NINETEENTH CENTURY DEVELOPMENT OF MANHATTAN, KANSAS: 1855-1900

Manhattan, Kansas is located in the north-central region of the state and is the county seat of Riley County. It is located in a bowl-shaped valley immediately north of the Kansas River near its confluence with the Big Blue River. Riley County received its name directly from the military post named after General Benjamin Riley\(^1\) located approximately twelve miles southwest of Manhattan’s original settlement area.

\(^1\) In July 1852, Colonel T. T. Fauntleroy of the First Dragoons recommended the establishment of a military post near a point on the Kansas River where it merged with the Republican Fork River. In May 1853, a commission elected the present site of Fort Riley and construction began soon thereafter. On July 26, 1858, the U.S. Army formally designated the military installation as Fort Riley.
TERRITORIAL PERIOD (1850-1861)

Founded between 1854 and 1855 by three groups of Anglo-American settlers from New England and Ohio who jointly platted the town, the community of Manhattan is in Riley County, the westernmost county organized by the Kansas Territorial Legislature of 1855. These emigrants from eastern states were not the first settlers in the region. Native peoples — the Kansa, Osage, and Pawnee Nations — occupied the area at the time of Euro-American infringement. The establishment of a commercial trade route to Santa Fe in 1821 promoted the first major encroachment by Euro-Americans into the territory. Within a few years, the federal government further complicated the intrusion into the traditional lands of these Plains tribes by initiating the relocation of approximately thirty eastern Native American nations to “Indian Territory” in the eastern portion of what is now Kansas. The establishment of Fort Leavenworth in 1827, to protect the trade routes and keep peace among the various Indian nations, stimulated Euro-American settlement in the immediate area.

By the time the forced migration of the eastern tribes ended in the mid-1840s, pressures created by the increasing use of the Santa Fe trade route and the California-Oregon overland emigrant trails impacted the sanctity of the territory set aside for Native American groups. In an attempt to accommodate these activities and as a first step to opening Kansas to settlement, the United States government began to remove all the tribes from what is now the state of Kansas, relocating them to reservations in present-day Oklahoma.

When the Kansas Territory opened for settlement after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854, there was an immediate influx of Euro-American settlers into the territory. The resulting land claims were premature, as the stipulations in the various treaties with Native American nations had not been enacted and the titles extinguished. Under the Public Land Act of Kansas approved in July 1854, squatters could settle on unsurveyed land, but within three months of a “pre-empted” area being surveyed, they had to file a statement declaring that they had been on the land prior to the survey. The settler paid for the claim before the government offered the land for public sale. Prior to the first public sale of land in 1856, the only land that could be purchased consisted of the thirty-five Wyandotte “floats” granted to the mixed-blood Wyandotte Indians under a removal treaty of 1842. The floats were sections of land set

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2 Other than the early explorers and trappers.
aside for Native American use that were free of claim or occupancy by any person or tribe.\(^5\) In 1855, the completion of a wagon road from Fort Leavenworth to Fort Riley and of a road leading northwest to connect with the Oregon and St. Joseph (Missouri) emigrant trails stimulated further claims on pre-emptive lands. Pre-emption became a significant factor in the political dynamics of Territorial Kansas. The Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 ended the tradition of representative equality between slave and free states in the United States. The establishment of the doctrine of popular sovereignty in relation to the legality of slavery that was inherent in the Act made the settlement of Kansas a political as well as a moral battleground over the slavery issue. Although the majority of immigrants who settled in the Kansas Territory from 1854 to 1860 came as individuals, most represented one of two factions. Missourians took advantage of the practice of absentee pre-emption claims in an effort not only to gain land cheaply, but also to create a neighboring pro-slavery territory.\(^6\) Emigrant societies originating in the northeastern part of the United States formed to encourage the mass migration of

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6 The concept of absentee pre-emption previously played a role in the settlement of the Michigan Territory where it created bitter and sometimes bloody clashes between absentee and on-site claimants.
abolitionists to the newly opened Kansas Territory. The New England Emigrant Aid Society\(^7\) established the towns of Lawrence, Manhattan, and Topeka on Wyandotte float lands.

The Kansas territorial government established Riley County in 1855. At the time of the county’s formation, the Kansas River formed Riley County’s southern boundary, Marshall County formed its northern boundary, and Calhoun County was its eastern boundary. Its comparatively irregular shape today is due to boundary changes that occurred between 1857 and 1873.

At the time of the county’s organization, approximately 95 percent of the land was prairie and 5 percent woodland forest. Of this, 20 percent was dark, easily worked soil of the bottomlands and 80 percent was soil characteristic of the upland divides. In the area between the Big Blue and the Republican Rivers in Riley County, the major portion of the Kansas (Kaw) River flowed eastward through the county, following an irregular path through the site of Manhattan. The Big Blue River, forming the larger portion of the eastern boundary of the county, flowed into the Kansas River east of Manhattan.

Located on a level plain near the juncture of the two rivers, Manhattan became a strategic river landing during the territorial days when steamboats came up the river and traveled as far west as Junction City. The area around Manhattan included river bluffs and the river and creek upland divides that provided excellent crop and pastureland. The temperate climate, particularly the absence of early and late frosts, encouraged agricultural pursuits, especially in the high prairie areas. The presence of good quality clay for bricks in the bottomlands and limestone deposits led to the development of large quarries and brickyards near Manhattan and determined the predominant building materials of the town. The wide variety of timber utilized by the first settlers for their homes and business houses included oak, elm, and black walnut. The natural landscape also included cottonwood, soft maple, hackberry, hickory, locust, ash, linden, sycamore, mulberry, box elder, and Kentucky coffee tree.

**Town Founding**

The settlement of what would become Manhattan followed typical town building patterns in territorial Kansas. An organization of investors formed a town company and obtained a charter from the Territorial Legislature to plat a town. The federal Townsite Preemption Act permitted a town company to purchase up to 320 acres. Adjacent surrounding land could be added to the original plats. The first choice of a

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\(^7\) Under a new charter, the group assumed the name New England Emigrant Company.
group of investors was land along or near main overland trails, river junctures, and in fertile river valleys. Manhattan’s location met all of these criteria.

Samuel D. Dyer is thought to be the first white inhabitant of Riley County. In 1853, he ran a government ferry about one mile below Rocky Ford on the Big Blue River. The next year, abolitionist and New Hampshire native the Reverend Charles E. Blood established a residence near the ferry landing.

The first settlers in the Manhattan area formed the community of Juniata located approximately five miles north of the present downtown area. The village served as a ferry landing on the Fort Leavenworth-Fort Riley military road. Samuel D. Houston constructed the first residence in 1853 when he built a log house and cleared thirty-five acres for crops.

In the fall of 1854, Colonel George S. Park of Parkville, Missouri located the town site of Poleska on the Kansas River, at the southwest part of the present site of Manhattan. Shortly thereafter, another group claimed the land at the mouth of the Big Blue River as the town site of Canton. The group included Samuel D. Houston of Illinois, Judge Sanders W. Johnson of Ohio, Judge J. M. Russell of Iowa, E. M. Thurston of Maine, and Dr. A. H. Wilcox of Rhode Island.

On March 24, 1855, Isaac T. Goodnow, Luke P. Lincoln, C. H. Lovejoy, C. N. Wilson, Joseph Wintersaid, and N. R. Wright, all of whom were members of a committee of the New England Company formed in Boston, reached the site of present-day Manhattan and decided to plat the town of “Boston.” This group, in consultation with the Poleska and Canton residents, agreed to consolidate the three sites into one town called “Boston.” The various town sites included a log cabin built by Colonel Park for a blacksmith shop, a dug-out at the foot of Blue Mont, and a tent with protective sod walls pitched by Goodnow.

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8 “Kansas Preservation Plan Study Unit on the Period of Exploration and Settlement (1820s-1880s)” (Topeka: Kansas State Historical Society, 1987), 52.
11 Ibid. Fifteen of the New England Company voted in the March 30, 1855 election for S. D. Houston for Representative to the First Territorial Legislature.
Within a month, these interests consolidated and twenty-four persons organized as the Boston Association on April 4, 1855 and named the town “Boston.” The consolidated forces erected several crude houses and, with funds from the New England Emigrant Company, purchased “float” land in an area that is now north of Poyntz Avenue with the Boston group holding the title. A second “float” purchased by Johnston Lykins included land that is today south of Poyntz Avenue.

The Boston Association adopted a town constitution that divided and distributed stock to the original founders of the Association with shares set aside for religious, educational, and commercial development as well as discretionary shares to be assigned in the interest of the Association. The Association settled the legal ownership of the claimed float lands; approved the survey of a small portion of the town site, the erection of a warehouse, a temporary river landing, the construction and operation of ferries across the Big Blue and Kansas Rivers; and authorized incentives for industrial and commercial businesses. The newly surveyed and platted town included a 45-acre park and a number of market squares.

On June 1, 1855, the steamboat Hartford ran aground near the mouth of the Big Blue River, forcing the landing of around seventy-five passengers and freight. The passengers, who previously had formed a town company, came from Cincinnati, Ohio and were bound for Central Kansas, where they planned to establish a town named Manhattan. The Boston Association offered the Ohio emigrants 320 acres of land in the southeast section of their newly platted town. However, because the charter of the Ohio emigrants dictated the name and destination of the group, they initially rejected the offer and continued westward. Two days later, the steamboat ran aground again and the group accepted the offer of the Boston Association with the condition that the town be renamed Manhattan. On June 28, 1855, both groups formed the Manhattan Town Association. Within a year, the new settlers erected around fifteen


13 The street is named for Colonel John Poyntz, who was the father-in-law of J. J. Davis, a partner in the Cincinnati and Kansas Land Company. Poyntz never visited Manhattan.

14 Lykins was a resident of Missouri and served as the second mayor of Kansas City, Missouri.


16 Ibid., 49. A number of secondary sources provide various reasons for the use of the name Manhattan. Slagg notes that the appellation is in honor of the New York investors who financed part of the trip and the construction of the boat.
houses, ten of which were prefabricated frame buildings that arrived aboard the Hartford.\textsuperscript{17} William E. Goodnow erected the first stone building in the northern section of the town. David A. Butterfield of Utica, New York erected the second stone building.\textsuperscript{18}

The sentiments and political convictions of the area’s earliest settlers are reflected in the territorial elections. In the election of a territorial delegate to Congress held on November 29, 1854, the number of voters in Riley County was ninety-nine. Of them, sixty-six cast free-state votes and eleven cast pro-slavery votes. In the election held March 30, 1855 to select a territorial legislature, the free-state candidates received 233 votes and the pro-slavery candidates received 94 votes.

**County Seat**

In September 1857, the county established four election precincts — Randolph, Manhattan, Ogden, and Montague — in preparation for an election to decide the permanent location of the county government. In an election held on October 5, Manhattan and Ogden received the highest number of votes, with Ogden beating Manhattan by 31 votes. The belief that fraud occurred at the Ogden polling places led the citizens of Manhattan to seek the intercession of the Territorial Governor. When he refused to act, they requested a review of the tally sheets. The refusal of the Ogden officials to release the tally sheets led to a court hearing. Testimony identifying the names of minors and soldiers at Fort Riley on the list revealed over 50 illegal votes. Manhattan became the county seat.

The community quickly expanded to include the typical institutional, commercial, and residential buildings that comprise a prosperous riverfront town and county seat. Like most Kansas River towns, the economy initially depended on land speculation and trade. The Emigrant Aid Company established a combination steam powered sawmill and gristmill. The military road between Fort Leavenworth and Fort Riley strengthened the local economy and a commercial area evolved in the southeast portion of Manhattan where the trail crossed the river at the east end of Poyntz Avenue. After the discovery of gold at Pike’s Peak in 1858, the road also served as part of the mail route through northern Kansas Territory to the Colorado gold fields.\textsuperscript{19} Entrepreneurs built small manufacturing shops, established retail stores, and

\textsuperscript{17} In 1882, one of the Cincinnati buildings shipped on the Hartford stood at the north end of Poyntz Avenue near the railroad track. Several African American families occupied its nine rooms. Another of the prefabricated structures served as a store at the corner of First Street and Poyntz Avenue and, in 1882, it stood at the rear of A. L. Houghton’s livery stable.


\textsuperscript{19} Manhattan Nationalist, Semi-Centennial Edition, 1 January 1903, 67.
erected hotels and restaurants. Businessmen and professionals opened offices. At the river landing, steamboats delivered manufactured goods from the East and loaded cargoes of crops.

In 1858, the community erected their first school building on Poyntz Avenue. The Methodist Episcopal Church held the town’s first religious services in June 1858. That same year, Bluemont Central College incorporated; the following year the college officials laid a cornerstone on a rise about a mile west of the present Kansas State University campus. The college opened in 1860 and contributed to the creation of a more diversified financial base, quickly elevating the community beyond subsistence and cash crop economy.

In 1858, the county purchased two lots one of which had a building in Ward 1 and later also rented four rooms in the east end of the Barnes' Building on Poyntz Avenue. The next year the county officials ordered a stone jail to be erected on the “courthouse lots.” County records from 1867 refer to the erection of a new jail near the southeast corner of the 3-acre Public Square. The building also housed courtroom facilities. Various county offices occupied rented quarters in the area adjacent to the jail/courtroom buildings, particularly along Poyntz Avenue. By this time, the City had boasted of a hotel and a 35-acre cemetery Other businesses included wagon train suppliers, blacksmiths, and livery stables. The Morrill Act of 1862 authorized the establishment of land grant colleges and, in 1863, thirteen days after Kansas accepted the provisions of the Morrill Act, Bluemont Central College became the nucleus of the future Kansas State Agriculture College.

During the Border and Civil wars, Manhattan, established by abolitionists and situated by the heavily protected military road from Fort Leavenworth to Fort Riley, escaped the deprivations that occurred in the Kansas counties adjacent to the Missouri-Kansas state line. Nor was there significant internal strife in the community. Unionists composed the vast majority of Manhattan’s population. In the presidential election of 1864, 220 Republicans and 51 Democrats cast their votes.

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20 Cutler, available at www.kancoll.org/books/cutler/riley/riley-co-p3.html#LOCATION_OF_COUNTY_SEAT_AND_COUNTY_BUILDINGS; Internet; accessed 3 February 2001
22 Cutler, available at www.kancoll.org/books/cutler/riley/riley-co-p3.html#LOCATION_OF_COUNTY_SEAT_AND_COUNTY_BUILDINGS; Internet; accessed 3 February 2001
23 Ibid., available at www.ukans.edu/carrie/kancoll/books/cutler/leavenworth/leavenworth-co-p6.html#LEAVENWORTH_CITY; Internet; accessed 3 February 2001.
After the war ended, Kansas again was a destination point for settlers from the East. Between 1865 and 1870, the state’s population grew from 150,000 to 365,000. The 1862 Homestead Law and the rapid growth of railroads immediately after the Civil War encouraged speculators to construct towns along anticipated railroad routes. Included in this onslaught of emigrants were war veterans who received generous land grants and former slaves who saw homestead grants as an opportunity to become self-sufficient. Most of these settlers established farmsteads in rural areas and, consequently, the state’s population began to spread into the central and western portions of the state.24 Soon factory buildings and warehouses, two- and three-story brick wholesale and retail business houses, and new residences became more prominent in rural communities.

During the post-war period, Manhattan developed an economic base that supported a market and service center that met the needs of the agricultural and livestock trade in the surrounding county and of the businesses associated with the trade generated by Manhattan’s role as county seat. In 1868, the Riley County population was 5,104, with 1,173 residing in Manhattan. By 1875, the county population reached 7,066.25

Prior to the advent of the railroad, commercial and residential development in Manhattan occurred in a north to south pattern.26 The commercial and industrial center in the southeastern corner of the City became more defined and grew in density once railroad lines reached Manhattan.

In December 1865, the City of Manhattan granted the Union Pacific Railroad approximately twenty acres of land in the area known as Battery Park near the Big Blue River. The City required the railroad to erect a depot and/or other rail-related structures. In 1866, the completion of the Union Pacific tracks to Manhattan inaugurated service between Manhattan, Kansas City, and points further east, north, and south. The Union Pacific Company constructed a complex of buildings in the northern part of Battery Park that included a turntable; engine, pumping and tool houses; and a water tank. A freight depot stood two blocks south of Poyntz Avenue along Wyandotte Avenue.27 Located just east of the depot was the

24 “Kansas Preservation Plan Study Unit on the Period of Exploration and Settlement (1820s-1880s),” 55.
25 Jack, 68.
26 By this time, the original Wyandotte Street was eliminated and First Street assumed the name of Wyandotte. The original Third Street became Second Street. According to the 1880 and 1900 census records, no addresses were listed for Second Street.
27 The Union Pacific Railroad Depot was relocated in the winter of 1902.
sawmill; immediately south of the sawmill, were the E. B. Purcell grain elevators and stockyards.\(^{28}\) Nearby, at the north side of Poyntz Avenue and 3rd Street, Purcell started a mercantile business. Two years later, he and his partners purchased the business on the southwest corner of Poyntz Avenue and 3rd Street where they operated five stores under one roof.\(^{29}\)

In 1871, construction crews completed bridges over the Blue and Kansas Rivers. The following year, work began on the Manhattan and Northwestern Railroad. In 1872, the Manhattan and Northwestern railroad and the Manhattan and Blue Valley railroads further expanded rail services. In 1879, the Manhattan, Alma, and Burlingame branch of the Union Pacific linked Manhattan to Alma in Wabaunsee County and to Burlingame in Osage County.\(^{30}\) That same year, construction began on a branch line of the Manhattan and Northwestern Railroad Company to connect Manhattan with the mainline of the Kansas Pacific Railway Company, and the Chicago and Rock Island Railroad became linked to Manhattan.\(^{31}\)

\(^{28}\) The stockyards were relocated in 1901.
\(^{29}\) *Manhattan Nationalist*, 1 January 1903, 67
\(^{30}\) Andreas, 246. The branch was jointly owned by the Union Pacific and the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe railroads.
\(^{31}\) Ibid. Within a short time, the Manhattan and Blue Valley Railroad held title to the line. On July 1886, the line merged with the Marysville and Blue Valley Railroad Company and changed its name to the Blue Valley Railway Company. Before the turn of the century, the Union Pacific Railroad absorbed the Blue Valley Railway.
By the mid-1870s, the City began to realize the effects of the dwindling river trade, but the new rail connections began to compensate for the loss. The national economy, which included periods of a depressed market combined with grasshopper plagues, also restrained economic development during this period. After the economy absorbed the effects of two large bank failures in 1878, commercial activity improved.

On the western edge of Manhattan, changes in land use associated with the college would profoundly affect the City’s development patterns. When the Bluemont Central College Association established their institution in 1857, the town conveyed a large number of lots to the college to aid their efforts. Private donations funded the construction of a farm and a three-story building on this land in 1859. In 1861, when Kansas entered the Union, Isaac Goodnow, who had been a teacher in Rhode Island, began lobbying the state legislature to establish a university in Manhattan. As an inducement, in 1863, the supporters of securing a state college offered the Bluemont Central College property to the state of Kansas to be converted into colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanical arts. In 1871, the town of Manhattan purchased 160 acres of farmland adjacent to the City as an incentive for the college to move closer to town. In 1875, the college campus moved from the Bluemont Central College location to the buildings located on the tract donated by the City, establishing the permanent location of the state college.

32 Located approximately one mile west of the present Kansas State University campus.
By the end of the decade, Manhattan was a city of 2,104 inhabitants and was a “City of the Second Class.” Substantial residences and picturesque cottages, dignified churches, brick and limestone business blocks, mills, livestock pens, and lumberyards stood testament to the town’s prosperity. In the surrounding county, over 8,000 inhabitants lived in villages and on farmsteads. Signifying stability throughout the area were improved fields, orchards, and pastures, as well as farmsteads with spacious stone dwellings and well-built barns. The region became noted for its shorthorn herds and fine horses as well as its pure-blood Berkshire and Poland China swine. In 1878, 1,526 freight cars of crops and livestock originated in Manhattan. Of these, 132 cars contained cattle and 122 contained hogs. During the next decade, Riley County’s population grew to 15,000 and the number of residents in Manhattan reached 4,500.

**BOOM YEARS (1880-1900)**

This sudden growth in population reflected the change in the region’s economic climate. By 1880, the population of Kansas fell into two well-defined camps. Emigrants who arrived during the antebellum period lived in the eastern half of the state, while so-called “late comers” from the east — ex-soldiers, Europeans, and former slaves — occupied the western half of the state.

The drought of 1887 ended a decade of optimism. Farmers and cattlemen could not meet their loans, banks and businesses failed, and thousands of the state’s citizens, particularly in the western counties, left the state. Two years later, the opening of land for settlement in Oklahoma created an additional exodus of fifty thousand Kansans. Ironically, that same year, Kansas had its largest corn crop. Once again, emigrants filled the state (particularly in the western counties) and another year of good crops restored confidence.

By 1890, the state’s population stood at 1.4 million. Although still sparse in the western part of the state, the railroad network running through Kansas provided a reasonable degree of access to move people, produce, and goods. A decade of general prosperity followed, interrupted only by the hard times of a national depression from 1893 to 1895 and a mild crop failure in 1893. By 1894, the overall value of livestock and farm products in Kansas reached more than $4 billion.

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34 Cutler.
35 Jack, 24.
36 Ibid., 69.
38 Sachs and Ehrlich, 10.
39 Federal Writers Project, 59.
During the next two decades, the growing number of commercial businesses reflected prosperous times in Manhattan. After the arrival of the railroads, commercial and industrial development shifted to the southeast near the rail lines and moved outward in a northwesterly direction. At the beginning of the decade, Manhattan stretched over one square mile. The town plat featured a grid system of streets. Seven streets were each 100 feet wide, including Poyntz Avenue (running east-west) and Juliette Avenue (running north-south). The remaining streets were each 60 feet wide. Each block measured 315-by-400 feet, with a 15-foot-wide alley running east-west. The lots measured 50-by-150 feet. Beginning with Wyandotte Avenue, which bordered the western edge of Battery Park and ran north-south, the streets were numbered from east to west, with the exception of Juliette Avenue, which ran between 5th and 6th Streets.

Two railroad and two wagon road bridges, one of each across the two rivers, provided access to and from the town on the east. The eastern end of Poyntz Avenue, which began at the old river landing site, continued to function as the commercial center of the town. However, many commercial and industrial businesses relocated near rail lines along Wyandotte Avenue and El Paso Street. Most of Battery Park remained an open natural area. In 1885, the Union Pacific Railroad located their depot north of the four-story Purcell mill. Other commercial and industrial businesses located near the depot and included the E. B. Purcell grain elevator, which was one of the largest in the state. At this time, only three businesses operated in the area bounded by Wyandotte Avenue, 2nd Street, Pierre Street, and El Paso Street. There were also seventeen residences scattered throughout this area.

40 Listed as Juliette Avenue on the 1890 and 1897 Sanborn Fire Insurance Company maps. Beginning in 1905, it is listed as Juliette Avenue on the Sanborn Fire Insurance Company maps.
41 Map research revealed numerous street name changes after the circa 1885 plat map. Subsequent maps indicated different street names than those currently used. After 1908, 1st Street becomes 2nd Street; 2nd Street becomes 3rd Street, 3rd Street becomes 4th Street, 4th Street becomes 5th Street, and 5th Street becomes 6th Street. Fort Riley Boulevard was Eliza Street on the circa 1885 plat map. After 1890 through at least 1947, it was called El Paso Street and carried the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railroad tracks. Fair Lane was an unnamed alley south of El Paso (Fort Riley Boulevard) until at least 1947. Riley Lane was an unnamed alley north of Pottawatomie Avenue until at least 1947. The existing railroad alignment located between Fair and Riley Lanes was the Union Pacific Railroad tracks and was concurrently known as Riley Lane until at least 1947.
42 Jack, 69.
43 Manhattan does not follow the practice of designating streets running one direction as “Avenues” and those running another as “Streets.” Major thoroughfares that are 100 feet wide are designated Avenues, while those that are 60 feet wide are designated Streets.
44 By this time, the original Wyandotte Street was eliminated and 1st Street assumed the name of Wyandotte Street. The original 3rd Street became 2nd Street. According to the 1880 and 1900 census records, no addresses were listed for 2nd Street.
In the areas to the north, west, south, and southeast of the downtown commercial center were neighborhoods dominated by a combination of small folk houses, picturesque cottages, and large residences. Within these residential enclaves were ten church buildings. Along Juliette Avenue were the Courthouse Square and the Schoolhouse Square. The two-story main public school building was centrally located north of Poyntz Avenue in the Schoolhouse Square at the northeast corner of Juliette Avenue and Leavenworth Street. To the southwest of the Schoolhouse Square, near the outskirts of the City was a two-story stone school building erected in 1882 to accommodate the educational needs of an expanding population. Further west along Poyntz Avenue was the 45-acre Forest Park fairgrounds.45

Manhattan was one of a few Kansas towns that reserved several centrally located blocks for parks.46 Part of the original plat of the City, this designated open space’s role as a public park began in 1870 when the county agricultural society erected the Riley County Fairgrounds in the northeast portion of the City. An octagonal stone building called Floral Hall was part of the agricultural display area. It also contained a racetrack.

The “Downtown” commercial and government center occupied the 100-200 block of Poyntz Avenue and expanded westward. In 1885, a newspaper reported that, “with the exception of two short breaks, there is now a continuous awning on the north side of Poyntz east of 3rd Street.”47 Here, one- and two-story brick or limestone retail buildings featured defined storefronts and had offices and meeting rooms on the second floor. By now, most of the commercial buildings were permanent masonry replacements for the first hastily assembled structures of the settlement and post-war eras. Like other main streets in small Kansas towns, the buildings housed retail sales businesses such as mercantile stores as well as other services such as livery stables. On the second floor, above the retail storefronts, there were professional offices and meeting rooms for fraternal groups. Banks and hotels usually occupied the prime locations on the corners.

By the end of the decade, the City boasted its first waterworks at Ratone and 3rd Streets and incandescent electric streetlights in its downtown area.48 In 1883, Doctor E. L. Pattee opened a private hospital, the City’s first medical facility, at Poyntz Avenue and 3rd Street.49

45 Jack, 25. In 1890, City officials resisted efforts to subdivide for residential lots. Five years later, they installed a cast iron fountain. The monument to Chief Tatarrax of the Harahy tribe dates to 1904.
46 “Kansas Preservation Plan Study Unit on the Period of Exploration and Settlement (1820s-1880s),” 55.
48 Ibid., 69.
49 Ibid., 33
Manhattan not only shared the bounty of the state’s agricultural economy, it also reaped the financial benefits of its role as the county seat and benefited from the jobs and services related to the college and nearby Fort Riley. Beginning with its founding, successive waves of Germans, Swedes, and Irish settlers reduced the descendants of the New England and Ohio city founders to a minority. In 1900, the population of the City was 3,438 and the college had an enrollment of 1,321.\(^\text{50}\) Within two years, the City’s population grew to 4,000.\(^\text{51}\) At the end of the decade, it reached 6,300.\(^\text{52}\)

**DEVELOPMENT PATTERNS**

Kansas’ communities, like those from the nation’s first settlements, followed the European tradition of assigning proper spaces and choosing special sites for both public and private buildings. The deciding factor in the layout of these communities, more often than not, was related to physical factors — the location of the river or the presence of a railroad line and the use of a grid system for platting streets and lots. During the early settlement period in Kansas, the town’s main street usually faced the river and contained the community’s major commercial buildings. After the arrival of the railroad, three distinct types of town plans emerged in Kansas: those oriented to river traffic, those with a public square surrounded by commercial and institutional buildings, and those with a central main street. Manhattan combined two of these patterns. A central main commercial street (Poyntz Avenue) began at the river landing and extended west. Radiating out from the main street to the north, west, and south were residential neighborhoods platted in a grid pattern. The arrangement reflects the physical circumstances at the time of the City’s founding, the technological development of the era, and the location of the Big Blue and Kansas Rivers.

Before the Civil War, the steamboat was the dominant carrier of freight and passengers in the region. Towns such as Manhattan, which developed during this period, initially mirrored the plans of the nation’s early seacoast communities. Each town’s street system served the waterfront, which included the river levees and landings. Business houses occupied the locations on or near the landing with the most convenient arrangement for unloading and breaking cargo in bulk for distribution to retail traders, as well as for collecting, packaging, and shipping raw goods to other locations. Directly inland from the river landing were government offices, hotels, saloons, and retail establishments. Choice residential enclaves often occupied higher ground overlooking the river and upwind from the landing.

\(^{50}\) Jack, 69.
\(^{51}\) White and Ward, 67, quoting Slagg.
\(^{52}\) White and Ward, 26; and Sachs and Ehrlich, 13-16.
While the physical development of Manhattan shifted after the arrival of the railroad due to a change in commercial/industrial development patterns, it also retained the Main Street prototype where business houses faced onto a main street. The manufacturing and freighting services remained in the southeastern quadrant due to the location of the depot, which depended upon accessibility to the railroad tracks that ran along the riverbanks where there was a gradual change in grade. As a result, the City’s commercial businesses continued to cluster along its historic main commercial thoroughfare (Poyntz Avenue) well into the twentieth century. At the same time, industrial and warehousing businesses extended south from Poyntz Avenue along Wyandotte Avenue near the railroad facilities in Battery Park. Because of the location where two rivers merge at the City’s eastern boundary, railroad and wagon road bridges played an important role in the City’s development as well as the traditional orientation of commerce at its eastern boundaries.

In addition to the grid system of streets bounded by the Big Blue and Kansas Rivers on the east, transportation networks also influenced the development and physical character of Manhattan. In particular, Bluemont Avenue, which initially led to Bluemont Central College and later the agricultural college, stimulated residential development along this corridor just as concentrations of commercial and residential building continued to develop along the City’s rail systems.

However, the impact of the college on development was not rapid. Although the relocation of Bluemont Central College in 1875 one mile to the east, the college was still in a rural area two miles northwest of the Union Pacific Railway station and a mile west from 8th Street, the western edge of the community’s residential and commercial development. The original road from campus to town was unpaved and impassable much of the year. The Manhattan Transfer Company provided horse-drawn coach services between downtown and the campus, a trip that took thirty minutes each way. For the first few years, most students roomed in town and walked to campus every day. As a result, to make the trip easier, the college built a wood walkway connecting the college and the town. The college also established an eating hall so that students did not have to make the long round trip home for meals and back to campus. Nevertheless, there was little commercial synergy between town and campus.

College faculty and employees erected residences south and east of the relocated campus, just as they had earlier near the original campus in the late 1850s and 1860s. Among the earliest of these residences were those of Professor George Failyer and Professor H. M. Cottrell at the corners of 11th and Moro Streets, 53

53 Gumprecht, 19, available at [www.unh.edu/geography/Pages/Campus%20Corners.pdf](http://www.unh.edu/geography/Pages/Campus%20Corners.pdf); Internet; accessed 10 December 2006, citing an advertisement for the Manhattan Transfer Company, in the Student’s Herald, 14 September 1899.
now at the center of the Aggieville commercial district. Subsequent residences erected in the 1880s and 1890s by college professors near Moro Street and Manhattan Avenue established a faculty enclave.\(^{54}\)

The first business activity related to the relocated college was informal. Homeowners rented rooms to students and provided meals.\(^{55}\) During the late 1890s, several business establishments, including a barbershop and laundry service, became the first formal commercial ventures in the area.\(^{56}\) In 1899, after the Kansas Board of Regents closed the college dining hall and bookstore, college students established an off-campus cooperative bookstore and a boarding club that offered morning and evening meals in a nearby residence and lunch on campus.\(^{57}\) Soon thereafter, a grocery and meat market appeared nearby on Bluemont Avenue. These efforts were the genesis of what would become the City’s second commercial center during the early twentieth century.

The designation of 100-foot-wide avenues (such as Poyntz and Bluemont) that were major collector streets for the residential areas within the grid system also stimulated mixed use along their routes. Along the avenues, the apartment buildings, small hospitals, single-family residential enclaves, neighborhood commercial corners, government offices, churches, and schools that defined specific neighborhoods eventually, in the twentieth century, linked Downtown and Uptown Aggieville, which is near the college campus.

Linking the residential and commercial neighborhoods was the system of public squares and parks incorporated in the early platting of the City. Each ward had square blocks devoted to public use. The physical centerpiece was the original 45-acre fairground, which became known as City Park and served as the hub of the City’s social and cultural life.

By the end of the nineteenth century, land use was more formalized than during the settlement period immediately after the war. Manhattan was a small city [city status by 1880s] composed of distinct neighborhoods and commercial areas. A 1905 Sanborn Fire Insurance Company map shows railroad

\(^{54}\) Ibid., 5.
\(^{55}\) Ibid., 4. The first dormitory on campus was not built until 1926. After it became established, the college provided an eating hall.
\(^{56}\) Gumprecht notes that secondary sources date to a 1950 letter in which Dr. J. W. Evans said his father built a small building behind the family home in 1889 or 1890 to house a laundry and barber shop. However, the college newspaper, which printed announcements about new businesses and other non-significant “news” does not report any such business until an ad appeared in 1897 for the College Barber Shop located near the college entrance. The business also acted as an agent for a downtown laundry. The ad noted the business was only a few months old.
\(^{57}\) Gumprecht, 5, available at [www.unh.edu/geography/Pages/Campus%20Corners.pdf](http://www.unh.edu/geography/Pages/Campus%20Corners.pdf); Internet; accessed 10 December 2006.
lines running through Battery Park. The maps show the Union Pacific freight depot at the north end of Pierre Street at Wyandotte Avenue, the Union Pacific passenger depot at Yuma Street and Wyandotte Avenue, and the Chicago Rock Island Railroad depot at 4th and El Paso Streets. The Manhattan Mills face east onto Wyandotte Avenue and Battery Park. Stockyards straddle Yuma Street east of Wyandotte Avenue. Despite its abolitionist beginnings, de facto segregation became visually apparent. African American and Mexican residential areas appeared in the southern portion of the City near the railroad tracks and the road to Fort Riley.

While major thoroughfares such as Poyntz and Juliette Avenues featured brick paving and permanent all-weather sidewalks, curbs, and gutters, within the neighborhoods, brick and board sidewalks prevailed. It was not until 1901 that the City numbered buildings and posted street names in anticipation of door-to-door mail delivery.

The “Downtown” commercial, governmental, and financial district continued to focus on Poyntz Avenue. Residential neighborhoods stretched north, south, and west from the Downtown. These residential streets featured one-and-a-half-story cottages and larger two-story houses shaded by large elms.

THE EVOLUTION OF RESIDENTIAL ARCHITECTURE IN MANHATTAN, KANSAS: 1855-1900

The choices the citizens of Manhattan made in the design of their homes in the nineteenth century reflected the popular tastes of the era in which they were erected as well as locally available materials and the skills and building traditions of local carpenters, masons, master builders, and architects. These houses fall into two basic categories: folk houses and styled houses.

ACADEMIC HIGH STYLE RESIDENTIAL ARCHITECTURE

Styled houses incorporate popular and academic architectural trends through the conscious choice of building shape, materials, ornamentation, and other stylistic features. A number of styled houses that gained popularity during the second half of the nineteenth century are found in Manhattan. The majority reflect a period of rapid industrialization and an expanding network of railroads in the United States that brought inexpensive mass-produced building materials to the area.59

58 Today it is 5th Street.
Most of these styled houses date to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and trace their design origins to one of three principal architectural traditions — Ancient Classical, Renaissance Classical, and Medieval buildings. The Ancient Classical tradition has its origins in the monuments of early Greece and Rome. Utilizing some of the same details found in the Ancient Classical tradition, the closely related Renaissance Classical tradition stems from a renewed interest in classicism during the Renaissance. The third tradition, the Medieval, includes architecture based on the formal Gothic style used during the Middle Ages in French and English church buildings as well the simpler domestic buildings of the same era. Each of these traditions produced several different styles of American houses, many of which were interpreted and reinterpreted during different eras.

Earlier, in the late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century, only one style usually prevailed in a region over an extended period of time. By the 1840s, a blend of Greek-Gothic-Italianate stylistic modes emerged as one of the most prevalent blends of earlier styles. The blending of traditional styles gained wide popularity as a result of architectural building pattern books. One of the most widely read, A. J. Downing’s influential _Cottage Residences, Rural Architecture and Landscape Gardening_, published in 1842, presented several choices. Downing featured both the Medieval Gothic designs and the Italianate country villa styles. It was not long before some builders and architects combined features of both and these hybrid residential designs attained widespread popularity in the United States in the decades before the 1850s. The Greek Revival style house retained a high degree of popularity from approximately 1830 to 1860 and the Italianate style from about 1850 until 1875. Less common were the Gothic Revival houses that were more complex to construct. Both Gothic Revival and Italianate houses remained popular in Manhattan into the 1880s. The simultaneous popularity of several architectural styles from this point forward persisted as a dominant theme in American housing.

Victorian style houses also enjoyed popularity in the community and throughout the nation from 1860 to 1900. Among the styles classified as Victorian are the Second Empire, Stick, Queen Anne, Shingle, Richardsonian Romanesque, and Folk Victorian idioms. Victorian style houses seldom showed dramatically obvious mixtures of styles and most drew heavily on medieval building precedents for inspiration. Among the various Victorian house styles there is a strong commonality of architectural features such as steeply pitched roofs, textured wall surfaces, asymmetrical façades, and irregular floor plans. Known for their complex shape and elaborate detailing, these styles emerged from the technological shift from traditional heavy timber framing and load-bearing masonry construction to

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60 Ibid., 319.
61 Ibid.
62 Ibid., 177.
lightweight balloon framing, which greatly simplified construction of corners, wall extensions, and overhangs. In addition, the mass production of housing components resulting from the expanding railroad system further contributed to low-cost decorative ornamentation.  

Beginning in the mid-nineteenth century, these styles reflect a departure from the traditional American Colonial styles that dominated popular architecture for generations. They are important as a group in that they reflect a growing preference for a number of styles during coinciding eras.

By the end of the nineteenth century, the Eclectic Movement, which began around 1880, initially drew on Classical and Medieval architectural traditions. Homebuilders erected Colonial Revival and Neoclassical style residences. Most common were the relatively pure copies of houses originally built in different European countries or their New World colonies. At this time, European-trained architects began to design “period” residences for wealthy clients in the Italian Renaissance, Chateauseque, Beaux Arts, Colonial Revival, and Neoclassical styles. In Chicago, the World’s Columbian Exposition of 1893, which stressed correct historical interpretations of classical European styles, added to the popularity of reproducing historical models.

EARLY NATIONAL FOLK HOUSE FORMS AND VERNACULAR HOUSES

Folk houses are traditional building forms designed without a conscious attempt to mimic current fashion and include what is often categorized as vernacular houses. The term “vernacular” as used in this Multiple Property Documentation Form and, in particular, as it relates to late nineteenth century stone residences in Manhattan, is used in its broadest definition to refer to the building practices of a geographic area that used locally available materials and building skills to meet the property owner’s immediate construction needs. Frequently, the design and construction occurred simultaneously on site by the same people. Often, as is the case of Manhattan, these buildings were later enlarged as need and opportunity

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63 Ibid., 239.
64 Ibid., 319.
65 As noted in his class syllabus “Historic Preservation 723: Vernacular Architecture 1865 – Present,” Professor Fred Rogers of the University of Kentucky, in addressing the problem of the definition of the term vernacular architecture, refers to Dell Upton and John Michael Vlache’s Introduction in Common Places: Readings in American Architecture, pages xv to xvii. Rogers quotes the authors, “the issue of definition, apparently so simple, has proven to be one of the most serious problems for advocates of vernacular architecture and landscapes research. A straightforward, convincing authoritative definition has not yet been offered. Vernacular architecture is a phenomenon that many understand intuitively but that few are able to define. . . . The literature on the subject is thus filled with what might be called non-definitions. Vernacular architecture is non-high style building; it is not monumental, it is un-sophisticated; it is mere building. . . . Those who take a more positive approach rely on adjectives like ordinary, everyday and common-place. . . .
arose. These buildings were simple, utilitarian designs outside the popular academic architectural mainstream. They often reflected practices, forms, plans, and treatments associated with the owner’s and/or the builder’s cultural traditions and experiences. In Manhattan, they reflect both American Colonial and European building influences.

During the mid-nineteenth century settlement period of Kansas, most builders erected vernacular houses with local natural building materials (rock, clay, logs, and timber) found near the building site and prepared the building materials by themselves. The property owner generally did much of the work, but often hired specialized assistance. As the town or individual’s resources grew, the homeowner often hired local contractors and craftsmen to design and build the residence. Later, after the arrival of the railroad into a region, homebuilders also incorporated into their designs inexpensive materials imported from other parts of the country and available at the local marketplace.

During Manhattan’s early settlement period, local building materials and the availability of certain manufactured building components and supplies by way of water transport determined the configuration and physical appearance of the community’s buildings. As noted previously, limestone deposits, suitable clay for brick making in the river bottoms, and large stands of native hardwood trees on upland divides provided an abundant supply of local building materials.

The first temporary residences in Manhattan were called “caravansary’s” and consisted of an enclosure of sod walls, a cloth roof, prairie hay for a carpet, and cook stoves for warmth. Another variation was a canvas tent banked by sod walls. Manhattan’s first permanent residences utilized log and stone materials as well as prefabricated wood structures brought to the area on steamboats. Initially, limestone served as foundation material for log and frame buildings as well as wall material. Brick buildings began to appear soon after the town's founding, often trimmed in local limestone. In and around Manhattan, large stands of hardwood trees, including native oak and walnut, were plentiful and provided timber for framing and trimming. Later, after the advent of the railroad into the area in 1866, builders also incorporated into their designs inexpensive materials imported from other parts of the country, such as white and yellow pine for finish lumber.

Whether they built their residences and business houses of wood, stone, or brick, the builders of the first permanent buildings in Kansas followed building traditions and designs they had known in their home communities. In Manhattan, the early presence in the area of skilled carpenters, stone masons, and

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66 Jack, 27; and Cutler.
67 Sachs and Ehrlich, 2-3.
builder/architects due to the construction of Fort Riley and the agricultural college in the 1850s and 1860s resulted in vernacular adaptations of traditional styles from the eastern seaboard, as well as European building traditions. These influences sometimes provided a level of sophistication not found in other early settlements along the nation’s western border.

As a result, Manhattan’s first residences reflected associations of place (geography) more strongly than associations with current architectural fashion. The dependence on the local availability of building materials, as well as the building traditions imported by the earliest settlers of an area, provided strong contrasts in the design and form of houses in the Manhattan area from other towns and regions in the state.

During the 1870s and 1880s, communities in the western United States gained access to a wide range of building materials. Railroads rapidly and cheaply moved lumber over long distances from far-flung sawmills in heavily forested areas. Consequently, large lumberyards became standard fixtures in almost every town. In Manhattan, the local supply of native hardwood initially met the community’s building needs. By the 1870s, lumberyards near the City’s rail lines appeared and, shortly thereafter, hewn log houses and mortise-and-tendon framing were replaced by houses of light balloon or braced framing covered by wood sheathing, which took their place among the stone and brick houses in the community.

Despite the change in building technique and materials, older folk house shapes persisted as simple dwellings defined by their form and massing, but lacking identifiable stylistic attributes. Even after communities became established, these folk house designs remained popular as an affordable alternative to more ornate and complex architectural styles. However, these adaptations often had ornamentation inspired by popular high style dwellings. Many of the earliest houses in Manhattan reflected these traditions. Virginia and Lee McAlester, in *A Field Guide to American Houses*, identify several basic National Folk House families, which include the following folk house forms found in Manhattan.

The simple **Gable-Front** folk house form was common in New England and the adjacent northeast region in the Colonial era. This folk house form grew from the popularity of the Greek Revival Movement

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68 McAlester, 89.
69 Ibid., 94.
during the period from 1830 to 1850 and commonly used the front gable shape to echo the classical pediment of the Greek temple. The form persisted with the expansion of the railroad network and became a dominant folk house form well into the twentieth century.\textsuperscript{70} As found in Manhattan in the mid-to-late nineteenth century, most are fairly narrow two-story houses built of stone, brick, or wood with relatively steep roof pitches.

Also originating in the northeastern part of the United States, the \textbf{Gable-Front-and-Wing} folk house form featured a side-gabled wing added at right angles to the Gable-Front folk house form to produce a compound gable-front-and-wing shape. A one-story porch was typically placed within the “L” made by the two wings. Some of these houses grew in stages, as two-story front-gabled wings were added to simple hall-and-parlor and I-house plans. Or, as occurred frequently in early stone houses in Manhattan, when a side-gabled wing was added to a Gable-Front folk house form. As a result, the roof ridge of the gable-front section was often higher or lower than that of the adjacent wing. Most commonly, the entire house structure was built as a single unit with a roof ridge of uniform height.\textsuperscript{71}

The simple side-gabled \textbf{Hall-and-Parlor} folk house form, which is two rooms wide and one room deep, was first built in America of heavy timber framing. After the expansion of the railroad network, the form was constructed with light frame walls and became a dominant folk house form. Despite the addition of a front porch and rear extensions, and the change from timber to light framing, the form that continued to be erected throughout the nineteenth century showed relatively little change since colonial times. The principal variations involved differing chimney placement, porch sizes, porch roof shapes, and different patterns of rearward extensions made to enlarge the interior space.\textsuperscript{72}

\textsuperscript{70} Ibid., 90.
\textsuperscript{71} Ibid., 92.
Late Nineteenth Century Vernacular Stone Houses in Manhattan, Kansas
Riley County, Kansas

The **I-House** folk house form is a two-story version of the Hall-and-Parlor folk house form that is also two rooms wide (not counting a central hall) and one room deep. This folk house form usually featured chimneys on the side-gabled ends. The I-House is a traditional British folk house form that was common in the colonial era and which, after the advent of light frame housing, became a popular folk house form for modest dwellings in the Midwest. Variations included porches and rearward extensions.73

Two related transitional colonial style houses also appear in Manhattan. The **New England Saltbox** featured a two-story side-gable form (often with a center hall plan), but was one-and-a-half-rooms deep and had a central chimney system.74 The **Massed-Plan, Side-Gabled** folk house form features a side-gabled plan that is two rooms wide; two or more rooms deep; and one, one-and-a-half, or two stories in height. The form was common during the colonial era in the Northeast where New England building traditions developed roof-framing techniques for spanning large spaces. Lightweight lumber made available by railways stimulated simpler methods of light roof framing, which led to other modest variations of folk house dwellings. These folk house forms vary in roof pitch and size as well as placement of porches.75

The **Pyramidal** folk house form is a Massed-Plan, Side Gabled folk house form that has a nearly square plan. While the equilateral hipped roof system is a more complex method of roof framing, it requires fewer long-spanning rafters and is less expensive to build. Variations occur in roof pitch and the size and placement of porches.76

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72 Ibid., 94.
73 Ibid., 96.
74 Ibid., 78.
75 Ibid., 98.
76 Ibid., 100.
RESIDENTIAL BUILDERS AND CRAFTSMEN IN MANHATTAN, KANSAS: 1855-1900

During the late nineteenth century, many of the individuals involved in the construction of buildings and structures bestowed upon themselves the title of “architect.” Most were master carpenters and stone masons who had experience and/or talent in drafting plans or following the plans designed by professionally trained architects, as well as the ability to contract with and supervise craftsmen from a variety of trades. During the initial settlement period of Kansas, the master carpenters and masons contracted by property owners designed the majority of buildings erected in small towns like Manhattan between 1855 and 1880.

Prosperous times stimulated a building boom that dramatically changed the appearance of the state’s cities and towns in the 1880s. As a result, the number of professionally trained architects practicing in the state grew rapidly. The number and caliber of trained architects who practiced in Kansas in the late nineteenth century also had its roots in the development of the first architecture program in the state established in 1877 at what is now Kansas State University in Manhattan. J. D. Walters, a Swiss-trained civil engineer, offered instruction in architectural drawing. By 1903, the Kansas State College of Engineering offered a full architectural curriculum. However, despite a dramatic increase in professionally trained architects in the last two decades of the nineteenth century, as a rule, only the prestigious government buildings, private commercial buildings, and homes of the affluent reflected the designs of trained architects. Within Manhattan, the presence of resident architects/engineers associated with the college produced a number of more modest architect-designed residences than would typically be found in other communities of its size.

Early Architects/Builders
One of the earliest references to an architect-designed structure was in an 1860 newspaper article about the construction of St. Paul’s Episcopal Church at the southwest corner of 6th Street and Poyntz Avenue. The Manhattan Express article notes the designer of the building as the “celebrated House of Upjohn & Co. of New York” and the building contractor as Mr. Clark Lewis. Born in England, Richard Upjohn came to the United States in 1820 and became noted for his use of the Gothic style for the design of the small parish church.

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77 Unless otherwise noted, the information relating to Manhattan architects is based on analysis of data presented in Patricia J. O’Brien’s “The Architects of Manhattan, Kansas,” an unpublished manuscript prepared for this study in March 2004, and relates primarily to early architects and their work in historic Wards 1 and 2 and in the rural areas outside of the Manhattan city limits in the nineteenth century.


W. H. Stillwell of Leavenworth provided professional architectural services in Manhattan beginning in the 1850s. In 1858, E. B. Purcell hired Stillwell to design his residence and a business building that once stood at the southwest corner of 3rd Street and Poyntz Avenue.80

Another early builder was Daniel W. Lane. The Manhattan Express’ 1859 business directory lists “D. W. Lane, Architect and Builder.” The listing appears in the paper until mid-1860. Lane designed the two-story limestone Riley County Jail erected in 1867. Little is known of his architectural work after the Civil War, although he was a prosperous farmer. The family left the area before 1880.81

Benjamin W. Powers was an important architect and builder in Manhattan. Powers advertised in 1863 as “B. W. Powers Architect and Builder.” The advertisement expounded upon his ability to develop architectural plans as well as follow plans; his expertise in the building of bridges and stone and brick buildings of “any size”; and his skill at providing lathing and plastering, cistern building, and stone cutting services. The 1865 Kansas census lists Powers as a builder who came from New York. He does not appear in previous censuses from the 1850s and 1860s. Powers is credited with the masonry work of the 1868 wing of the Isaac T. Goodnow stone residence,82 as well as the design of the barn a year later. J.C. McBride served as the stone mason on these projects.

Powers also designed and constructed his residence of red brick with white stone corners and trim in 1867.83 That same year, he served as the architect and builder of the I.O.O.F building using stone from the Cedar Creek Quarry wrought by John Riggs.84 In 1869, he constructed the stone residence of Colonel W. M. Snow near the Bluemont Central College campus.85 Representative of his architectural talents are the tooled stone quoins and sill caps. The local newspaper noted at this time that “Powers is known to be a first class reliable architect, and builder, and hence he gets all he can do.”86 That same year he designed the stone barn for Joseph Denison87 and a brick house for Professor James H. Lee.88 In 1870, Powers

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80 Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Standard, 3 October 1868. Neither building remains extant.
81 Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Express, 17 September 1859, 1; and Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Independent, 6 July 1867, 3. The building was demolished before 1900.
82 Located at 2309 Claflin Road.
83 Located at 426 Houston Street.
84 The building is no longer extant.
85 Located at 539 Westview Road.
87 Magnus Vilander, a stone mason, executed the actual stone work according to the Manhattan Standard, 20 November 1869, 3.
played a role in the design and construction of the Presbyterian Church, which once stood at the southwest corner of 5th Street and Poyntz Avenue. At this time, his business card noted that he specialized as a “House and Bridge Mover.” Among his residential commissions in 1871 were the brick house of Professor J. E. Platt and the three-and-a-half-story residence of Major N. A. Adams, which once stood at the corner of Juliette Avenue and Houston Street. In 1882, he sold his property in Manhattan and moved to Clay Center. Powers died in Kansas City, Missouri in 1891.

Erasmus T. Carr, born in 1825 in Greenville, New York, was first a bricklayer and mason and then an architect. He worked in Syracuse, New York as a builder. In 1855, he went to Fort Leavenworth and worked as a foreman on various building projects. Shortly thereafter, he opened an office in Leavenworth as an architect. In 1863, he designed the state penitentiary. He served as the state architect of Kansas from March 27, 1870 to May 1885. The first reference to Erasmus T. Carr working in Manhattan appears in 1876 when Ashford Stingley hired Carr to design his $4,000 home at the northwest corner of present-day Houston and 5th Streets. Carr designed the Central School and the College Barn at the Kansas State Agricultural College in 1877. He designed the Second Methodist Church in 1879. That same year, Thomas J. Jenkins hired Carr to design his residence, with William Smith serving as the contractor.

George Ropes served as the state architect of Kansas from April 9, 1885 to March 30, 1887 and from May 1, 1889 to April 1, 1891. In 1882, Colonel J. B. Anderson built a large residence at Colorado Street.
and Juliette Avenue. Newspaper accounts attribute the design to Anderson’s wife and an architect called “Roofes,” which is believed to be a typographical error for “Ropes.” The identified commissions awarded to Ropes in Manhattan include the two-story limestone commercial building erected in 1884 and John E. Hessin’s house.99

C. W. Hopkins was born in Lima, New York in 1830. Educated in Ohio, he came to Topeka, Kansas in June of 1868 and worked in the construction industry until he became a partner of Erasmus T. Carr in 1881. Later, Hopkins was a partner of J. C. Holland. In 1884, G. W. Higinbotham hired Hopkins to design a “cottage” on Humboldt Street.100 In 1882, Hopkins and E. T. Carr designed the Avenue School in Manhattan. Hopkins also designed the Grange and Masonic building that stood at the southeast corner of 5th Street and Poyntz Avenue.101

Herman McClure Hadley came to Topeka in December of 1877 and began practicing architecture the next year. He was born in Canada in 1850 and studied at Cornell University, graduating first in his class in 1876 with a degree in architecture. Hadley is the architect of record for the 1892 residence that remains extant at 617 Colorado Street. He designed a third-floor addition featuring a Mansard roof for the Higinbotham House at 4th and Houston Streets. Hadley was also associated with the architect S. H. Kurfiss and, in late 1902, was awarded second prize at the Louisiana Purchase Exhibition in St. Louis.102

Peter Cool came to Manhattan in 1878 and worked as a building contractor. The business listing of the Manhattan Nationalist lists Cool as a “Carpenter, Contractor and Builder” with “27 years experience who provided drawn plans.” Subsequent articles refer to him as an architect. He designed a two-story stone house with a hipped roof for John M. Vincent that was erected in 1880. In 1896, he designed in the expansion of the 1879 Methodist Episcopal Church, which stood at the corner of 6th Street and Poyntz Avenue.

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98 Located at 230 Poyntz Avenue.
99 Fire destroyed the Anderson house. The Hessin residence is at 1103 Laramie Street. O’Brien, “The Architects of Manhattan, Kansas,” quoting the Nationalist, 28 July 1882, 3; and Ibid., quoting the Nationalist, 11 April 1884, 1.
100 The building is no longer extant.
101 The upper stories were razed in 1936. O’Brien, “The Architects of Manhattan, Kansas,” quoting the Nationalist, 9 May 1884, 8; Ibid., quoting Andreas, 566; Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Mercury, 8 April 1891, 8; Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Mercury, 21 October 1936, 1; Ibid., quoting and Sachs and Ehrlich, 321.
102 Ibid., quoting Andreas 564-565; Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Republic, 4 February 1892, 7; Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Republic, 2 June 1982, 7; Ibid., quoting the Manhattan Republic, 16 June 1892, 7; Ibid., quoting Midwest Contractor, 14 January 1903, 1. The Higinbotham house is no longer extant.
103 Located at 401 North 4th Street.
Avenue. Cool was born near Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania in 1834. Between 1855 and 1878, he worked in the area as a carpenter and contractor. He died in 1909.104

**John Daniel Walters** planned and designed a number of public, commercial, and private structures in Manhattan. Walters founded the architecture program at Kansas State Agricultural College. Born in 1846 in German-speaking Western Switzerland, Walters received his education in the common canon schools of Switzerland and entered the Canonal College and Normal School of Solothurn in the third year of their five-year technical course. He left the program to study architecture and civil engineering at the University of Bern. He came to the United States in 1868. He came to Riley County in 1877 to serve as an instructor of industrial drawings at the Kansas State Agricultural College. In 1882, he received a Master of Science degree from the college. Two years later, he became a Professor of Industrial Arts and Design. In 1903, he became a Professor of Architecture as a result of his efforts to create an architectural degree program. In 1908, Walters received one of the few honorary doctorates given by the college. In addition to teaching, Professor Walters collaborated on landscape design projects and the design of a number of buildings on the college campus. His most important designs on campus are Fairchild Hall, which was built in 1894, and Kedzie Hall, which was erected in 1897. Among his extant private commissions are a two-story limestone commercial building erected in 1885,105 the 1903 Manhattan City Hall, the waterworks’ Pump House, the Manhattan State Bank building,106 and the Douglass School.107 The private residences he designed include a Queen Anne style residence,108 banker W. W. Ramey’s ten-room residence,109 Walters’ own residence,110 and three rental houses on North 3rd Street.111

**Early Contractors and Craftsmen**
As was typical of other Kansas towns, many of Manhattan’s earliest buildings were not architect-designed. However, due to an unusual influx of master carpenters, brick and stone masons, and other building craftsmen on account of the construction work at Fort Riley and Bluemont Central College beginning in the 1850s, Manhattan’s earliest buildings reflected a degree of sophistication and skill not found in most border settlements.

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105 Located at 311 Poyntz Avenue.
106 Located at 400 Poyntz Avenue.
107 Located at 901 Yuma Street.
108 Located at 617 Houston.
109 Located at 701 Osage Street.
110 Located at 508 Bluemont Avenue.
111 Located at 412, 418, and 420 North 3rd Street. The houses at 418 and 420 North 3rd Street are no longer extant.
Among the early local stone and brick masons working in the Manhattan area in the 1850s and 1860s, which included Clark Lewis, Samuel Kimble Senior, and John Louis Soupene, was William Moehlman, a prominent stone mason who helped erect buildings at both Fort Riley and Fort Pawnee, including the first Kansas Capital, which is now located on the Fort Riley military installation. Moehlman also built a large residence in the rural area on Rosencutter Road. Robert Ulrich, a native of Leipsig, Germany who came to Manhattan in the 1860s and established a brickyard and stone quarries, also provided masonry services. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, his sons later operated the businesses as the Ulrich Brothers, which provided masonry and general contracting services. John F. Currier, a skilled carpenter, also constructed a stone residence as early as 1860. Stone mason J. C. McBride appears in newspapers in 1869 as the builder of the Goodnow farmstead barn. Newspaper accounts of this time also report that stone mason, John Riggs used limestone from the Cedar Creek Quarry to erect a stone dwelling and that John Diehle erected a stone residence in 1868. Magnus Vilander is credited with the erection of the Denison farmstead barn in 1869. Various published articles credit mason Jacob Winne with erecting numerous brick and stone residences in and near Manhattan. Stone mason A. Flanders appears to have been associated with Winne in various projects. Among the early craftsmen in the area was Hiram Bloss, a plasterer, who appears in the area as early as 1860.

Newspaper articles in the 1870s identify J. H. Brous as a carpenter and building contractor who erected stone residences and commercial buildings; J. E. Shortridge as a carpenter and lumber yard owner; and William Smith as a carpenter and building contractor. Stone masons active at this time in home building were Nels Sandal (a.k.a. Atoline Sandal), Peter Sandel, Lewis Rassmusson, and Alvin Reynolds. David C. Hulse, a wood worker, was another building contractor working in Manhattan as early as 1871.

During the 1880s, the contracting firm of Green and Hessins established a business in Manhattan. Stone masons mentioned in articles relating to residential construction include D. R. Roper and John Edelblute. Beginning in the 1890s, German born Herman Woelfling (Woelfie) provided “fancy” stone cutting and installation services.
Native limestone was the preferred building material for Manhattan’s business houses and institutional buildings, as well as for the buildings on the Kansas State University campus. It was also a popular choice among early residents and farmers in the surrounding countryside. All of the City’s public buildings and those of Kansas State University erected in the late nineteenth century and the first three decades of the twentieth century had limestone walls.113

The ungrained sedimentary rock provided an ideal and plentiful source of material for the community’s earliest residences, which were built of “dressed” or “rough” stone. Dressed stone, often called ashlar masonry or square-cut stone, has square edges forming rectangular masonry units that can have smooth, tooled, or natural/quarry face finishes; rough-cut stone often retains a natural rough face and has edges cut to various angles.114 Masonry using un-cut irregularly shaped stones is known as rubble masonry. Both rubble and ashlar masonry were laid in regular, irregular, or random courses through the careful selection or cutting of stones to fit.115

The craft of transforming rough stone blocks into accurate simple or complex geometrical shapes and then stacking them to form walls requires training and expertise. The craft, as it was practiced in the United States in the nineteenth century, originated in Northern France and spread to England and other areas of Western Europe beginning in the fourteenth century. In the nineteenth century, craftsmen known as stone masons116 represented different levels of expertise. Most of the training of a stone mason traditionally occurred in the quarries where the stone was either partially or fully finished before transportation to the building site. Through experience, unskilled workers rose to positions of responsibility and skill. At the stone quarry, quarrymen split the rock and extracted the blocks of stone from the ground, then sawyers cut the rough blocks into rectangles of the specified sizes. The Banker Mason carved stones into geometrical shapes required by the building’s design. This work ran the gamut from preparing simple chamfered stone to the creation of tracery windows.117 The Carver Mason carved

113 Federal Writers Project, 250.
114 McAlester, 39.
115 Ibid.
116 In British and American usage, a mason is variously defined as a stone worker/setter; a bricklayer; and/or a fixer or waller.
117 In the South of France, masons used a local material called freestone, a form of limestone that is easy to quarry and shape and was suitable in texture for the jambs, piers, arches, traceries, and other parts of a building. The planning and execution of these details required a thorough knowledge of geometry and construction methodology.
stone into foliage, figures, animals, or abstract designs. From here, the stone was moved to the building site where the highly skilled Fixer Masons supervised the setting or fixing of stones using lifting tackle, mortar, and/or metal fixings. Mason’s Labourers were skilled workers who assisted in the lifting of stones, cutting of holes, and setting of the stones.

Manhattan benefitted from the early presence of skilled carpenters, plasterers, brick and stone masons, and other building craftmen. In particular, approximately four miles southwest of Manhattan, the small community of Moehlman Bottoms was settled in the 1850s by German craftsmen who helped build Fort Riley and was home to builders of considerable skill. Other craftsmen, such as Samuel Kimble Sr., a

The craftsmen who worked this stone were referred to as Freestone Masons and, later, Freemasons. Subsequently, the term meant a skilled mason capable of carving freestone. The term is no longer used in the building industry, but refers to members of certain fraternal associations.
carpenter and stonemason, and the French stone mason John Louis Soupene, came independently to Kansas to work at Fort Riley.\textsuperscript{118} The commencement of construction of Bluemont Central College in the late 1850s further attracted skilled craftsmen into the area.

**VERNACULAR STONE HOUSE PROPERTY TYPE**

Mid- to late nineteenth century stone houses are found throughout the current city limits of Manhattan, Kansas. Approximately one-half of those documented were farmhouses located in what were once rural areas outside the city limits or undeveloped areas within the city limits. The earliest of these stone houses were relatively small domiciles, and a high percentage of these resources reflect later nineteenth century additions.

One of the earliest of these stone residences dates to the 1850s\textsuperscript{119} when Washington Marlatt, one of the founders of Bluemont Central College, purchased a quarter section of land northwest of the Manhattan town site and erected a one-and-a-half-story rectangular plan stone residence and stone barns.\textsuperscript{120} Like many of the houses erected in the early settlement period, the original Marlatt house was the first of several stages of construction. A later owner added a lean-to addition to the north and northeast corner of the house in 1877, forming a “saltbox.”\textsuperscript{121} Another limestone house erected nearby between 1858 and 1860 was the small one-and-a-half-story home of Reverend William and Ellen McCollom.\textsuperscript{122} Newspaper accounts announcing the addition to the house in 1868, note that the original building had two rooms on each floor. A subsequent owner erected another stone building to the north and linked the two by a porch. In 1868, General J. W. Davidson joined these two buildings via a third larger, two-story building.

\textsuperscript{118} Patricia J. O’Brien, “Chapter 5. Vernacular Buildings of 19\textsuperscript{th} Century Manhattan,” TMs September 2006. Unless otherwise noted, all information on the early stone residences was taken from this source.

\textsuperscript{119} O’Brien notes that the actual date of construction is unknown, but in a letter written by Thomas C. Wells dated 4 May 1856 it is mentioned as being rented to a plasterer. The property was listed in the Register of Historic Kansas Places in August 2006.

\textsuperscript{120} The house and barn are located on the east side of College Avenue opposite the Dickens Avenue corner.

\textsuperscript{121} A circa 1913 remodeling obscures the early residence. The building is listed in the Register of Historic Kansas Places.

\textsuperscript{122} Located at 2120 College Heights. The south portion of the structure dates to this time.
Late Nineteenth Century Vernacular Stone Houses in Manhattan, Kansas
Riley County, Kansas

A number of the residences dating to the late 1850s and early 1860s reflect the architectural influences of the New England and the Northeast, as well as the considerable skills of stone masons. The 1859 two-story Gable-Front residence of Bluemont Central College president Joseph Denison (above) reflects the influences of the popular colonial era Greek Revival style house. Of note in this vernacular stone house is the fanlight in the gable, a feature that appeared on the façades of the stone buildings erected on the Bluemont Central College campus at this time.

The large circa 1858 two-story farmhouse of free-state advocate Samuel Dexter Houston (left) was Houston’s second, replacing a log house erected in 1853 on Wild Cat Creek. The house is a stripped-down vernacular stone adaptation of the American Colonial Georgian style — a simple two-story box that is two rooms deep with a side-gabled roof, a center entrance, and doors and windows organized in strict symmetry. Houston drafted the plans and stone mason John Louis Soupene, an immigrant from France, erected the building.

Another example of the architectural influences of the Northeast is the two-story residence erected in 1860 and purchased by Isaac T. Goodnow in 1861. The original 20-by-28-foot building, which now constitutes the east segment of the residence, was built by John F. Currier, a carpenter and native of New Hampshire. Stone mason and architect, Benjamin F. Powers, is believed to have been involved in the design and/or construction of the later addition.

123 Located at 1113 Hylton Heights Road in the first block north of Anderson Avenue. Dennison added a barn around 1869.
124 Located on West Anderson Avenue near the entrance to the Sharing Brook subdivision.
126 McAlester, 119.
127 Located at 2301 Claflin Road.
128 The property is a Kansas State Historical Site and was listed in the National Register of Historic Places in 1971.
The Goodnow house is an excellent example of the sophisticated masonry work incorporated into the community’s oldest stone residences. The earliest stone dwellings in and near Manhattan reflect the combined use of quarry face, sawed, tooled, and rubbed ashlar finishes. In particular, the juxtaposition of polished or tooled quoins on corners and around doors, as well as lintels set in walls of natural quarry face limestone was popular.

**Gable-Front Stone Houses**

An excellent example of a stone adaptation of the Gable-Front folk house form is the home of stone mason Jacob Winne erected in circa 1866 (*top right*). Of note are the tooled quoins, sills, and lintels. While the Gable-Front stone houses have a relatively narrow primary façade, they feature both side and central entrances and demonstrate a pronounced symmetry. As with most of Manhattan’s early stone houses, the Winne house features subsequent additions.

**Gable-Front-and-Wing Stone House**

A high percentage of the extant Gable-Front-and-Wing stone houses were built in stages, with the addition of a wing sited perpendicular to a preexisting gable-front or side-gabled building. The circa 1870 stone residence in the five hundred block of Juliette Street (*center right*) features an intersecting gable roof form that shares the same ridge line, but the difference in the house’s stonework clearly delineates a staged construction. Typically, the first stage of this type of house was a one-and-a-half- or two-story rectangular box, measuring approximately 20 by 30 feet.

Another form of the Gable-Front-and-Wing stone house occurred with the addition of a side-gabled wing to an earlier Gable-Front house, creating a stepped roof ridge or a complex roof form like that of the 1860 John Flagg House (*bottom right*) with its late nineteenth century addition.
Center-Hall-Plan, Side-Gabled Stone House

Adapting a traditional British folk form common in pre-railroad America that evolved into the simple side-gabled Hall-and-Parlor, I-House, and Massed Plan, Side-Gabled folk house forms, the vernacular Center-Hall-Plan, Side-Gabled stone house represents some of the earliest stone residences erected in Manhattan. Executed in local limestone rather than the wood, brick, and granite variants found in New England, the tooled lintels and sills and the symmetry of fenestration provided a formal dignity. Of note was the need for spacious houses in a climate with relatively long and confining winters. All featured varying patterns of porches, chimneys, and rear extensions.

In Manhattan, many of these houses featured several entrances — an articulated entrance, often with a porch on the primary façade, and a side entrance in the end gable. The complex design of the 1868 Frank Wolf House (above, bottom left and right), with its rear central wing, appears as an I–House when viewed from the front and as a Gable-Front-and-Wing house when viewed from the side. The elaborate plan reflects the considerable talents of stone mason, John Diehl.
Pyramidal Roof Stone House

With a square or nearly square plan, these stone houses range from very simple to more complex versions. They appear in the last two decades of the nineteenth century and carry over into the first decade of the twentieth century. They occur in Manhattan as one- and two-story buildings. Typical variations in the one-story version of the Pyramidal Roof stone house include roof pitch, entrance porch treatments, and the addition of dormer window units. The earliest extant two-story version appeared in the 1880s. It too had a simple square or rectangular plan; however, it featured a low-pitched hipped roof and symmetrical façade. One-story wings and porches are common and are clearly subordinate to the principal two-story mass. The entrance may be centered or form a side bay. Some, like the John M. Vincent house (bottom right), have two equally distinct entrances. Others resemble a side hall townhouse plan. In form, the two-story version of this property type reflects a stripped down Italianate town house. The use of paired windows also alludes to this popular mid- to late-nineteenth century style.