articles about the war became more scant after congress adopted the bill which required that all foreign-language newspapers had to file translations. Despite these handicaps, the *Vorwaerts* pursued an editorial policy which was incompatible with the anti-German sentiments of most Americans. A result of this antipathy to everything German was that some boards of education banned the teaching of German in public schools. The *Vorwaerts* justified instruction in the language by replying that scientists published in that language.[70] The German-language newspaper also argued that the United States was at war with Germany and not with the German language or literature.[71] Simultaneously with the agitation to forbid German language instruction in schools, a similar movement developed to disdain German culture and government. Throughout the war the *Vorwaerts* retaliated against these claims by asserting that no barbaric "Huns" lived in Germany and that the German government was democratic.[72] Such arguments, however, had little force in a time when an hysterical

67. *Ibid.*, November 1, 1918.
68. *Ibid.*, December 13, 1918.
69. For information about Mennonites in military camps, *see* Willard Martin, "World War I; Conscientious Objectors in Fort Leavenworth," unpublished research paper, Goshen College, 1957; Stanley J. Yake, "Treatment of Mennonite Conscientious Objectors in World War I Army Camps," unpublished research paper, Goshen College, 1957; Jacob Meyer, "Reflections of a Conscientious Objector," *The Mennonite Quarterly Review*, Goshen, Ind., v. 41, January, 1967, pp. 79-96.
70. *Vorwaerts*, March 15, 1918.
71. *Ibid.*
72. *Ibid.*, July 12, 1918.

agitation was sweeping the country. But this anti-German agitation soon diminished after the war ended.

The first World War stopped as suddenly as it had begun. Peace in Europe caught the *Vorwaerts* by surprise, and after knowledge of Germany's capitulation, the newspaper merely covered the event with a headline: "Germany has unconditionally surrendered. The war is over." [73] After the armistice was concluded on November 11, 1918, columnist Ewert expressed thanks to God for the end of the hostilities. He also concurred with President Wilson that Germany should pay its legitimate war damages.

> Germany should not pay for the war damages of others, but only for those damages which the civilian population suffered by German troops, submarines or airplanes. This will be a fantastic sum, but it is a debt which must be demanded from a conquered enemy under international and moral law.[74]

But in this article, Ewert was more concerned about the release of conscientious objectors from military camps. He suggested that they be discharged as soon as possible in order to work on their farms.[75] It was time to return to normalcy.

This article exemplified *Vorwaerts*' attitude toward World War I at the end of hostilities. Editor Schellenberg, columnist Ewert and other Mennonites wanted to return to the quiet, isolated life of prewar days. While the conflict was still European, the *Vorwaerts* rarely mentioned the moral considerations of warfare. Editor Schellenberg presented a progressive, pro-German interpretation of the great war. However, after America became involved and Mennonites were called to service and to contribute, columnist Ewert began to enunciate Mennonite principles about war. The rest of the newspaper also presented these theological implications of the first World War. The war, after America's entrance, became a testground for Mennonite principles of nonresistance.

One year after the armistice Schellenberg left his position as editor of the *Vorwaerts*. Since his term of employment with the Hillsboro newspaper nearly coincided with the duration of the first World War, his resignation symbolized the end of an era for Mennonites. An arduous period had come and gone in the 400-year history of this religious sect. Many Mennonites, discarding their traditional pacifist stand, were swept up in the wave of nationalism; some were inducted into the armed forces, and others displayed their patriotism by buying Liberty Bonds. Yet most peaceful Mennonites retained some equilibrium while the rest of the Hillsboro community and the nation verged on hysteria.

73. *Ibid.*, November 8, 1918.
74. *Ibid.*, November 15, 1918.
75. *Ibid.*

Former Mining Communities of the Cherokee-Crawford Coal Field of Southeastern Kansas

WILLIAM E. POWELL

THE YEAR 1874 was most significant for coal mining in southeastern Kansas. It brought the construction and opening of the first underground shaft-mine in southeast Kansas near the present-day village of Scammon, in the north-central portion of Cherokee county.[1] The completion of this form of underground mine signaled the beginning of an important phase of coal mining in Cherokee county and adjacent Crawford county. In the following years, other shaft mines were opened in the coal-bearing areas of the two counties. Underground mining continued as the dominant method until 1931, when mechanized strip-mining surpassed it in output and supplanted it as the dominant mode of mining.[2]

Underground mining was instrumental in the historical development of the Cherokee-Crawford coal field by having a stimulating impact upon employment, demographic movements, the network of transportation, commerce, and forms of settlement within the coal field (Figure 1). This study will focus on the impact of past underground mining upon the rise, growth, and decline of the many agglomerated coal-mining communities.

Prior to the completion of the first coal shaft-mine in 1874, there were two forms of mining in the area: drift (adit) mining and strip-mining by animate power.[3] The small early drift or adit mines were sited along outcroppings of coal beds on the hillslopes and sides of ravines. Because of their burrowed-in appearances along the outcrop, the early day drifts were appropriately called "gopher hole" mines.[4]

In the early days, surface or strip mining was carried out by teams of guided mules and horses pulling scraps (slips) and plows over coal seams which reposed under a shallow overburden. The

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1. C. M. Young and H. C. Allen, *Kansas Coal*, Engineering Bulletin No. 13, Vol. 26, No. 5, Engineering Experiment Station of the University of Kansas (Topeka, Kansas State Printing Plant, March, 1925), p. 39.

2. *Annual Report of Coal Mine and Metal Mine Inspection, 1931* (Topeka, Kansas State Printing Plant, 1932), p. 9.

3. C. M. Young and H. C. Allen, *Kansas Coal. Also* Walter H. Schoewe, *Coal Resources of the Cherokee Group in Eastern Kansas (Mulky Coal)*, Geological Bulletin No. 134, Part 5 (Lawrence, State Geological Survey, 1959), p. 212.

4. *Ibid.*, pp. 211-212.

thin overburden was removed, and the exposed coal was removed by wagons for subsistence and commercial purposes. These two forms of early day mining were suitable for reaching the exposed or shallow-lying coal seams, but eventually the two methods proved to be ineffective for reaching the deeper lying coal. With an average thickness of three feet and also possessing geological continuity, the Weir-Pittsburg (Cherokee) coal, the thickest and the most important seam in the coal field, was mined by shaft mining down to the maximal depth of 285 feet.[5] The depth at which the Weir-Pittsburg seam was mined over much of the coal field was too great for early surface mining and drift (adit) mining.

Shaft mining, the overwhelmingly dominant method of underground mining in the coal field, permitted the commercial exploitation of the deeper-lying Weir-Pittsburg (Cherokee) seam by sinking vertical shafts downward to the seam and then extending tunnels into the coal seam. These tunnels were, in nearly every instance, extended generally horizontal to the above-ground surface. During the lengthy era of underground mining, there were 290 important or relatively important mines which exploited the Weir-Pittsburg (Cherokee) coal seam.[6] In addition, there were numerous small underground mines called "dinkies" which mined the Weir-Pittsburg seam and other seams. The "dinky" mines were often sporadically worked and lacked the permanence of the larger shaft mines. Many of the large shaft mines (Figures 2 and 3) had a degree of semi-permanence about them and frequently stimulated the rise and growth of nearby agglomerated assemblages of houses, shacks, and other structures which served the needs of the operators and employees of the mines.

Before the actual formulation of this study, the writer became interested in the existence of the former mining settlements of the coal field. Various sources were utilized over several years of study to substantiate their existence. Frequent field reconnaissances were taken with former coal mine employees and other knowledgeable individuals in order to locate the sites of erstwhile mining communities and to study remaining expressions, if any. Written or printed records (*e. g.*, maps, state mine reports, plats, newspaper articles, theses) were also relied upon to ascertain the existence and

5. George E. Abernathy, *Mined Areas of the Weir-Pittsburg Coal Bed*, Geological Bulletin No. 52, Part 5 (Lawrence, State Geological Survey of Kansas, 1944), pp. 214, 220. Abernathy additionally stated that the average depth of the Weir-Pittsburg seam in the area mined by shaft mines was 150 feet; this average depth was still too deep by the earlier modes of mining.

6. *Ibid.*, and *see* the accompanying map of underground mines in his study.

locations of former communities, since surface remains (*e. g.*, buildings, foundations) at many sites are nonexistent.

Utilizing the aforementioned sources, the writer was able to confirm and to locate over 100 sites of former coal mining communities which clustered at or reasonably near shaft mines. The existence of many are fairly well known, and a number of the settlements survived to become rural and urban communities, which presently have no connections with mining except for their early beginnings. The writer endeavored to seek the locations of the mining settlements which were not well known within the coal field.

Several factors stimulated the rise of mining camps and communities in the coal field. The paramount factor was the urgent need for quick and ready housing to accommodate the large numbers of native- and foreign-born miners and their families. A second factor was the degree of permanence of the shaft; a large shaft mine, operating for several years, had frequently a camp established near it. A third factor must have been the lack of speedy and cheap transportation during the early days of underground mining; the poorly salaried miner usually wanted to live near his place of employment; the mining camp, located in close proximity to the underground mine, served this need. A final factor was that many coal companies fostered the creation of camps by building "company houses" and other structures, such as the "company store" and community hall. The major coal companies, usually owning the coal-bearing land and the structures of the camps, were better able to direct and control the operations of the mines if their employees were quartered in nearby camps. Company camps were much more numerous in the coal field than were noncompany camps.

An article in a 1926 issue of the Pittsburg *Daily Headlight*[7] described the causal relationship of the "opening" of a shaft mine and resultant mining camp in Crawford county: "The opening of mine No. 1 of the Cherokee-Pittsburg Coal Company was the principal cause of the establishment of the camp, which later became known as the city of Frontenac." Discussing the stimulation of coal mining upon the genesis and growth of the community of Mineral City the author of a Cherokee county history wrote: "The coal mining industry is the big thing of the place. The beginning of this is what gave rise to the city. It has fostered its growth, and it will continue as the chief business of the community."[8]

7. "Frontenac Came From Coal Camp Built Up at S. F. No. 1," Pittsburg *Daily Headlight*, May 19, 1926, Sec. E (Jubilee Edition).

8. Nathaniel T. Allison, ed., *History of Cherokee County, Kansas* (Chicago, Biographical Publishing Company, 1904), p. 172.

Besides being sited near shaft mines, the coal mining communities were located on or very near section roads. Oral communication with former coal field employees and other knowledgeable persons disclosed that generally the section roads preceded the camps.[9] Mining camps were frequently established along section roads or at crossroads. The physical expansion of some camps extended into the peripheries of two or more sections. The reason for this siting by the coal companies and by the other founders of camps was to provide easy access to mine and camp. Access to a mine and its camp, located in the middle of a section, was by a short road or roads, which connected with the straight section roads. Vestiges of some of these dirt roads can still be seen in the countryside, although mines and camps are gone.

The establishment and growth of the coal mining communities in the coal field began in the late 1870's and probably lasted until about 1920. The first camps were located in the southern portion of the coal field in the late 1870's and spread towards the northeast into Crawford county as the field was extended and developed.[10] The most active period for the establishment of the mining settlements was probably between 1890 and 1910. Although not as numerous as the underlying mines, the communities were disseminated from one end of the coal field to the other as were their associated features, the underground mines. Presently, there are no mining communities; the last few probably became defunct as mining settlements in the late 1930's or, at the very latest, in the early 1940's.

Representing an important part of the geographical fabric of the coal field, the mining communities were agglomerated settlements which always included houses and shacks and frequently but not always retail stores, "company stores," rooming houses, hotels, saloons, community halls, churches, blacksmitheries, schools, railway trackage, and even farms (Figures 4, 5, and 6). The smaller and more temporary camps naturally possessed fewer structures and services than were offered by larger camps.

Several of the camps were platted (Figures 7 and 8); maps and legal descriptions of them were examined in the county offices (*e.g.*, register of deeds and county clerk). The plats of the two camps shown were similar to the plats of nonmining settlements in

9. William E. Powell, "The Historical Geography of the Impact of Coal Mining Upon the Cherokee-Crawford Coal Field of Southeastern Kansas" (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, Department of Geography, University of Nebraska, 1970), pp. 231-232.

10. W. G. Pierce and W. H. Courtier, *Geology and Coal Resources of the Southeastern Kansas Coal Field*, Geological Bulletin No. 24 (Lawrence, State Geological Survey, 1938), p. 82.

and outside the coal field. Streets of the platted camps and even the nonplatted camps were usually oriented to the basic directions of the compass (north-south and east-west). The streets and roads in most of the camps were essentially parallel to the section roads which frequently formed the most important streets in the mining communities. The blocks between the streets were divided into lots for residential and commercial uses. In the company camps, houses and other buildings were provided for or rented to employees of the coal companies. In the noncompany camps, houses were commonly owned or rented by miners.

There were two basic types of houses in the coal-mining settlements. One was more or less square (Figures 4 and 5) with a hipped-roof; the other was the elongated "crackerbox" (Figure 5). The square type was the larger of the two and was utilized, in most instances, by larger families or groups. Concerning the elongated ("crackerbox") house, Mary Wood-Simons stated: "Tenements and workingmen's cottages may house other workers in other localities, but the Kansas miner is housed in a 'shot-gun' house. For his shack is built like a box car and cut crosswise into three rooms."[11] Most of the houses in the coal field were probably company owned, but a sizeable number were individually owned. Both types were found in company and noncompany camps.

The two basic house types were further modified and enlarged by joining two or more of them commonly into T-shaped, L-shaped, or U-shaped structures. Such houses can be seen today on farms and in small agglomerated settlements which were once coal mining communities.

Geographical names of the mining communities originated from several sources. A number of the camps were named for the owner of the land which was leased or purchased by the coal companies. As examples, Capaldo, a former camp in Crawford county, was named for the original owners of the land.[12] Ringo, another camp in the same county, was named for the owners of the land on which shaft mines were sunk.[13] A number of camps were named for coal operators, superintendents, and coal companies. As examples, Fleming, a camp in Crawford county, was named for Ira Fleming, superintendent of a coal company.[14] Scammon (Scammonville) in Chero-

11. Mary Wood-Simons, "Mining Coal and Maiming Men," *The Coming Nation*, Girard, November 11, 1911, p. 4.

12. *See* the copy of the original plat in the office of the register of deeds in the Crawford county courthouse, Girard.

13. *Ibid.*

14. "Mining Industry Dates to Pits of Pioneers," Pittsburg *Daily Headlight*, May 19, 1926, Sec. F.

kee county, once an important mining community, was named for the Scammon brothers, who were early coal mine operators. Kirkwood and Croweburg, both in Crawford county, were named respectively for A. B. Kirkwood, a coowner of the Wear Coal Company, and the Crowe Coal Company.[15]

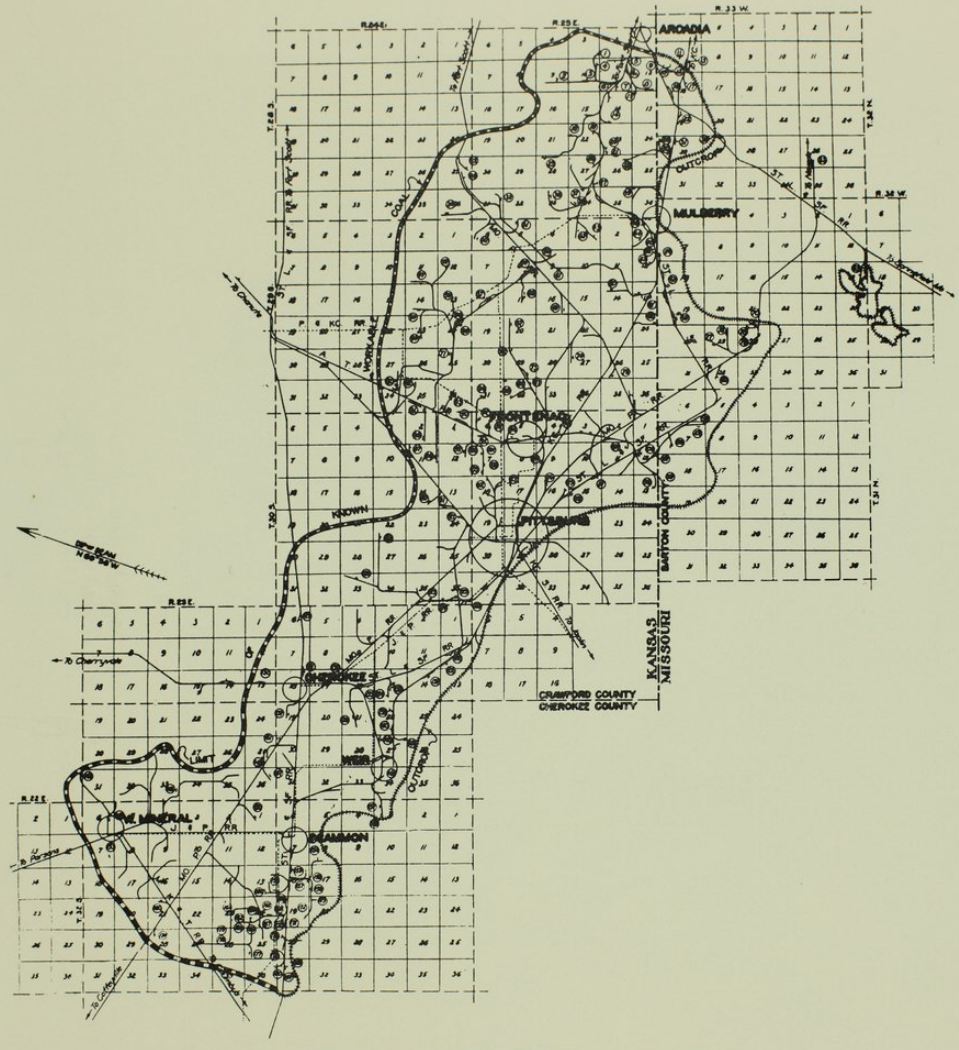
Another camp was named for its geographical position; Midway, an early camp in eastern Crawford county, was originally ". . . named for being midway between Fort Scott and Baxter on the stage line."[16] A few mining communities were named for natural features or characteristics, such as Mulberry Grove (later called Mulberry), Lone Oak, Breezy Hill, and Mineral City.

Several camps were interestingly named after the numbers of the shaft mines of the major coal companies. The most important coal companies in the field were the Sheridan Coal Company, Western Coal & Mining Company, Cherokee-Pittsburg Coal & Mining Company, Central Coal & Coke Company, Mayer Coal Company, Clemens Coal Company, Kansas & Texas Coal Company, Crowe Coal Company, Pittsburg & Midway Coal Mining Company, Wear Coal Company, and the Missouri, Kansas and Texas Railway Company. Each of the major coal companies owned and operated several mines, and each underground mine was frequently numbered consecutively. To illustrate, the Central Coal & Coke Company had mines numbering in the 40's and 50's; there were Nos. 42, 43, 45, 48, 49, 50, and 51. Camps were established by the coal company around these underground mines, and the camps assumed the appellations of the mines, such as 42 Camp, 49 Camp, 50 Camp, and 51 Camp. Fifty Camp is the only company camp of the Central Coal & Coke Company that survived and is now a small, rural hamlet, completely unassociated with coal mining. The Sheridan Coal Company had its Nos. 3, 4½, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 14 underground mines after which camps near them were named. These Sheridan camps are nonexistent and have been for years. The reader is referred to Table 1 for other examples of numbered company camps.

Mining communities, wherever they appear in mining areas, frequently have interesting and humorous appellations. The Cherokee-Crawford coal field was no exception. The writer has come across such names as 4½ Camp, Dogtown (named for the abundant canines kept by the inhabitants), Little Italy, Red Onion, Red Camp (named for the red houses), Water Lilly, Gebo Camp, Pumpkin

15. *Ibid.*
16. *Ibid.*

FIGURE 1



CHEROKEE-CRAWFORD COAL FIELD IN 1923

The coal field near its peak of development. Small circles with numbers represent underground mines. Continuous, black lines are rail lines and spurs. Reproduced with permission from *Kansas Coal*, by C. M. Young and H. C. Allen.

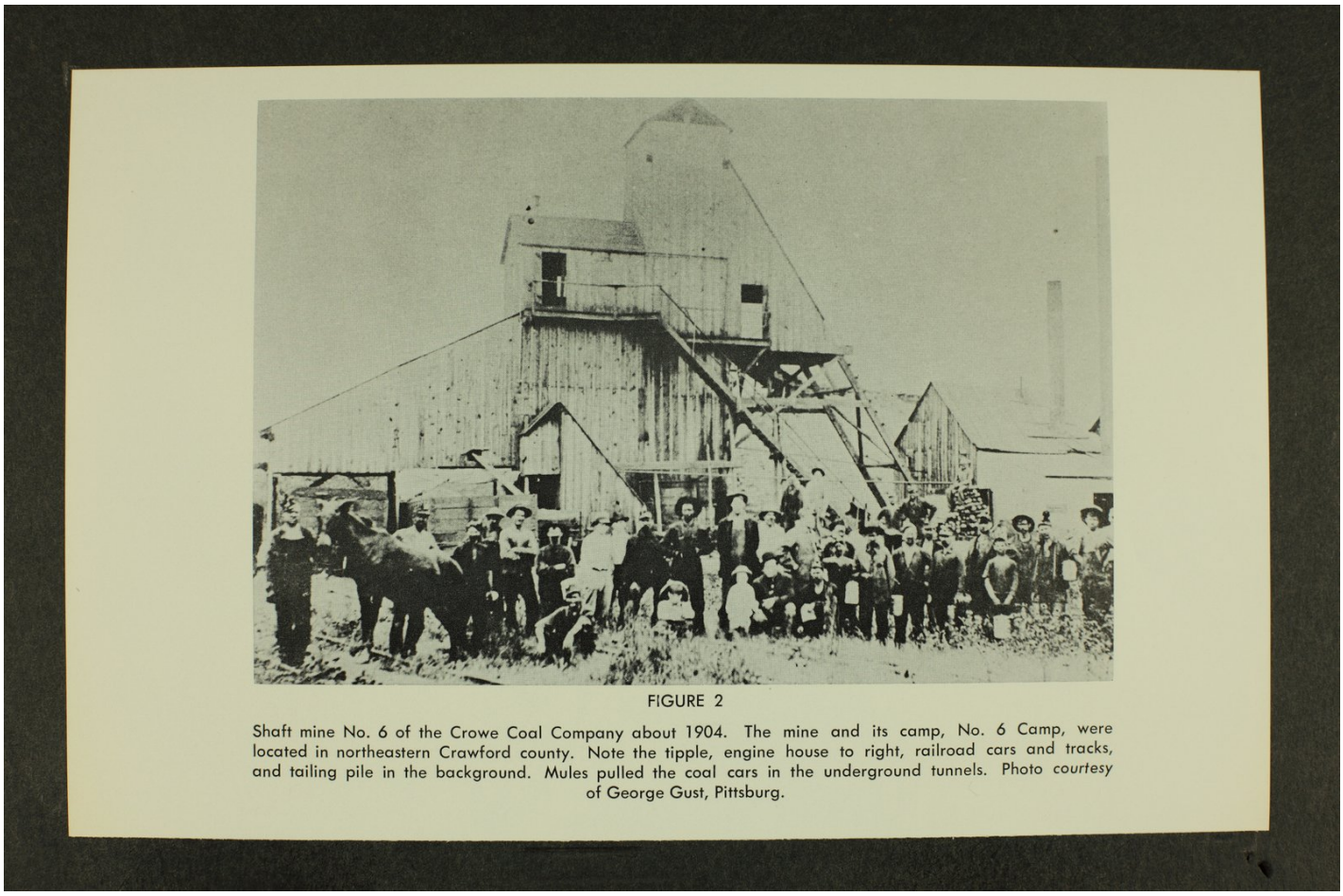


FIGURE 2

Shaft mine No. 6 of the Crowe Coal Company about 1904. The mine and its camp, No. 6 Camp, were located in northeastern Crawford county. Note the tipple, engine house to right, railroad cars and tracks, and tailing pile in the background. Mules pulled the coal cars in the underground tunnels. Photo *courtesy* of George Gust, Pittsburg.

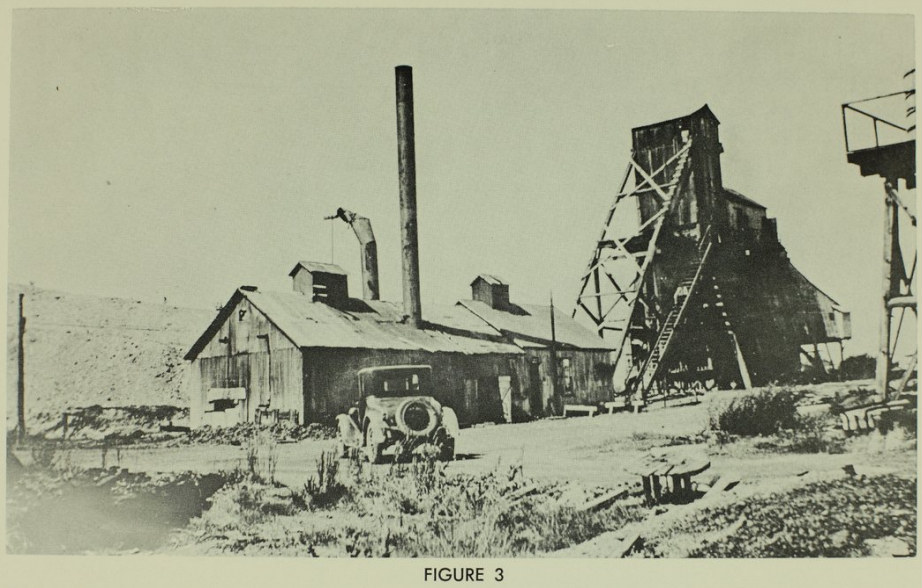


FIGURE 3

The tipple, engine house, and tailing pile of former Crowe Company No. 16 shaft mine, active in the 1920's. Sixteen Camp was near the mine. Mine and camp have been defunct for many years, and there are now no surface remains of either. Photo *courtesy* of Mrs. L. C. Caldwell, Croweburg.

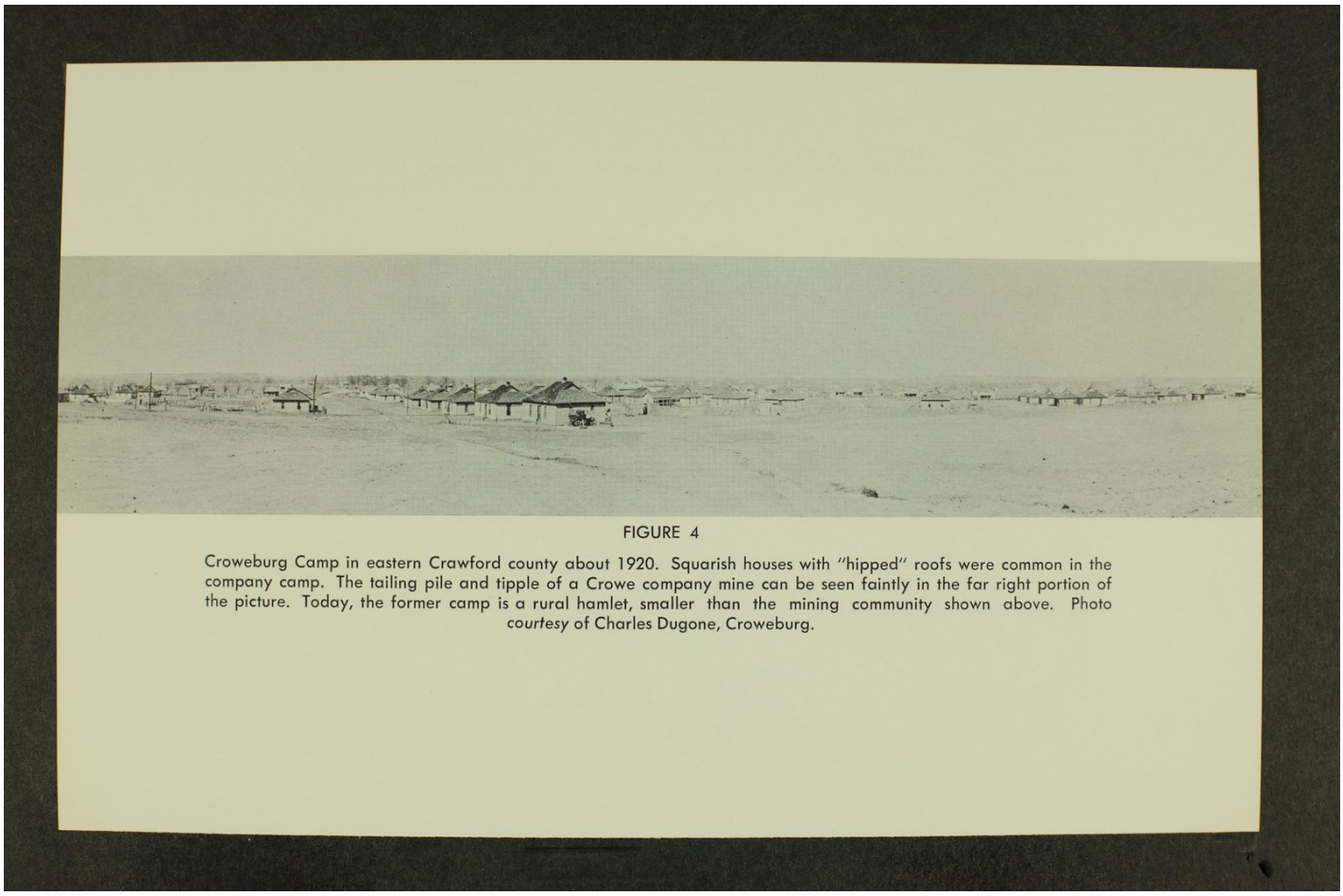


FIGURE 4

Croweburg Camp in eastern Crawford county about 1920. Squarish houses with "hipped" roofs were common in the company camp. The tailing pile and tipple of a Crowe company mine can be seen faintly in the far right portion of the picture. Today, the former camp is a rural hamlet, smaller than the mining community shown above. Photo *courtesy* of Charles Dugone, Croweburg.

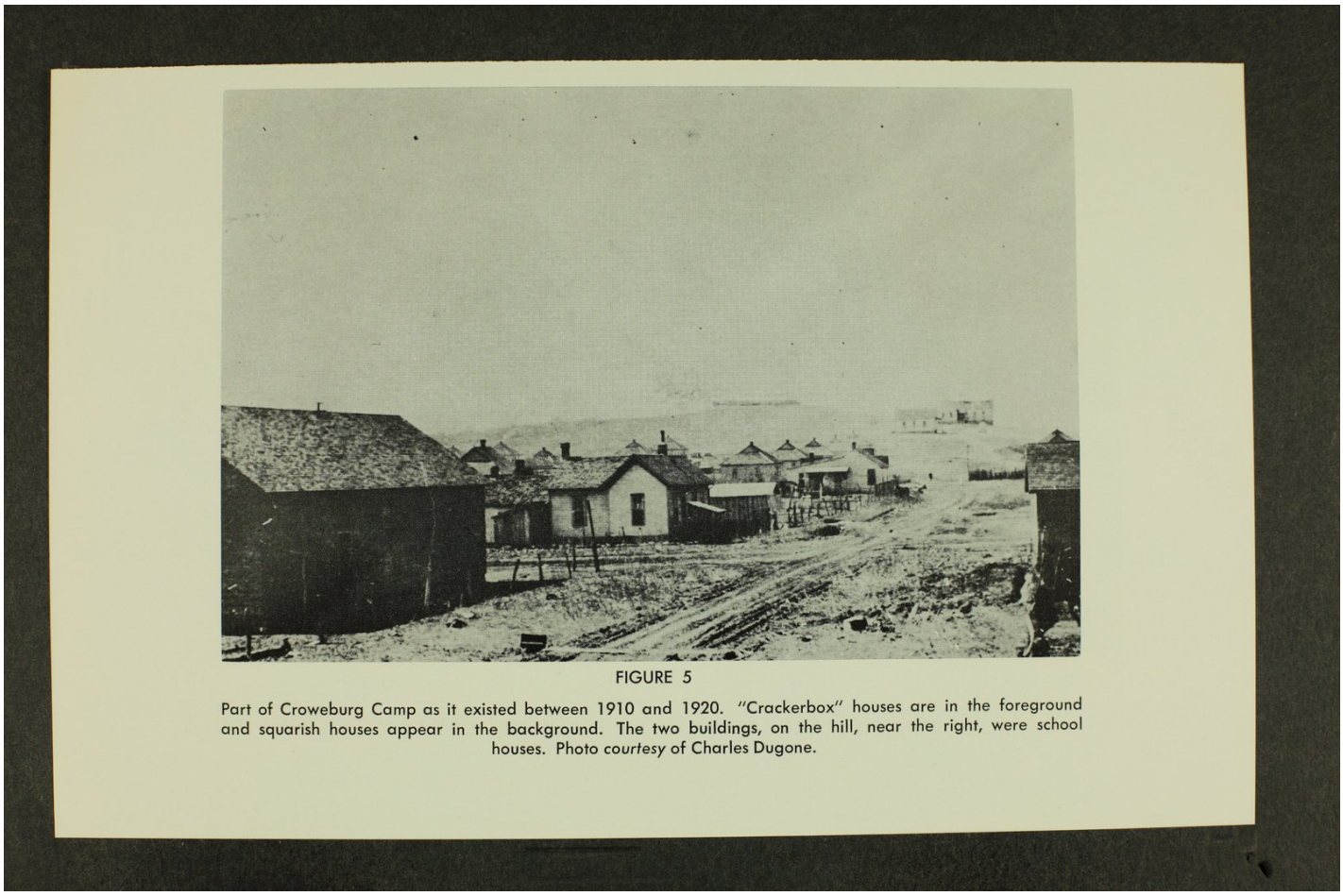


FIGURE 5

Part of Croweburg Camp as it existed between 1910 and 1920. "Crackerbox" houses are in the foreground and squarish houses appear in the background. The two buildings, on the hill, near the right, were school houses. Photo *courtesy* of Charles Dugone.

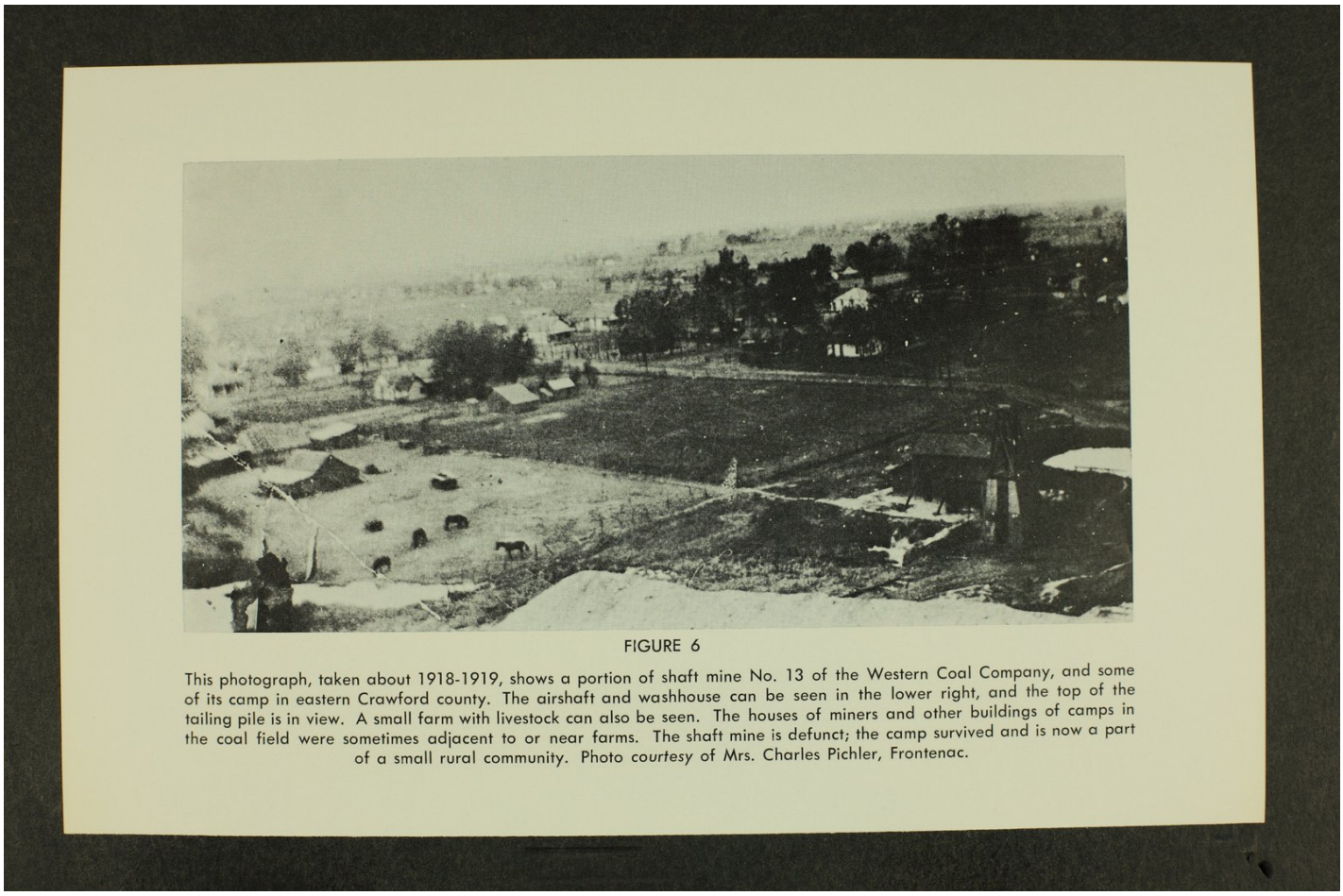


FIGURE 6

This photograph, taken about 1918-1919, shows a portion of shaft mine No. 13 of the Western Coal Company, and some of its camp in eastern Crawford county. The airshaft and washhouse can be seen in the lower right, and the top of the tailing pile is in view. A small farm with livestock can also be seen. The houses of miners and other buildings of camps in the coal field were sometimes adjacent to or near farms. The shaft mine is defunct; the camp survived and is now a part of a small rural community. Photo *courtesy* of Mrs. Charles Pichler, Frontenac.

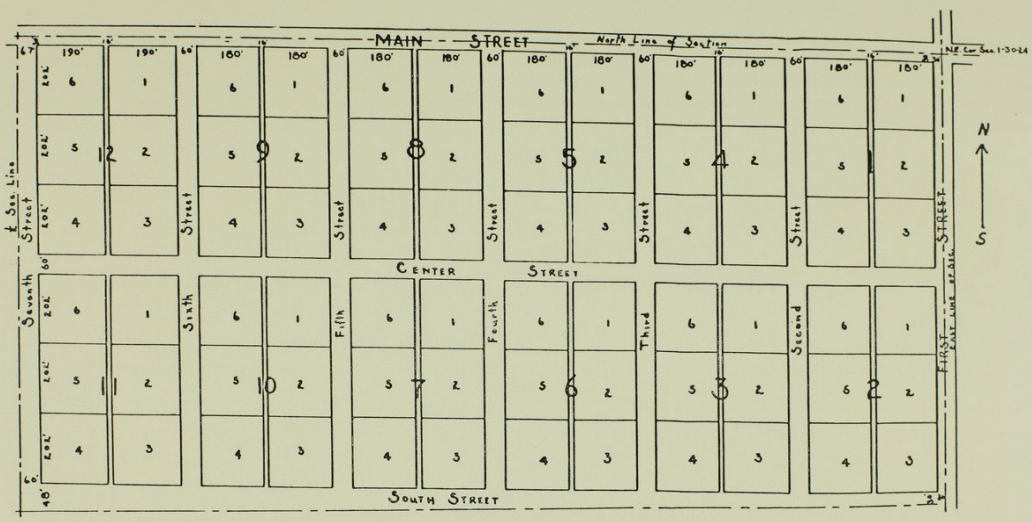


FIGURE 7

A reproduction of the original plat of Capaldo Camp which was planned August 29, 1912, by the Cherokee and Pittsburg Coal and Mining Company as a company camp. The original plat was located in the northeastern corner of Sec. 1, T. 30 S., R. 24 E., in Crawford county. Two section roads served as important streets for the company camp. The camp was divided into average-sized blocks and lots (note widths in feet). Underground mines of different companies were located to the east, northwest, south, and northeast. With time, the camp grew into the edges of the adjacent sections. Capaldo is presently a small community. Plat *courtesy* of Crawford County Abstract Company, Girard.

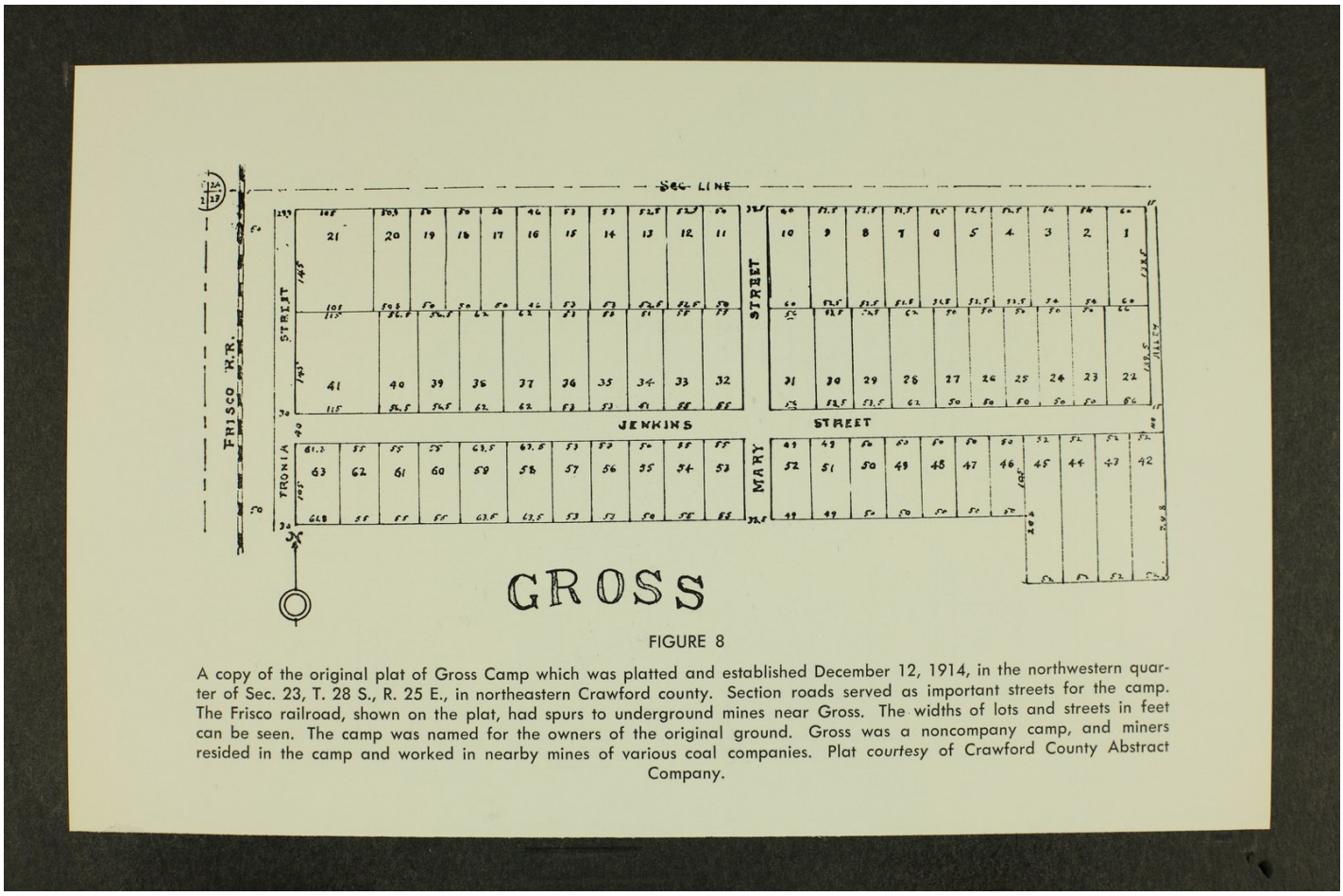


FIGURE 8

A copy of the original plat of Gross Camp which was platted and established December 12, 1914, in the northwestern quarter of Sec. 23, T. 28 S., R. 25 E., in northeastern Crawford county. Section roads served as important streets for the camp. The Frisco railroad, shown on the plat, had spurs to underground mines near Gross. The widths of lots and streets in feet can be seen. The camp was named for the owners of the original ground. Gross was a noncompany camp, and miners resided in the camp and worked in nearby mines of various coal companies. Plat *courtesy* of Crawford County Abstract Company.

Center, Chicopee, Klondike, Blue Goose, Scabpatch (named for nonunion miners residing in the western portion of Scammon), Frogtown (named for a frog infested pond near the small camp), and Buzzard's Roost Camp (Bell Camp).

The scattered mining communities (Table 1) not only quartered the thousands of native-born American and European-born individuals who were employed by the mining companies but also their families. The number of employees in underground mines of the Kansas portion of the coal field reached almost 10,000 during the early years of World War I.[17] The native-born working in the mines and residing in the camps were largely Caucasians, but sizeable numbers of native-born blacks were also employed, particularly in the late 1890's and early 1900's.[18] The most numerous European nationalities laboring in the underground mines were Italians, Austrians, Germans, Yugoslavs (largely Slovenians), British (English, Welsh, Scots), French, and Belgians.[19] Although there were several coal camps inhabited by one or two ethnic groups (Capaldo, No. 7 Mayer's Camp, Little Italy, Mackie, etc.), most were "melting pots" of native- and European-born persons. The mining communities ranged in size from fewer than 50 individuals to over 1,000 (*e. g.*, Arma, Pittsburg, Frontenac, Mulberry, Scammon, Radley). However, the majority remained small and individually had, during their peaks, a maximum of a few hundred inhabitants.

It was stated earlier that the Weir-Pittsburg (Cherokee) seam was the chief one exploited by the major underground mines of the coal field. Shaft mines were not multileveled as they commonly were and are in the Appalachian coal province of Eastern United States. Once an underground area of the Weir-Pittsburg seam was mined out, the mines were closed and dismantled, and new mines opened elsewhere in the developing coal field.

The camps were commonly moved, wholesale or in part, after the dissolution of the underground mines around which the camps originally clustered. The houses, shacks, and other buildings, after being disassembled, were commonly moved to new camps on railroad flatcars or on huge, flat wagons pulled by mules and horses. Those buildings which were not moved were sold or left to fall

17. *Twenty-Fourth Annual Report of the Inspection of Coal Mines and Coal Production, State of Kansas, 1916* (Topeka, Kansas State Printing Plant, 1917), pp. 42, 60.

18. John M. Robb, "The Migration of Negro Coal Miners From Alabama to Southeast Kansas in 1899" (unpublished master's thesis, Department of Social Science, Kansas State College, 1966).

19. Tenth, Eleventh, Twelfth, Thirteenth, Fourteenth, Fifteenth, and Sixteenth *Census of the United States (Population)* for the years 1880, 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940.

TABLE 1—Former Coal Mining Communities of Crawford and Cherokee Counties

Name	Location	Status
	Crawford County	
Miller's Camp*	Section 3, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Dogtown	Section 10, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Red Camp (North)	Section 12, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Coalvale	Section 11, T. 24 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
Bell Camp (Buzzard's Roost Camp)*	Section 11, T. 24 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 6 Crowe Camp*	Section 14, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Gross	Section 23, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
Water Lilly*	Section 22, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 11 Sheridan Camp*	Section 15, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 12 Sheridan Camp*	Section 22, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Gebo Camp	Section 24, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Red Onion Camp*	Section 23, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 14 Sheridan Camp*	Section 28, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Chapman & Hazen Camp*	Section 27, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Scott's Camp*	Section 27, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
No. 4½ Sheridan Camp*	Section 27, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Chamber's Camp*	Section 26, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Red Camp (South)	Section 25, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 9 Sheridan Camp*	Section 36, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Barber Camp*	Section 35, T. 28 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Mulberry	Section 1, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Village
No. 10 Sheridan Camp*	Section 2, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Croweburg*†	Sections 33 & 34, T. 28 S., R. 25 E. and Section 3, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
No. 7 Spencer-Newlands Camp*	Section 1, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 22 Western Camp*	Section 5, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Arma	Section 5, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Town
Pumpkin Center	Sections 8 & 9, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 50 Central Camp*	Sections 11 & 12, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
No. 51 Central Camp*	Sections 11 & 14, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
No. 7 Sheridan Camp*	Section 9, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 6 Sheridan Camp*	Section 10, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Breezy Hill*	Section 10, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 3 Sheridan Camp*	Section 11, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 5 Sheridan Camp*	Section 12, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Ringo	Section 22, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
No. 48 Central Camp*	Section 14, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Edison*	Sections 13, 14, 23, & 24, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Franklin*	Sections 17 & 18, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Village
Fuller	Section 13, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 45 Central Camp*	Section 23, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Washer Camp*	Section 24, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Cockerill	Sections 21 & 22, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Foxtown	Sections 14, 15, 22, & 23, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet

TABLE 1—Former Coal Mining Communities of Crawford and Cherokee Counties—(*Continued*)

Name	Location	Status
Curranville*	Section 23, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
Markam Camp (Markum)*‡	Section 24, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Iowa Camp*	Section 24, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Burnett Camp	Section 22, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Jacksonville (Jackson)	Section 22, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Radley*	Section 27, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
Dunkirk*	Section 25, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
No. 11 Jackson & Walker Camp*	Section 29, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 17 Central Camp*	Sections 28 & 33, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Nelson*	Section 34, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 49 Central Camp*	Sections 27 & 28, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
No. 13 Western Camp*	Section 26, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
McCormack Camp*	Section 26, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
South Radley*	Section 35, T. 29 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
No. 11 Western Camp*	Section 34, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Yale*	Section 35, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
State Line Camp	Section 36, T. 29 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Capaldo*	Section 1, T. 30 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
Frontenac*	Sections 5, 8, & 9, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Town
Williams Camp (Williamstown)*	Section 3, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent§
No. 31 Central Camp*	Section 2, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Cornell*	Section 1, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Morgan (No. 8 Camp)*	Section 1, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Litchfield*	Section 14, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Nonexistent
Midway*	Sections 11 & 12, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
Lone Oak	Section 13, T. 30 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Pittsburg	Sections 19, 20, 29, 30, T. 30 S., R. 25 E.	City
Chicopee*	Sections 35 & 36, T. 30, R. 24 E. and Section 2, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Village
Little Italy*	Section 2, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Cambria*	Section 1, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Ashley (No. 15 Central Camp)*	Section 11, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Ellsworth-Klaner Camp*	Sections 11 & 12, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Klondike	Section 3, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
Fleming*	Sections 4, 9, & 10, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
No. 9 Hamilton Camp*	Section 31, T. 30 S., R. 24 E. and Section 6, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Kirkwood (Alston)*	Section 6, T. 31 S., R. 25 E.	Hamlet
No. 54 Camp*	Section 12, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Schwab*	Section 16, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Bricker	Specific location unconfirmed	Nonexistent
No. 41 Central Camp*	Section 16, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
No. 10 Western Camp*	Section 17, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent

TABLE 1—Former Coal Mining Communities of Crawford and Cherokee Counties—(*Concluded*)

Name	Location	Status
	Cherokee County	
Daisy Hill (Leawalk)	Section 21, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
Coal Valley	Section 21, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
Weir	Section 34, T. 31 S., R. 24 E.	Village
No. 4 Mayer Camp*	Section 24, T. 31 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
No. 7 Mayer Camp*	Section 36, T. 31 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Humble Camp	Section 30, T. 31 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Stone City*	Sections 32 & 33, T. 31 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
West Mineral	Section 6, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Village
East Mineral	Sections 5 & 8, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Hamlet
Corona (formerly *Folsom*)	Section 10, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Hamlet
Roseland	Section 11, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Hamlet
Blue Goose Camp*	Section 12, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Scammon (Scammonville)	Section 7, T. 32 S., R. 24 E.	Village
Stilson (Coalfield)	Sections 7 & 18, T. 32 S., R. 24 E.	Nonexistent
Frogtown*	Section 5, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Mayer's Camp*	Section 9, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
No. 16 Central Camp*	Section 12, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
No. 10 Crowe Camp*	Section 13, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
No. 42 Central Camp*	Section 24, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
No. 43 Central Camp*	Section 25, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Masonville	Section 21, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Cokedale*	Section 21, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Nonexistent
Mackie*	Section 14, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Hamlet
Skidmore	Section 24, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Hamlet
Newcastle¶	Section 19, T. 32 S., R. 24 E. (probable)	Nonexistent
Turck	Section 30, T. 32 S., R. 24 E.	Hamlet
Stippville	Section 31, T. 32 S., R. 23 E.	Hamlet

* Confirmed company camps.

† Croweburg consisted of four individual camps (No. 14 Croweburg Camp, No. 15 Croweburg Camp, No. 16 Croweburg Camp, and New Camp), which were located within one-half mile of each other. Their physical growth resulted in one coalesced community, Croweburg.

‡ Accurate spelling not confirmed.

§ Although Williamstown presently does not quite contain the required number of farm and nonfarm residences in order to qualify as a hamlet, the residences have a clustered arrangement.

¶ It could not be absolutely determined that Newcastle was a small mining camp; however, its presence as a community with two shaft mines very near it was cited in the *First Annual Report of the State Inspector of Mines*, 1884, and in the *Second Annual Report of the State Inspector of Coal Mines*, for the year ending December 31, 1885. The name of Newcastle is associated with coal mining, for Newcastle, England, has for many decades, been an important urban place noted for its rich coal fields. Thus, there is strong circumstantial evidence that Newcastle was a small mining community in Cherokee county in the early or mid-1880's but ceased to exist after only a few years of existence. No mention was made of it in subsequent state mine reports.

into a state of disrepair. Wood-Simons [20] interestingly described the semimobility of many mining camps in the coal field:

> Shafts are constantly being sunk and camps being moved. Rickety cabins, such as the miners live in, are easily knocked down and set up again, or put on wheels and moved across country. In one instance, the mule shed of the old camp found itself metamorphosed into miners' shacks in the new camp.

In a later issue of *The Coming Nation* was found the following statement about the frequent dismantling of coal camps:

> Out on the prairie are rows of vacant mining shacks. These shacks are being hauled away to house the families of miners in other places. The machinery has been carefully drawn out of the mine, cared for and moved to where it can produce new profits.[21]

The transported houses, shacks, and other buildings, now a part of another coal camp, were many times lined up in rows; the vacant strips of ground between the rows of houses usually became the dirt-surfaced roads and streets of the camps (Figures 4, 5, and 6). The process of establishing new camps with structures from previous camps and also with newly built buildings was frequently repeated during the period of shaft mining in the coal field. Employees frequently moved from mine to mine and from camp to camp during the halcyon era of underground mining (1874-1930).

During the late 1920's and 1930's, a series of debilitating factors, acting in combination, caused the steady decline of underground mining in the coal field. The main causative factors were the economic impact of the depression, the rise of mechanized surface mining, competition from oil and gas, labor problems in the coal field (strikes), and competition from Eastern coals.[22]

With the decline of underground mining, the cultural landscape of the two counties changed. As the mines ceased operation, the mining camps near the mines were moved or were vacated and gradually fell into various stages of decay. Many individuals associated with these mines went to other operating mines in the area, migrated to other coal mining regions, or entered different trades. Railroad spurs, ties, and some tracks were removed; the surface scars visible today are the chatted grades and some abandoned railroad equipment. Many of the shale-ballasted or dirt roads leading to the mines and camps were grown over by vegetation or plowed for use as cropland. Houses were moved away

20. Mary Wood-Simons, "Mining Coal and Maiming Men," *The Coming Nation*, November 11, 1911, p. 4.
21. "Crushed and Thrown Aside," *ibid.*, August 31, 1912, p. 2.
22. William E. Powell, "The Historical Geography of the Impact of Coal Mining Upon the Cherokee-Crawford Coal Field," pp. 104-107.

from many camps; the ground on which they stood was plowed or grown over by vegetation. At some sites, the remnants of foundations, sidewalks, cellars, and water wells attest to the erstwhile, busy mining communities. At other sites, no surface expressions, save the tailing pile or dump of the former mine, remain. These sites that were once camps are now crop fields, pastures, or scrubland.

Mechanized strip mining was responsible for the obliteration of sites of a number of camps established earlier during the period of underground mining. As examples, the sites of Nelson Camp, No. 12 Sheridan Camp, No. 17 Central Camp, Burnett Camp, Red Camp (South), and No. 49 Central Camp in Crawford county are now stripped lands. Regarding the aforementioned camps, all of the structures (*e. g.*, buildings, mine tipple, houses) had been removed prior to mechanized stripping of their sites.

Several of the mining communities survived the decline of underground mining and became the hamlets, villages, towns, and the one city (Pittsburg) of the area of study (Table 1). Several important factors accounted for the survival and eventual change of a sizeable number of mining communities. The longevity of mines and number of mines near the mining communities were influential; several nearby mines operating for long stretches of time helped to maintain the coal-oriented communities. When one of the mines ceased operation, the employees stayed in the camp and found employment in another nearby mine. With time, more efficient and faster transportation (*e. g.*, motor-driven vehicles and the Joplin & Pittsburg electric railroad) enabled miners to remain in their places of habitation and to travel several miles to mines. A number of mining communities (*e. g.*, Pittsburg, Arma, Frontenac, Mulberry, Scammon) were located on one or more railroad lines, and this locational advantage lent stability to the communities. Larger mining-oriented communities (*e. g.*, Pittsburg, Arma) possessed a diversified economic base that helped to sustain them during the decline of underground mining. With the demise of underground mining, some miners remained in former camps and worked, if they were able, in other economic pursuits, usually in or near the coal field. Other miners, in retirement or on welfare, remained in the camps. The aforementioned factors, frequently acting in combination, were influential in the survival and metamorphism of a number of coal mining settlements.

In summary, commercial underground mining, principally shaft mining, stimulated the beginning and growth of numerous agglom-

erated mining communities in the Cherokee-Crawford coal field. A sizeable number of the present-day rural and urban communities can trace their origins back to a camp near an underground mine. As a result of adverse economic conditions during the 1920's and 1930's and technological improvements in mechanized surface mining, shaft mining steadily declined in output and importance. The decline had a debilitative effect upon the many mining communities and their inhabitants. Miners and dependents departed, and most camps were moved or fell into physical decay. Where crops now grow or cattle now graze on many sites, there were once busy mines and mining communities. With the cessation of the last shaft mine in the coal field in April, 1960, a colorful and important era of mining ended which had a profound impact upon the history of this portion of southeastern Kansas.

Recent Additions to the Library

Compiled by Mrs. RUTH GLEASON, Cataloger

IN ORDER that members of the Kansas State Historical Society and others interested in historical study may know the class of books the Society's library is receiving, a list is printed annually of those accessioned in its specialized fields.

These books come from three sources, purchase, gift, and exchange, and fall into the following classes: books by Kansans and about Kansas; books on American Indians and the West, including explorations, overland journeys, and personal narratives; genealogy and local history; and books on United States history, biography, and allied subjects which are classified as general. The out-of-state city directories received by the Historical Society are not included in this compilation.

The library also receives regularly the publications of many historical societies by exchange, and subscribes to other historical and genealogical publications which are needed in reference work.

The following is a partial list of books which were received from January 1 through December 31, 1971. Federal and state official publications and some books of a general nature are not included. The total number of books accessioned appears in the report of the Society's secretary printed in the Spring, 1972, issue of *The Kansas Historical Quarterly*.

KANSAS

ABELS, JULES, *Man on Fire, John Brown and the Cause of Liberty.* (New York, Macmillan Company, 1971.) 428p.

ADAMS, DONNA SMYSER, comp., *Ford County, Kansas Marriages . . .* (Dodge City, Kan., Kansas Genealogical Society, 1970.) 62p.

AESCHBACHER, JOSEPH E., *Sandhill Preacher.* (Versailles, Mo., 1971.) 207p.

ALMA, ST. JOHN LUTHERAN CHURCH, *The Centennial Anniversary, 1870-1970, St. John Lutheran Church, Alma, Kansas, Compiled by Dorothy Kratzer.* (N. p., 1970.) 34p.

ALTMAN, FRANCES, *Dwight D. Eisenhower, Crusader for Peace.* (Minneapolis, Minn., T. S. Denison and Company, 1970.) 223p.

AMERICAN ANTI-SLAVERY SOCIETY, *The Anti-Slavery History of the John-Brown Year . . .* (New York, Negro Universities Press, 1969.) 337p. (Reprint.)

ANDERSON, GEORGE LAVERNE, *Four Essays on Railroads in Kansas and Colorado.* (Lawrence, Kan., Coronado Press, 1971.) 80p.

ASHER, BERNADINE, *Seven Sisters, Autobiography of a Family.* (New York, Exposition Press, 1971.) 106p.

ASHLEY, NOVA TRIMBLE, *Loquacious Mood.* (Francetown, N. H., Golden Quill Press, 1970.) 64p.

———, *Through an Ocean of Gold, Selected Poems.* (Dallas, Tex., Triangle Publishing Company, 1962.) 40p.

BELLE PLAINE WOMAN'S CLUB CENTENNIAL BOOK COMMITTEE, *Facts and Fables of Belle Plaine, Kansas.* (Belle Plaine, Kan., Belle Plaine *News*, 1971.) 163p.

BELOIT, FIRST BAPTIST CHURCH, *History of the First Baptist Church, Beloit, Kansas, 1871-1971.* (N. p., 1971.) 6p.

BERGKAMP, IRENE, *Waterloo, Galesburg Township, Kingman County, Kansas.* (Cheney, Kan., *Sentinel* Print, n. d.) 32p.

BISHOP, MARY ELIZABETH (METTZ), *My Life and Times.* (No impr.) Mimeographed. 26p.

BOESEN, VICTOR, *They Said It Couldn't Be Done, the Incredible Story of Bill Lear.* (New York, Doubleday and Company, 1971.) 204p.

BREIHAN, CARL W., and CHARLES A. ROSAMOND, *The Bandit Belle.* (Seattle, Wash., Superior Publishing Company, 1970.) 144p.

BROOKS, GWENDOLYN, *Riot.* (Detroit, Mich., Broadside Press, 1969.) 22p.

———, *The World of Gwendolyn Brooks . . .* (New York, Harper and Row, 1971.) 426p.

BROWN, IRENE BENNETT, *To Rainbow Valley.* (New York, David McKay, 1969.) 134p.

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