United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

1. Name of Property

Historic name: Rosewood Courts Historic District
Other names/site number: N/A
Name of related multiple property listing: N/A

2. Location

Street & number: Roughly bounded by Chicon Street, Rosewood Avenue, and Poquito Street
City or Town: Austin  State: Texas  County: Travis
Not For Publication: ☐  Vicinity: ☐

3. State/Federal Agency Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, I hereby certify that this ☐ nomination ☐ request for determination of eligibility meets the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60.

In my opinion, the property ___ meets ___ does not meet the National Register Criteria.

I recommend that this property be considered significant at the following level(s) of significance:
☒ national  ☐ statewide  ☐ local

Applicable National Register Criteria:  ☒ A  ☒ B  ☒ C  ☒ D

______________________________________
State Historic Preservation Officer
Signature of certifying official/Title: Date

Texas Historical Commission
State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government Date

In my opinion, the property ____meets ____does not meet the National Register criteria.

______________________________________
Signature of commenting or other official Date

State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government Date

4. National Park Service Certification

I hereby certify that the property is:

____entered in the National Register
____determined eligible for the National Register
____determined not eligible for the National Register
____removed from the National Register
____other, explain:___________________________

______________________________________
Signature of the Keeper Date of Action

Page 1 of 94
5. Classification

Ownership of Property

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership of Property</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public - Local</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public - State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public - Federal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Category of Property

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Property</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>building(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>district</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of Resources within Property

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contributing</th>
<th>Noncontributing</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>sites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register: N/A

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions: DOMESTIC/multiple dwelling, RECREATION AND CULTURE/outdoor recreation

Current Functions: DOMESTIC/multiple dwelling

7. Description

Architectural Classification: International Style

Principal Exterior Materials: Concrete, Brick, Ceramic Tile

Narrative Description: See continuation sheets Section 7, Page 5 through Section 7, Page 6
8. Statement of Significance

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>Property has yielded, or is likely to yield information important in prehistory or history.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Criteria Considerations: N/A

Areas of Significance: Social History, Politics/Government, Ethnic Heritage (Black), Community Planning and Development, Architecture, Archeology (Historic—Non-Aboriginal)

Period of Significance: 1900-1966

Significant Dates: 1900, 1939, 1940 1966

Significant Person: a. Johnson, Lyndon Baines  
b. Straus, Nathan  
c. Winston, Oliver C.

Cultural Affiliation: African-American

Architect/Builder: H.F. Kuehne (supervising architect), Page & Southerland (architects), Vincent Falbo & Sons (contractor), Charles Coatsworth Pinkney (landscape architect)

9. Major Bibliographic References

Bibliography (see continuation sheets Section 9, Page 18 through Section 9, Page 22)

Previous documentation on file (NPS):  
- preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested.  
- previously listed in the National Register  
- previously determined eligible by the National Register  
- designated a National Historic Landmark  
- recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey #  
- recorded by Historic American Engineering Record #

Primary location of additional data:  
- State historic preservation office (Texas Historical Commission, Austin)  
- Other state agency  
- Federal agency  
- Local government  
- University (Architecture Library, The University of Texas at Austin)  
- Other (Austin History Center, Austin Public Library)

Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): N/A

10. Geographical Data

Acreage of Property: 8.9 acres

Coordinates:
UTM Datum: NAD 1983

1. Zone: 14R  Easting:  623399 m E  Northing:  3349195 m N
2. Zone: 14R  Easting:  623349 m E  Northing:  3349383 m N
3. Zone:  14R  Easting:  623240 m E  Northing:  3349362 m N
4. Zone:  14R  Easting :  623160 m E  Northing:  3349151 m N

Verbal Boundary Description:

The property is bounded on the west by Chicon Street, on the north by Rosewood Avenue, and on the east by Poquito Street. The project's southern boundary approximately runs from west to east along Yale Street to Chicon Street. The official address of the property is 2001 Rosewood Avenue.

Boundary Justification:

The boundary corresponds to the site's existing footprint and corresponds with present-day land records and historical maps and drawings.

11. Form Prepared By

Name/title: Fred L. McGhee, Ph.D., President and Principal Investigator
Organization: Fred L. McGhee & Associates
Street & number: 2316 Thrasher Lane
City or town: Austin  State: TX  Zip Code: 78741-6622
E-Mail: fmcghee@flma.org
Telephone: (512) 275-6027
Date: August 15, 2016
State: TX

Additional Documentation

Maps: See continuation sheets Map, Page 22 through Map, Page 28

Additional Items: See continuation sheets Figure, Page 29 through Figure, Page 40

Photographs: See continuation sheets Photo, Page 41 through Photo, Page 58

Name of Property: Rosewood Courts Historic District
City or Vicinity: Austin  County: Travis  State: Texas
Photographer: Various
Date Photographed: Various
State: Texas
Rosewood Courts in Austin, Texas is the first public housing development that started construction under the 1937 Housing Act that created the United States Housing Authority (USHA). Constructed alongside Santa Rita Courts which was built to house families of Mexican descent, Rosewood Courts is the first USHA housing project built for African American families. Rosewood Courts was one of three original East Austin housing projects built under the 1937 Act, the other being Chalmers Courts which was built for white families and began construction after Santa Rita and Rosewood Courts. Constructed between November 17, 1938 and September 1, 1939, the development is nationally significant under Criteria A and B in the areas of Social History, Politics/Government and Ethnic Heritage (Black) and for its associations with President Lyndon Baines Johnson, USHA Administrator Nathan Straus, and architect/planner Oliver B. Winston. It is nationally significant under Criteria C and D in the areas of Community Planning and Development, Architecture, Landscape Architecture, and Archeology (Historic—Non Aboriginal). The period of significance is 1900-1966.

Summary Paragraph

Rosewood Courts in central East Austin, Texas consists of 25 one and two story housing structures and two storage buildings occupying a site of 8.9 acres located in the city's historic Rosewood Neighborhood. The property is bounded on the west by Chicon Street, on the north by Rosewood Avenue, and on the east by Poquito Street. The project’s southern boundary approximately runs from west to east along Yale Street to Chicon Street. The official address of the property is 2001 Rosewood Avenue. These buildings are of reinforced concrete and masonry construction and were initially designed to comprise a planned neighborhood development of 130 units of public housing. 124 units are currently in use as housing.

Rosewood Courts was constructed by the Housing Authority of the City of Austin as low-income housing before World War II on the site of Emancipation Park, Austin's largest and most important Juneteenth parade ground, which was established in the early twentieth century. The site sits on a hill which slopes markedly from south to north toward Rosewood Avenue and the Emancipation Park site, which is approximately located near the southward end of building 23 adjacent to a Boggy Creek tributary, known as Poquito Creek.

Organized as a superblock, vehicular lanes at Rosewood Courts end in cul-de-sacs and penetrate the site from the east and west. An allée of mature live oak trees and other vegetation is located alongside streets and walkways. Considerable attention was paid to the Rosewood Courts landscape; the challenging hillside location of the development (an elevation drop of over forty feet) combined with its black history, led the Austin Housing Authority—unlike at Rosewood's sister housing project Santa Rita Courts—to hire a landscape architect.

Rosewood Courts was constructed in two phases. The one-story buildings at Rosewood measure approximately 84 by 24 feet or 124 feet by 24 feet and were constructed first. Construction for these units began at the same time as for Santa Rita Courts, November 17, 1938, making Santa Rita and Rosewood Courts the first public housing units in America to begin construction. Sixty units (196 rooms) in total were initially constructed and included 10 two-room units, 28 three-room units, 18 four-room units, and 4 five-room units. Located on the upper terrace or block at the southern end of the sloping site, most of these structures follow in a Zeilenbau configuration—parallel rows of thin rectangular slabs, their long sides facing north and south—framing long, rectangular garden courts in order to allow the units to receive morning or afternoon light. During construction of the first sixty units of single-story housing, the Austin Housing Authority received an additional funding allocation to construct another seventy units, and these became the two-story structures located at the northern end of the site along Rosewood Avenue. Construction for these units began on February 1, 1940 and was completed on New Years Day, 1941. The seventy units consisted of twenty 3 1/2-room units, thirty-two 4 1/2-room units, ten 5 1/2-room units and eight 6 1/2-room units for a total of 321 rooms.

The Zeilenbau method of organizing common space is an original row housing design feature based on German principles pioneered by the Bauhaus and is also evident at Santa Rita Courts (National Register of Historic Places, 2008), and represents the concept’s earliest American social housing implementation by the United States Housing Authority (USHA for short) created by the 1937 Housing Act. The concept for what in America would become known as the "superblock" was a new one in the United States and the persons most responsible for introducing it to America are Lewis Mumford and his protégé Catherine Bauer. In her classic 1934 book Modern Housing, which was a primary impetus behind the push to pass a federal housing law, Bauer argued that the "planned community unit" (Bauer 1934: 153-167) as it existed in England, Germany, Austria and elsewhere in Europe was the most efficient and economical method for government to produce affordable housing for the masses. Bauer, who helped author the 1937 Housing Act, saw to it that the superblock became the standard planning philosophy for the public housing constructed by the USHA, based upon lessons learned by the four federal agencies that constructed public housing prior to the USHA: the Resettlement Administration, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, the Farm Security Administration, and most notably, the housing division of the Public Works Administration (PWA).

The two story buildings measure about 28 feet by 132 feet or 28 feet by 88 feet and were constructed over the location of Emancipation Park shown in historical maps and design drawings. Where possible the Bauhaus based Zeilenbau configuration was
preserved, but several of these row house structures were built perpendicular or obliquely to the original north/south edifices located uphill. In keeping with the requirements of the International Style, various small play areas were located throughout the project.

Rosewood Courts is a paradigmatic example of the International Style and retains an excellent degree of integrity. The site plan is intact including the setting, building orientation and the relationship between built and open spaces. The housing development’s location, setting, design, workmanship, feeling, and association all remain unaffected. Additionally, the housing development's materials integrity remains very high. The buildings have had few if any structural alterations or unsympathetic additions. The principal alterations to the property consist of replacement of metal casement with metal sash windows in the original window openings, similar replacements of exterior doors, and the addition of low-gabled composite-shingle roofs over the original concrete slab roofs with gutters. "Defensible Space" fencing has also been installed, a violation of the pedestrian—not vehicular—vision of the original planners of the project. A few of the thin concrete canopies, cantilevered from the second-floor beams, designed to provide sun and rain protection above doors and windows have also been slightly modified, although portions of the original supports are intact. Both the roofs and canopies can be restored to their original condition, and the fencing can easily be removed. Original features still intact include metal door and window frames as well as extensive interior and exterior brickwork. The original architectural drawings and vellums for the housing development are available at the Austin History Center, making historic restoration straightforward. Landscaping was largely mature at construction, and thanks to an intelligently conceived 1940 planting plan and diligent tenant attention over the years, has produced a public housing development of considerable repose, whose origins as a park, with extensive deciduous, evergreen and riparian vegetation, are evident.

According to the decennial census, the 1930 population of Austin was 53,120 persons and the 1940 population of the city was 87,930. The construction of first generation public housing in Austin revolutionized residential real estate in the city. The city of Austin's 1934 real property inventory and 1936 public housing feasibility study showed that multifamily housing (much less modern housing) scarcely existed in the city, particularly in slum areas, and that almost all housing was constructed of wood. Construction standards and quality control were nonexistent; dirt floors, outhouses, inferior framing and cladding, and leaky roofs were the norm. Those that could afford it had their houses designed and built by others with sturdier building materials such as limestone, whereas the rest of the Great Depression population of Austin, a plurality, either built shelter collaboratively with family, friends or congregations, or by themselves.

The siting and desired construction of Rosewood Courts required rezoning the property. The city of Austin formally adopted zoning (e.g. "A" and "B" for residential and "C" for commercial land use as well as separate height categorizations) and the beginnings of building codes in the early 1930's as a result of recommendations included in the 1928 master plan, but it did not begin to assign or enforce the city's regulations in areas marked for non-white populations on a significant scale until the 1940's, largely in response to the planning, quality control and design lessons learned from the construction of Austin's first three federally funded public housing projects.

In order to ensure acceptance by federal officials, on February 7th, 1938 the city plan commission (the precursor to today's Austin Planning Commission), chaired by H.F. Kuehne, passed a resolution recommending that the Austin City Council re-zone the land for Rosewood Courts (as well as Santa Rita and Chalmers Courts) to "Residence B District" and “Second Height and Area District,” facilitating land acquisition, demolition, and construction. Upon receipt of the recommendation, the housing authority authored a letter to city officials requesting the zoning changes. The Austin City Council made the necessary changes to the city’s zoning ordinance at its February 10, 1938 meeting (Austin Housing Authority 1938, Oliver C. Winston Papers).

In their resolution, the city's plan commission specifically stated as follows:

WHEREAS, the Negro site is located in a district almost exclusively inhabited by negroes thus fitting into its racial character, and is within a short distance of a colored high school, 2 colored grammar schools and a colored recreation park and playground, and will have frontage on two major thoroughfares of the City, Rosewood Avenue and Chicon Street, and is slightly over 1,000 feet from a street car line as well as directly on a bus line, thus being well situated with reference to transportation; and

WHEREAS, the Commission has carefully considered the location of these projects with respect to their relation to the City Plan of the City of Austin, and their relation to the racial characteristics of the districts in which they are located and the educational and recreational facilities available, and their accessibility with reference to transportation, fire protection, and police protection, and their location with respect to sanitary and health consideration; therefore

BE IT RESOLVED BY THE CITY PLAN COMMISSION OF THE CITY OF AUSTIN that the location of these sites for the three racial housing projects are hereby approved as being desirably and practically located and properly fitting into the City plan of the City of Austin, with the exception that certain changes should be made in the zoning of these sites and the immediate vicinity to bring the sites and their contiguous areas into harmony with the character of these projects which are residential in nature.
The sitting of Rosewood Courts, therefore, was a deliberate institutional act of segregating Austin by race in conformance with the 1928 city master plan, a practice the 1937 Housing Act not only sanctioned but codified into law.

Some housing authorities, such as the Seattle Housing Authority, had a commitment to integration, but even Yesler Terrace, the city's first housing project which opened its doors in 1940, limited the percentage of black residents to 20% (Taylor 1994).

Historical records in the city's planning and development review department do not show that any building permits were granted in conjunction with the Rosewood Courts construction effort. Building permits at the time were rare, especially in East Austin.

Like other first generation American public housing, the buildings at Rosewood Courts were designed and constructed of materials such as concrete and brick that would permit the local housing authority to maintain and operate them efficiently over a period of decades, even centuries, not years. Such European construction standards are a hallmark of the International Style. Rosewood Courts still functions as much needed public housing over seventy-five years after its construction.

**USHA Administration and Building Standards**

President Roosevelt appointed Nathan Straus as USHA administrator. Straus had a distinguished pedigree—his German Jewish immigrant father had been a co-owner of the Macy's department store empire and was a prominent philanthropist, particularly in Palestine—but it was his housing and management experience that led to his appointment. A former state senator from New York, Straus was also a member of the New York City Housing Authority and was president of the Hillside Housing Corporation, one of the largest and earliest limited dividend housing corporations in the United States. Like Bauer, Straus had also traveled extensively in Europe in the early 1930's and had first-hand experience with German, Austrian and English social housing.

Straus was under considerable pressure to produce housing that slum dwellers could afford. Although usually built well, the housing developments produced by the temporary and experimental PWA Housing Division were constructed at high cost and their rents were too expensive (Architectural Forum 1938: 345). Straus also faced statutorily-implemented budgetary and regulatory constraints that the PWA Housing Division did not have to confront; his response was to optimize and standardize the USHA's operations to the maximum extent possible. Bauer strongly argued that the problem of substandard housing and the need for slum clearance were separate functions that required different approaches. Straus agreed and utilized an exemption to the Walsh amendment to emphasize construction over slum clearance. Most importantly for small cities such as Austin, he encouraged rural Congressmen and small cities to apply for USHA funding. Under Straus the agency put the 1937 law into practice by transitioning the federal government from builder to banker and leaving almost all aspects of site analysis, land acquisition, tenant distribution, and project design to local public housing authorities (Robinson, vol. 2, et.al. 1999: 40).

Straus’s USHA quickly issued standard guidelines and technical advice for PHA's (United States Housing Authority 1939). Since the low-rent housing program was based on 60-year maturity bonds, the housing had to be built of durable materials and had to meet defined longevity requirements. The fire-resistant structures had to meet certain minimum standards with respect to the amount of area for bedrooms, living rooms, dining rooms, and kitchens, and they had to meet essential requirements for sanitary and clean living, in keeping with their slum clearance function. The buildings were designed to advertise the project to the public as a progressive example of slum clearance housing for low-income families. Modern architectural design, allied with unusually high standards of material selection and detailing, reinforced this progressive connotation. Unlike housing of the early twenty-first century, in which planners now argue for individual space that clearly demarcates ownership and maintenance responsibilities, New Deal planners embraced modernism and celebrated community and openness through the creation of undifferentiated open space (Goetz 2013: 6). Given its earlier incarnation as a historic park that was used for Juneteenth celebrations, Rosewood Courts embodies these communitarian principles to an unusual degree.

Straus’s USHA also saw an important role for itself in fostering public support for its programs and the new housing projects (Robinson, vol. 2, et.al. 1999: 42). The May 1938 edition of *The Architectural Forum* (Vol. 68, No. 5) furnished a historical background for the USHA and also introduced the new agency's key personnel. Among the original USHA staffers was the Harvard trained economist Robert C. Weaver, a key ally of Bauer’s, who would become the first African-American to hold a cabinet level position in the United States when he became the first Secretary of Housing and Urban Development in 1966.

---

1 The 1937 Housing Act specifically restricted the build-quality of USHA housing. It stated that "projects will not be of elaborate or expensive design or materials, and economy will be promoted both in construction and administration."

2 "USHA public housing served as a reward for good citizenship and focused admission on two-parent households with secure employment, usually arraying them into developments that were wholly segregated. Despite the segregation, these communities carried no stigma. Instead, multilayered selection processes often accepted as few as one in ten applicants, so entry to public housing served as an affirmation of worthiness, not as an admission of desperation" (Vale 2013: 12).
Straus plays an important role in the history of Rosewood Courts. In the spring of 1939 Straus and members of his staff took a Southwest tour of USHA housing projects then under construction. Congressman Lyndon Johnson, Austin mayor Tom Miller and others took the opportunity to invite the USHA Chief to Austin and to arrange for Straus to speak to Austin business leaders (who fought the public housing idea tooth and nail) about the importance of the new public housing legislation. They also made arrangements for Straus to address a joint session of the Texas legislature where he could explain the Roosevelt Administration's rationale and approach for the new program and answer questions. Most importantly for Rosewood, Austin's housing authority also made arrangements for Straus to participate in a formal dedication ceremony for Rosewood Courts. After a twenty-minute ceremony and some brief comments, Nathan Straus personally affixed the bronze plaque to "Building One" at Rosewood Courts on March 1, 1939 (see Photo 3). Among the dignitaries in attendance was Dr. Everett Givens, the leader of Austin's black community, who handed Straus the plaque.

Catherine Bauer would eventually visit New Orleans and Austin later that year as well, on her way to the University of California at Berkeley, where she had been offered an appointment as visiting lecturer in housing (Oberlander and Newbrun 1999: 183). Bauer's connection to Austin bore useful fruit: in 1940 she published the important ninety-page pamphlet A Citizen's Guide to Public Housing which on page 31 features a photograph of Rosewood Courts juxtaposed with Queensbridge, the New York City Housing Authority's 6-story elevator apartment complex built to house 3,000 families. The photograph was intended to show how the Planned Community Unit or Superblock could produce neighborhoods both large and small. The 1939 photograph of Rosewood Courts in Bauer's book is part of the USHA archives and is included in this nomination as Photograph number 7.

Public Housing in Austin

Upon passage of the Wagner-Steagall Bill, the U.S. Housing Act of 1937, the 45th Texas legislature (House Bill No. 102) authorized the creation of local public housing authorities (PHA), and also exempted PHA's from paying property taxes. Upon passage of the state law, the Austin City Council established the Austin Housing Authority on December 27, 1937. In keeping with the federal law, the housing authority was chartered as a public corporation under the laws of Texas to “promote the housing of families of low incomes.” The Mayor and the City Council appointed five commissioners to serve on the authority: E.H. Perry, A.J. Wirtz, W.R. Nabours, Hubert B. Jones, and Miss Louise Haynie. E.H. Perry was named chairman, A.J. Wirtz vice-chairman. W.R. Nabours resigned June 10, 1939, and was succeeded by James H. Pittsford on June 22, 1939. Guiton Morgan, the city manager of Austin, was named secretary, later executive director of the housing authority.

The Austin Authority made an initial application to the USHA in the amount of $500,000 to build 186 units of public housing. The three housing projects consisted of Santa Rita Courts (40 units) designed for Mexican families, Rosewood Courts (60 units) to house African-American families, and Chalmers Courts (86 units) built to lodge white families. In June 1939 the Austin Housing Authority asked USHA for a larger loan contract, which increased the amount to $1,158,000 and allowed the authority to complete an additional 156 units, 70 of them at Rosewood Courts. The segregation of public housing under state law mirrored the language of the federal law, which indirectly furnished southern states such as Texas the segregation assurances they demanded. Another accommodation was the insertion of express rules forbidding government competition with private enterprise, legislative language which was sought by boards of realtors (local, state, and national) and chambers of commerce. The prohibitions were inserted into both the federal and state law. Upon approval of the loan, the Austin Authority selected three sites in the eastern portion of Austin for the housing developments, in keeping with City of Austin’s 1928 master plan which segregated the city by race. Of the three housing developments, Chalmers Courts is located closest to downtown Austin.

HACA has grown to 19 housing developments spread throughout Austin. According to the agency's 2011 five-year plan, it administers about 1,900 units of conventional public housing for more than 5,000 residents.

Site Selection and Design of Rosewood Courts

According to a survey conducted by Orin E. Metcalfe dated June 10, 1938, the property that would become Rosewood Courts consisted of four tracts: a.) Lot 5 of the M.L. Jones Estate (159,820 square feet) owned by T.J. Caldwell, et.al. and located to the southwest, b.) the Lucksginer Tract (63,953 square feet) located just above it on the corner of Rosewood Avenue and Chicon Street, c.) T.J. Caldwell, et.al. property (15,204 square feet) located in the northeast corner of the site along Rosewood Avenue and what would become Poquito Street, and d.) Emancipation Park, located east of the Lucksginer Tract and south of the northern T.J. Caldwell property (31,353 square feet). The eastern portion of the Rosewood Courts site was part of the W.D. Hart Subdivision. William Denormandy Hart (1872-1951) was a well known Austin attorney, formerly the city attorney, who appeared regularly before the Austin city council regarding various real estate matters in the 1920's and 1930's.

According to the first annual report of the Austin Housing Authority (Housing Authority of the City of Austin 1939: 11) the land for Rosewood Courts was purchased for a price of $13,042.64 or 3.8 cents per square foot. The Austin Housing Authority did not formally acquire the land until April/May of 1938, although a March 18, 1938 newspaper article titled "Agency Cheers Roosevelt's Pledge" states that the agency already had secured "options" on the property needed to construct the first three Austin housing projects (Austin Statesman, Friday March 18, 1938). Seven acres were initially purchased, the land for Emancipation Park was condemned...
and appropriated via eminent domain. The pre-construction topographic map of the site indicates that there were five houses that were demolished. The first three houses were demolished in conjunction with the first phase of construction, with the remaining two structures, which were located along Poquito Creek, demolished prior to the commencement of Phase II.

As modern housing did not exist in Austin, after the initial award local officials put together a an architectural committee that would work with USHA officials in Washington. Strauss dispatched his regional administrator Oliver “O.C.” Winston to explain the basics of this type of new housing to Austin’s architectural community, which in 1938 consisted almost exclusively of classically trained Beaux-Arts designers. It was a shrewd decision; Winston was a Central Texas native who was born in Smithville, Texas in 1906. A holder of bachelor’s and master’s degrees in architecture from the Rice Institute (now Rice University) in Houston, Winston moved to Washington in 1934 to work for the PWA Housing Division in the Department of the Interior and moved over to the newly formed USHA after passage of the 1937 Housing Act. Throughout the spring and early summer of 1938 he worked closely with the local committee, headed by H.F. Kuehne, to ensure that the local design would achieve approval from federal officials (Austin Statesman, Friday March 18, 1938; Oliver C. Winston Papers, Cornell University). Like Bauer, Winston would go on to become an influential administrator and educator in the fields of housing, regional planning, and environmental design. He headed Baltimore’s public housing authority between 1947 and 1959 and eventually became director of Cornell University’s Office of Regional Planning and Development in 1965 where his archive is stored. In 1945 he authored the book *The Local Housing Authority and the Architect*, much of which was based upon his experiences in Austin. He retired in 1971 and moved to New Hampshire, where he died on April 25, 1992 at age 86.

Rosewood Courts was designed by the firm of Page & Southerland under the supervision of H.F. Kuehne. After the visit by Nathan Strauss to Austin for the dedication of Rosewood Courts, Charles Coatsworth Pinkney was hired as the landscape architect for Phase II of the construction for Rosewood. Strauss was a powerful advocate for the importance of site planning and landscaping in the construction of public housing developments and pushed housing authorities, including Austin’s, to include as much open space and opportunities for recreation as possible (Oberlander and Newbrun 1999: 163-64). A recent graduate of Harvard's program in landscape architecture, the landscape plan for Rosewood Courts was one of Pinckney's first commissions.

Plans for Rosewood Courts were put out to bidders September 25, 1938, and bids were received on the 18th of October 1938. Construction began on November 17, 1938, making Santa Rita and Rosewood Courts the first USHA projects in the United States to begin construction.

The general construction contract for Rosewood Courts totaled $110,238. Martyn Bros., Inc. of Dallas, Texas was awarded the plumbing contract for $30,782, and W.K. Jennings, Jr. of Austin received the electrical wiring contract for a figure of $7,842. Rosewood was accepted as substantially complete on September 1, 1939, making it the nation's oldest USHA housing project built specifically for black families. Phase I of Rosewood's construction produced 60 dwelling units containing 196 rooms at a total cost of $149,060.28. The final cost of approximately $2,485 per dwelling unit or $761 per room was one of the lowest in the nation. Opened for occupancy on September 1, 1939, Rosewood Courts was completely filled by October 1, 1939. Average rent at Rosewood was $6.97 per month ($11.28 with utilities), which was among the lowest in the nation.

Architects and Builders

Born in Austin, Hugo Franz Kuehne (1884-1963) was a founder of the school of architecture at the University of Texas at Austin, and established the college's architecture library. He entered practice in 1915, after receiving his architecture degree at MIT, serving as a draftsman in Boston, and teaching at UT Austin between 1910 and 1915. His firms were Kuehne, Chasey and Giesecke (1915–17), Kuehne and Chasey (1917–19), H. F. Kuehne (1919–42), Giesecke, Kuehne and Brooks (1942), and Kuehne, Brooks and Barr (1942–1960). During the Great Depression Kuehne held supervisory positions with the United States Department of the Interior. Primarily a Beaux-Arts style architect, Kuehne is best known for designing the Austin Public Library (1933), now the Austin History Center, the Bohn Brothers building at 517 Congress Avenue (1929), alterations for Brackenridge Hospital (1933), the Stock Building at 419 Congress (1932), the Commodore Perry Hotel (1950), the International Life Building (1952), the American National Bank, the Texas Department of Public Safety building (1952), and buildings for the Austin State Hospital. Kuehne served as president of the Austin Chapter of the American Institute of Architects (AIA) twice. In 1944 he became a member of the AIA College of Fellows. In 1961, after 53 years of practice, Kuehne retired. He died in Austin on November 23, 1963.

---

3 The conspicuous attention paid to open space and both existing and new vegetation at Rosewood Courts marked a significant departure from what the International Style "ideal" would eventually become over the course of the twentieth century. Ultimately the International Style would become a stereotype, manifesting itself in more Le Corbusierian tower in the park style "machines for living in" that were constructed during urban renewal after passage of the 1949 Housing Act. In purposefully attempting to retain aspects of nature (i.e. Emancipation Park) the landscape designers at Rosewood Courts, perhaps unknowingly, implemented some of the program of Frank Lloyd Wright's organic architecture, another form of modernism. In 1942 Wright submitted a bid for the design and construction of wartime public housing titled "Cloverleaf Quadruple Housing," to be located in Pittsfield, Massachusetts, and even drew up plans for it, but the plan never came to fruition (Storrer 2006: 256).
The firm of Page & Southerland is one of the oldest architecture practices in Texas and is responsible for many public buildings in the Lone Star State including projects such as the Smith County Courthouse (1910), the Littlefield Building in downtown Austin (1918), the Hunt County Courthouse (1928), the Travis County Courthouse (1929), and the Austin National Bank (1930, razed 1956) at 513 Congress Avenue. The firm, now known as Page (which does business formally as Page, Southerland, Page), has grown to become a global design firm, one of the largest in the United States.

Charles Coatsworth "C.C." Pinkney was one of Austin's first landscape architects and Rosewood Courts was one of his first commissions. Active in practice between 1939 and 1994, he was born in 1906 in Denver to Jessie and Fred Coatsworth Pinkney. In 1927, he graduated from Colorado A&M where he majored in horticulture and entomology. Pinkney received his Master of Science degree in Landscape Architecture from Harvard in 1934. He was awarded the Charles Elliot traveling fellowship that allowed him to study in Europe for a year. Pinkney served his apprenticeship at the premiere landscape architecture firm in the United States, the Olmsted Brothers Company in Boston and also worked with Bradford Williams, who for many years served as the "corresponding secretary" of the American Society of Landscape Architects and presided over ASLA national headquarters in Boston.

The design of Rosewood Courts was heavily influenced by Oliver C. Winston, a native of Smithville in Central Texas. Winston held a B.A. and B.S. in architecture from the Rice Institute (now Rice University) in Houston and worked in the Housing Division of the Public Works Administration from 1934-1938 where he became an expert in Catherine Bauer's "Modern Housing" precepts. Upon creation of the USHA Winston transitioned to the new agency, becoming Regional Director. It was in this capacity that Winston trained Kuehne, Page and Southerland in the basics of the new "International" architectural style and ensured that it would meet with approval from federal officials. The design of Rosewood Courts was a major departure for Kuehne, Page and Southerland, who would continue to mostly design Beaux-Arts style buildings for the majority of their private clients, albeit with a stronger modernist influence, as the years went on.

The prime contractor for the project was the San Antonio based firm of Vincent Falbo & Sons. There were no residential contractors in Austin at the time who could handle the large amounts of concrete mandated by USHA's fireproof construction guidelines, nor did the City of Austin possess sufficient zoning or building code experience that matched the large scale of the first three housing projects built by the Austin Housing Authority. The firm of Falbo & Sons possessed experience in small to medium-scale concrete and limestone construction, having completed the moderne-styled Guadalupe County Courthouse in Seguin in 1936 for the Houston based architectural firm of Wirtz & Calhoun. Falbo & Sons was also in possession of an important political connection: Lewis Milton Wirtz, one of the principals of Wirtz & Calhoun, and Alvin J. Wirtz—an early key supporter of Lyndon B. Johnson and an important member of the first board of the Austin Housing Authority—were siblings.

Architectural Description

1. Building Heights
   a. Fourteen one-story in height residential structures, one with a basement.
   b. Eleven two-story residential structures.
   c. Two one-story storage buildings.

2. Building Massing and Form
   a. Rectangular Prism.

3. Structure, Cladding and Finish
   a. Brick wall finish with no ornamentation.
   b. Brick on concrete structure.

In keeping with the fireproof guidelines mandated by the USHA (United States Housing Authority 1939), the exterior walls at Rosewood Courts are comprised of wythes that are 2 bricks thick. Bearing walls were 8 inches thick overall, with 2 inch hollow voids specified in architectural drawings, although concrete or mortar fill is specified in some locations. Most interior walls are made up of one wythe, although interior room partitions, for example walls separating kitchens from living rooms or bedrooms from one another, are 2 bricks thick. One Phase One building (Building I) has a basement. Given the slope of the Rosewood Courts site and the orientation of the buildings, the basement was able to receive natural light and ventilation through narrow windows, and allowed utility rooms, laundry facilities, and all mechanical equipment to be separate from the living and sleeping areas, although it was primarily designed to be utilized as a workshop. It continues to be used for that purpose today, but is mainly utilized for storage and to house water softening equipment for the Rosewood Courts complex. Figures 12 and 13 show the specifics of the basement wall sections, windows, stair access and workshop details.
4. Roof Form and Covering

a. Pyramidal, shallow pitch (alteration)
b. Moderate overhang
c. Cementitious trim and soffits
d. Asphalt shingles

The original roofs at Rosewood Courts were concrete slabs with a layer of one inch gravel placed atop one inch membrane insulation (see Figure 12). Metal gutters and downspouts were part of the original design (See Figure 14 and Photo 8). Combined with the solid brick on concrete construction of Rosewood Courts, designers saw no need for water tables or drip edges, and other than the metal flashing specified for the roof slabs none are shown in plans. The concrete roof slabs are still intact; it is presumed that the gutters were permanently removed when the housing authority installed 3:12 wood truss gable shingled roofs atop the concrete roof slabs in 1978.

5. Porches and Stoops

Given the financial constraints faced by USHA funded designers, ornamentation at USHA housing developments was not as elaborate as at projects funded by the experimental PWA Housing Division. Despite these limitations, interesting and culturally sensitive ironwork was installed at Laffite and Iberville Projects in New Orleans, such as iron columns and decorative cast iron railings. Because Congressman Lyndon Johnson wanted to be able to "brag" that Austin's public housing was built for the lowest construction cost in the country, designers at Rosewood Courts had to get creative. As Figure 15 shows, one solution they came up with was the creation of "diamond" partitions that could also serve as trellises made up of 2 ½" O.D. (outside diameter) piping connected to 8 6 ⅛" vertical posts set in sulphur and bolted to the concrete ceiling. These partitions were located at exterior doorways and supported the cast-concrete slab awnings that sheltered the doorways. It is unknown when these partitions were removed, but Photo 8 shows them still in place in the mid 1950's. This design detail was used throughout the complex; it was used as a patio partition with the one-story buildings and was installed at the right ends of the two-story buildings (see Figure 16). This design motif was also used for stair and patio rails throughout the complex, as well as sidewalk steps and wheelchair ramps as Figure 17 and Photo 19 show.

6. Exterior Doors

a. Single leaf

As the typical interior door frame detail shown in Figure 18 shows, a considerable amount of concrete and steel reinforcement was used for both sills and head jambs. The door schedule reproduced in Figure 19 shows that all doors were either 1 ⅜" thick (interior doors and screen doors) or 1 ¾" thick (exterior doors) and ranged in width from two feet to three feet. All doors were either 6'-8" or seven feet in height. Front and rear entrance doors were four or six-light window doors with double-strength glass. Screen doors were set with standard screen wire. Door specifications for the two-story buildings are shown in Figure 20. All original wooden doors and screen doors were replaced with aluminum doors of unknown manufacture, presumably at the same time as the windows.

7. Windows

Windows

a. Steel frame casement
b. Four three-light casements per elevation
c. Aluminum single-hung (replacement)

As Figure 21 shows, all windows at Rosewood Courts were Fenestra steel casement windows manufactured by the Detroit Steel Products Company. The Fenestra steel window was commonly used in the early twentieth century for garages, factories, schools, and office buildings. Detroit Steel's residential window collections were known as Fencraft and Fenwrought; at Rosewood Courts the latter were installed (see Figure 22). Fenestra casement windows were an USHA favorite because in addition to providing "modern advantages," such as "finger-touch operation, outside cleaning of glass from the inside, more daylight and fresh air, and extraordinary weathertightness," they also furnished fire safety. All windows at Rosewood Courts have since been replaced with aluminum single hung windows of unknown manufacture.

8. Window Surrounds and Sills

a. No surrounds
b. Sills of exposed brick

9. Interiors
The floor plans shown in figures 2 and 5 show the interior layout of the apartments at Rosewood Courts to be similar to the building layout employed at Santa Rita Courts—a basic living room-kitchen-bathroom-bedroom arrangement. L-shaped single bedroom apartments with living rooms or bedrooms alternately adjoin the kitchen and bath, with built-in closets and wood shelving. The typical bathroom and linen closet (Figure 23) consists of a tub, lavatory and water closet, with the built-in closet space consisting of a three foot curtain rod and two wood shelves. The bedroom closets (Figure 24) contain two shelves placed above a clothes pole. There is no closet door; a curtain pole is mounted instead. The kitchens (Figure 25) were designed for a gas range, sink and pantry/closet, as well as shelves mounted into the brick or tile walls via toggle bolts and wrought iron brackets (see Figure 26 for detail). Plans show gas-fired water heater tanks located inside the kitchens, but the hot water tanks were instead installed in exterior closets located at the rear of each structure and depicted in Photo 20. The present state of the interiors varies between minimal alteration and substantial renovation. Most units have had replacement kitchen counters and cabinetry mounted, but within the existing framing bays laid out in plans. The interior of Building T has been substantially altered in order to facilitate office space for Goodwill Industries.

10. Siting and Landscaping

a. Set within residential neighborhoods
b. Presence of mature trees and plantings
c. Concrete walkways
d. Metal fencing (alteration)

As Map 3 shows, the orientation of the buildings at Rosewood Courts was not only driven by modern housing ideals of maximizing light and ventilation, they were also meant to create a series of semi-enclosed courts, a noted Zeilenbau feature. Phase I of the landscape design (Figure 27) originally placed the USHA mandated "recreation area" to the east of buildings J and L, just south of the Emancipation Park site; when Phase II construction was approved buildings V and W were placed there instead. The enclosed courts would facilitate installation and use of semi-private gardens and sitting areas; they continue to be used for this purpose, e.g. barbecuing, today. A total of eight courts were created, with planned recreation areas identified as "play lawns" in C.C. Pinkney's landscape drawings (see Figure 3). Pinkney's play lawn concept creatively utilized the clothesline poles (see Figure 28) that were an

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rosewood Courts Typical One-Story vs. Two-Story Building Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Feature</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form &amp; Massing:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Width:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedrooms:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living Rooms:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kitchens:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bathrooms:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Windows:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exterior Doors:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Original Roof:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

4 See USHA Bulletin Number 11 Design of Low-Rent Housing Projects: Planning the Site, particularly page 79 and Summary of General Requirements and Minimum Standards for USHA-Aided Projects, particularly pages 22-24 for further discussion. The designs that Kuehne, Page and Southerland produced with O. C. Winston's assistance adhere closely to these minimum recommendations and requirements.
integral design feature at Rosewood Courts to demarcate the recreation area alongside existing vegetation. His plan includes provisions for retaining several existing elm trees and for the planting of over twenty new elm and oak trees along Poquito and Rosewood Streets as well as elsewhere. The plan also envisioned the landscaping of each building with extensive ornamental shrubbery, such as Lantanas, Jasmines, Abel Grands, Bignonias and Hollies. Several of the Quercus trees shown in the landscape design have grown to maturity and are considered "heritage trees" under current Austin planning regulations.

Details for the concrete retaining walls at Rosewood Courts are depicted in Figure 29. The structural engineer for these walls was Munsey Wilson, who also designed the concrete slab foundations for the Rosewood buildings.

In the 1990's "Defensible Space" fencing was installed at Rosewood Courts, along Rosewood Ave. This fencing bears no relationship to the historical elements at the property and is not considered contributing.

11. Deterioration

The primary causes of deterioration at Rosewood Courts are neglect, improper maintenance, and normal wear and tear. For instance removal of the original gutter system at the property has caused drainage problems that have led to minor concrete cracks at building entry landings and along some of the slabs. The number of broken bricks, however, is minor. There is no record of vandalism. The property's ability to convey its historic significance, as discussed, remains excellent.

Emancipation Park

The landscape that would become Rosewood Courts was first occupied by Emancipation Park, Austin's most historically significant Juneteenth parade ground. The Juneteenth holiday has spread beyond Texas and is now officially celebrated in over 25 states and around the world. The holiday commemorates the day when enslaved people in Texas were officially emancipated by the federal government, June 19, 1865. Austin's Emancipation Park is one of the nation's original Juneteenth celebration locations and is one of the first parks in America purchased by African-Americans specifically for the purpose.

The persons most responsible for the establishment of Emancipation Park are Thomas J. White (1864-1931) and his wife Mattie B. Haywood White (1867-1951). Thomas J. White was born in La Grange, Texas on March 5, 1864. His parents were from Virginia and had migrated to Texas prior to his birth. After serving as messenger for the Governor of Texas for twenty-five years, he entered into business and established a cafeteria at Anderson High School. As other schools opened cafeterias, White expanded his business operations, eventually opening a grocery store. Civically active, White conceived the idea of a black-owned Emancipation Park in the early twentieth century. He started the Travis County Emancipation Organization on June 8th, 1904 and served as its first president (Brewer 1940: 24).

Born in Nashville, Tennessee, Mrs. White moved to Austin in the late 1880's and established the city's first private school for black girls in 1892. In 1900 she was employed to teach art at the Deaf, Dumb and Blind Institute for Colored Youth (later the Texas Blind, Deaf, and Orphan School or "BD&O") established by the eighteenth Texas legislature. Mrs. White taught at the school for over forty years.

During her tenure at the BD&O, Mrs. White was a colleague of the noted black ethnomusicologist Maud Cuney Hare, who taught music at the school after finishing college in Boston, where she was briefly engaged to W.E.B. Du Bois. Maud Cuney's father Norris Wright Cuney of Galveston was the most important black Texas politician in the late nineteenth century, and had been instrumental in the school's creation. He often visited Maud and her brother Lloyd in Austin, who attended Tillotson College (Hales 2003: 102). In the late nineteenth and early twentieth century Austin's African-American population was geographically dispersed throughout the city, including in Freedmen's Communities such as Wheatville, Robertson Hill and Clarksville, as well as more rural black settlements located in the city's outskirts such as Burdett's Prairie, Barton Springs or Kincheonville (Mears 2009: 82). Juneteenth celebrations were held in these as well as other locations. However as Jim Crow began to tighten its grip and the forces of real estate development began to encroach on historical centers of black settlement, in the early twentieth century Austin's African-American community began to look for a formal location that could serve as an official Juneteenth celebration place as well as for other civic functions.

Mr. and Mrs. White lobbyed tenaciously for the idea of purchasing land for a park. The land purchase was begun in 1905 and was concluded in 1907. The "Negro Park Association" was the purchaser. At the time of the purchase the land was not in the Austin city limits. It was located along Poquito Creek and near the western division of the Houston and Texas Central Railroad. Emancipation Park became the principal and the first permanent site for major black celebrations. Big events, including a large barbecue, the start of the Juneteenth parade through downtown, devotional and memorial services, and baseball games took place. "A beer, a hog and two muttons were purchased yesterday with money collected," read a June 18, 1914 Austin Daily American article. "There will be all sorts of amusements, music by a string band and a female chorus of 100 voices, and a speaking program." No Austin employer expected his or her African-American workers to show up for work on Juneteenth.
In 1930 the Negro Division of the City Recreation Department established Rosewood Park, which consisted of about 13 acres and a small swimming pool. The park was located east of the Emancipation Park site, along Boggy Creek. Rosewood Park hosted the first city-sponsored Juneteenth celebration the same year, continuing the traditional Juneteenth barbecue and baseball game. The move to establish a "negro neighborhood park" had been one of the recommendations of the 1926 Austin City Plan Commission (ACPC) and was included in the city's 1928 master plan, which sought to remove Austin's black population from neighborhoods such as Clarksville and ghettoize them in East Austin (see Rivera and Rivera 2012: 14, which shows the "Negro District" map from the 1928 plan). The location of Rosewood Park was not an accident. Up until 1927, the principal municipal park area used by African-Americans in Austin was a stretch of land in the middle of East Avenue (now IH-35) located between Eleventh and Twelfth streets. Known as "Middle East Avenue Park," or the "Negro Park," this area was only a few blocks away from the State Capitol and was visible to many users of East Avenue. Rosewood Park was purposely situated closer to the edge of the city limits so that it was conveniently out of sight of motorists traveling along East Avenue. By 1937, while the number of public parks and playgrounds in Austin had increased to seventeen and covered a combined area of over 599 acres, African-Americans were confined to the use of a single 13.4 acre playground, a mere 2.2 percent of the total (McDonald 2012: 68, 108-112). The park was Rosewood Park. According to the 1930 census, Austin's black population was 18.6 percent of the city's total population. Shortly after the creation of the USHA and the awarding of one of the initial slum clearance grants to Austin, the City of Austin seized Emancipation Park using eminent domain provisions, evicted the people living on the site, and demolished their homes. Austin's black community resisted (Dennis 2008: A-1). "A group of people went to City Hall because they were upset, and they spoke to officials, pleaded with them, "Please do not take this land from us, please let us keep our park." Their concerns were rebuffed and the city took custody of the property and began construction of Rosewood Courts in late 1938. The Emancipation Organization later purchased three acres near Bethany Cemetery to use for Juneteenth. According to the 1954 USGS topographic map of Austin, the location of Downs field is on Springdale Road across the street from Bethany Cemetery. That site is the present location of Sims Elementary School.

**Discussion of Registration Requirements**

For National Register eligibility, Rosewood Courts and Emancipation Park must possess sufficient historic integrity by visibly reflecting the overall physical appearance they gained during their respective periods of historic significance. In the case of Emancipation Park, it is largely a discussion about archaeological potential. Generally speaking, historic integrity is composed of seven qualities: location, design, materials, workmanship, feeling and association (see National Register Bulletin 15 for basic definitions). As the 1999 public housing historic context document authored for the Department of Housing and Urban Development takes pains to point out (Robinson, et al. 1999: 30-31), historic significance should not be confused with property condition or "physical" integrity. A property with even substantial changes can still be considered eligible when all seven factors are properly evaluated and a preponderance of the evidence is considered. For instance Cedar Springs Place in Dallas, a housing development built by the PWA Housing Division about a year before construction began at Rosewood Courts, exhibited an even greater degree of physical deterioration than Rosewood Courts at the time of its National Register listing in 1991 (Robinson, et al. 1999: 30-31):

"The evaluation of the Cedar Springs Place housing project within the historic context of the public housing development and the New Deal programs of the Depression helped reveal the essential physical features important to convey the significance of the property. As a result, the alterations were seen for what they were—evidence of age, lack of adequate maintenance, and natural deterioration. The physical changes evident at the site, while of concern, were not deemed sufficient to remove the project's ability to convey its significance as an exemplary illustration of the new social ideals and planning standards of the New Deal housing programs, nor did they destroy the property's importance as Texas' first low-income housing project and one of the earliest projects completed west of the Mississippi River."

Due to the age of the dwellings at Rosewood Courts and their continued use, some degree of deterioration is to be expected. In-kind replacements, specifically casement windows and flush doors should not compromise integrity of design and feeling. As has already been noted, the housing development's location, setting, design, workmanship, feeling, and association all remain unaffected. For an historic district, replacement of windows and doors should not be viewed as the sole determining factor when assessing integrity of materials and workmanship. Rather, the use of incompatible windows and doors should be measured with other alterations and additions when reviewing integrity of design and feeling, particularly when form, massing, landscaping and fenestration are holistically considered.
The Introduction of "Modern Housing" in the United States

Several events converged in the early 1930's to produce the conditions that would lead to the development of the "International Style" in American architecture and the passage of the 1937 U.S. Housing Act. One of the first was the staging of the landmark architectural show called "Modern Architecture: International Exhibition" (also billed as "The International Style: Architecture Since 1922") by New York's Museum of Modern Art in February of 1932. Philip Johnson curated the exhibit; Catherine Bauer assisted in the preparation of and oversaw the housing section. The show was profoundly influential.

Whereas Johnson's exhibit focus and the book accompanying the show (authored by Johnson and Henry Russell Hitchcock) focused on the design aspects of what they coined the "International Style," such as the new style's emphasis on volume over mass, Bauer's contribution made sure to emphasize the social and political aspects that many European practitioners shared. Visitors to Bauer's section of the exhibit not only learned about the horrific housing conditions faced by American workers but also about the methods used by European governments to tackle slum conditions after World War I. Visitors learned about the boom in European housing construction with over 5 million units of housing constructed in Europe between 1919 and 1930, over 1.8 million dwellings constructed in England alone. Moreover, this European working class housing was built to a very high architectural standard and involved innovations in large-scale community planning as well as design. The exhibition introduced American audiences to the work of the Bauhaus and its leaders for the first time, including Walter Gropius, Ludwig Mies van der Rohe, Peter Behrens, Adolf Meyer, as well as non-Bauhaus affiliated modernists such as the Swiss architect Charles-Edward Jeanneret, better known as "Le Corbusier," J.J.P. Oud, Erich Mendelsohn and Bruno Taut. Bauer also ensured that visitors were introduced to German community and regional planning ideas such as the Siedlungen outside of Frankfurt and Stuttgart planned by Ernst May and Gropius using what Bauer called the "planned community unit" which would become known as the "Superblock" in the United States.

Gropius, Mies, and others would migrate to the United States in the wake of World War II and were hired by the country's most prestigious architecture schools, where they would play a significant role in the development of modernist architecture and planning in the United States.

In 1941 Gropius and Marcel Breuer designed a modern housing project for defense workers named Aluminum City Terrace in New Kensington, Pennsylvania that bears a marked resemblance to Rosewood Courts (HAER No. PA-302: 5) and was also constructed on an irregular site on the outskirts of town. Some of the other similarities between the two projects include construction on a hilly terrain with ample pre-existing natural vegetation, built-ins such as closets and bookshelves, a terraced landscape designed to reinforce the advantages of natural sunlight and ventilation, a crucial focus on the orientation of the buildings so as to maximize southern light, cantilevered porches and overhangs, well appointed kitchens, communal space, accommodations for recreation and gardening, and a rigid adherence to federal cost limitations. Aluminum City Terrace was constructed at a price of $3200 per unit, a price that compares favorably with the construction cost of Rosewood Courts. Both projects are important exemplars of the International Style, although there is a crucial difference between the two; in 1948 tenants at Aluminum City Terrace decided to purchase the housing project from the federal government to form a co-op, managed by a Board of Directors, elected by representatives from the 250 units, an arrangement Aluminum City Terrace enjoys to the present.

A secondary development leading to the adoption of the 1937 Housing Act was the publication of Bauer's 1934 book *Modern Housing*. The book's impact was felt almost immediately and catapulted the young "Houser" (someone committed to raising the quality of urban life through improving availability of and access to shelter for low-income families) to national and international notoriety. Given the depression-era collapse of the American real estate sector, the book's release was well-timed. Its prose, which was accessible to scholar, student, professional, or layperson was also highly praised.

*Modern Housing* was the first cross-disciplinary, comparative and comprehensive analysis of this type of housing written by an American. Utilizing statistics, architectural analysis, sociology, first-hand observation, and the basics of the then nascent discipline of planning (to which Bauer would make enduring contributions), the book furnishes an analysis of the history and evolution of housing theory, thick description and discussion of some of the European achievements in housing and community planning in the years after World War I, and a provocative discussion of the applications of the lessons the United States could and should learn from the European experience. Lavishly illustrated, the book contained dozens of photographs of the developments described in the text, and contained a detailed appendix that referenced a broad range of multilingual source material.
In her introductory note (Bauer 1934: xv), Bauer defined modern housing as possessing certain qualities and embodying certain methods and purposes "which distinguish it sharply from the typical residential environment of the past century." In terms of design she stated that "the design depends primarily on the function which the building is to serve without consideration of traditional principles of symmetry" and added that it "takes advantage of new principles of construction and new materials such as concrete, steel and glass" (Oberlander and Newbrun 1999: 72). She would go on to write:

"For one thing, it is built for efficient use over a period of years: therefore it is not designed primarily for quick profits. It is "planned:" and so it must be non-speculative. This new housing method recognizes that the integral unit for planning, the economical unit for construction and administration, and the social unit for living, is the complete neighborhood, designed and equipped as such."

She went on to note that "...modern housing provides certain minimum amenities for every dwelling: cross-ventilation, for one thing; sunlight, quiet, and a pleasant outlook from every window; adequate privacy, space, and sanitary facilities; children's play space adjacent. And finally it will be available at a price which citizens of average income or less can afford."

According to these definitions, hardly any modern housing existed in the United States at the time the book was written. European architects and planners were the pioneers who set the standards. Given the failure of the private real estate sector in America to construct such housing, Bauer argued strongly that it was the responsibility of government to provide it, a view from which she never wavered.

An Overview of the 1937 Housing Act

The United States Housing Act of 1937 (50 Stat. 888) marked the first permanent federal commitment to slum clearance and the production of low-cost public housing for poor people. Its passage was the by-product of years of public housing advocacy on the part of "modern housing" activists such as Catherine Bauer and like-minded individuals ranging from Edith Elmer Wood to Lewis Mumford. The deciding factor in the bill’s passage, however, was the Great Depression and the undeniable and acute shortage of affordable housing that accompanied it. The law made it the official policy of the United States government “to promote the general welfare of the Nation by employing its funds and credit…to remedy the nonsafe and unsanitary housing conditions and the acute shortage of decent, safe, and sanitary dwellings for families of low-income, in urban and rural non-farm areas” (cited in Robinson, vol. 2, et.al. 1999: 38). The law created the United States Housing Authority (USHA) within the Department of the Interior.

The bill creating the law was introduced in Congress three times before it passed. Senator Robert F. Wagner of New York sponsored the first and subsequent versions. The first Wagner Bill (S. 2392) was introduced in the Spring of 1935 and was written by Mary Simkhovitch, Helen Alred, Louis Pink, and Ira Robbins, who had been working together in a small group called the National Public Housing Conference (Radford 1996: 184). The bill provided the basic blueprint for subsequent changes and would have terminated the then-existing PWA (Public Works Administration) Housing Division, replacing it with a housing division in the Department of Interior. It was killed in committee.

Version 2 of the bill, commonly known as the “Ellenbogen Bill” after Rep. Henry Ellenbogen of Pennsylvania, introduced the concept of a United States Housing Authority, whose purpose would be “to construct, and aid in the construction, of modern large-scale housing, available to those families who in good as well as bad times cannot afford to pay the price which will induce the ordinary and usual channels of private enterprise to build such housing” (Radford 1996: 185). The bill provided definitions of “slums” and “low income,” and also introduced the idea of funding the housing via the issuance of bonds instead of direct allocation from Congress (McDonnell 1957: 112). The bill was killed by Congressman Henry B. Steagall of Alabama, the Chairman of the House Committee on Banking and Currency in 1936 (McDonnell 1957: 210-234).

Congressman Steagall eventually removed his opposition to the "socialistic" bill when President Roosevelt, after extensive lobbying by Bauer and others, expressed public support. The bill was signed and enacted into law on September 1, 1937. The compromise legislation sought to incorporate many of the lessons learned by the Housing Division of the Public Works Administration (PWA), most notably a curtailment of the federal eminent domain power to build PWA housing projects. The USHA could not directly build or manage public housing as the predecessor program run by the PWA had done.

The U.S. Housing Act of 1937 fully decentralized the construction, ownership, and management of public housing. Local public housing authorities (PHA’s) established under state enabling legislation were given the job of managing the housing. USHA's primary role consisted of making 60-year loans to local housing authorities for up to 90 percent of the development cost of slum clearance or low-rent housing projects, and providing program direction and consulting advice.

The 1937 law also contained other compromises. In a concession to real estate groups who opposed the bill, houses were to be built at costs which could not exceed a certain ceiling, so as not to compete with private sector real estate. A construction cost limitation was inserted that limited construction costs for USHA developments to $4,000 per family unit and $1,000 per room, except in any city...
where the population exceeded 500,000 where the limits were raised to $5,000 and $1,250 respectively (McDonnell 1957: 394-395).5 A section on nonprofits and worker cooperatives inserted by Bauer was also eliminated. And an “equivalent elimination” clause was inserted by Senator David I. Walsh of Massachusetts which protected commercial landlords from publicly supported increases in the supply of available apartment units which could have driven down rents (Radford 1996: 190).

Catherine Bauer's role in the act's passage was crucial. She lobbied fiercely for all three versions of the bill, traveling extensively throughout the country to explain its provisions. As the author of Modern Housing, she was also a significant driving intellectual force behind the bill, the Senate version of which was co-authored by her friend Leon Keyserling, who would eventually join her as one of the newly created USHA's first staffers. Most importantly, Bauer sought and received the endorsement for the bill's passage of organized labor. Bauer led the Labor Housing Conference, an important coalition of local and national unions who were in particular attracted to the prospective law's economic stimulus provisions for the construction industry, not just its slum clearance provisions. Labor unions did not support the National Housing Act of 1934, which created the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) and which was supported by real estate groups and various chambers of commerce, but they did end up supporting the 1937 Housing Act, assertively lobbying for it, mainly because Bauer educated the union leadership as well as the rank-and-file about the politically progressive origins of European social housing.

Association with Significant Persons

The Rosewood Courts Historic District is associated with three significant persons: Lyndon B. Johnson, Nathan Straus and Oliver C. Winston. According to the 1999 public housing historic context document sponsored by HUD, the “individuals in question must have made contributions to history that can be specifically documented and that are directly associated with both the historic context and the historic public housing property under consideration” (Robinson, et. al., 1999: 22). The link between the individual in question and the historic property must be direct; for instance Nathan Straus would be ineligible for listing under Criterion B based solely upon his status as head of the United States Housing Authority (USHA).

In applying Criterion B, National Register Bulletin 15 specifies several criteria: a. significance of the individual, b. association with the property, and c. comparison to related properties. In order for the three individuals named in this nomination to be considered eligible under Criterion B, it must be shown that their association with the Rosewood Courts property is direct, not tangential and best represents their professional contributions in the planning and housing realm; what follows is discussion of the direct relationship between these three individuals and Rosewood Courts.

Lyndon B. Johnson

It was the aggressive lobbying of Congressman Lyndon Johnson that led to the funding of the Rosewood Courts property by the federal government. Johnson shrewdly seized upon the stated desire on the part of USHA chief Nathan Straus to site federally financed public housing throughout the United States and in smaller towns, not just in big cities. Johnson's eager advocacy for federal funding of all kinds for his impoverished district set the stage for his later advocacy while serving in the U.S. Senate and as Vice President and President.

Johnson did not just vote for the 1937 U.S. Housing Act, he “called together Tom Miller and his other local heavies, and said ‘Now look, I want us to be first in the United States if you’re willing to do this, and you’ve got to be willing to stand up for the Negroes and Mexicans’” (Dugger 1982: 209-210). Austin, Texas was selected as the site of the first USHA housing project because of Johnson’s single-minded, persistent and remarkable talent for political persuasion, a skill which would become a Johnson trademark (Caro 1981: 456). The housing project serves as an enduring physical reminder of President Johnson’s early political career, of the political ideals embodied during the late New Deal period that found later expression during Johnson’s Great Society initiatives, and as an early example of Johnson’s advocacy for civil rights and social justice. Johnson ran for Congress in 1937 on a New Deal platform, and his tireless efforts on behalf of his 10th Congressional District constituency has left substantial memorials on the central Texas landscape. During his time in the House of Representatives (1937-1946), Johnson was instrumental in securing federal funding for the electrification of the rural central Texas countryside and for establishing himself as a classic Texas wheeler-dealer who eventually won the confidence of President Roosevelt. In keeping with his well camouflaged commitment to civil rights (Johnson did not support any federal civil rights legislation during his time in the House of Representatives) during his career as a legislator, he remained a staunch supporter of public housing throughout his subsequent political career and was instrumental not only in vigorously defending the program in the face of robust political opposition, but also in passing crucial public housing funding legislation while Senate Majority Leader in 1955 (Caro 2002: 604-609). Senator Johnson also proposed billions of dollars in new public housing construction funding in 1959 after the 1958 elections emboldened Democrats during the latter years of the Eisenhower presidency (Unger & Unger 1999: 223-224).

5 These limits were much stricter than those enjoyed by the PWA Housing Division. During the floor debate for the bill Rep. Dudley A. White of Ohio noted that some of the developments built by the PWA Housing Division were built for as high as $26,000 per dwelling unit (McDonnell 1957: 379).
The most remarkable achievement of Johnson’s Senate career was winning passage of the 1957 Civil Rights Bill, while fending off deep sectional rivalries within the Democratic party. The bill, the first concerning civil rights since Reconstruction, lacked authority to compel significant change, but Johnson saw it as a crucial first step (Public Broadcasting Service 2006). Johnson’s presidency marked the passage of the Civil Rights Act in 1964, the Voting Rights Act a year later, as well as other programs such as Medicaid, Medicare, and almost 200 other pieces of Great Society legislation such as the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. Johnson also appointed civil rights attorney Thurgood Marshall to the post of Solicitor General and later Associate Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court, making him the first African-American to serve in either position. After the murder of civil rights worker Viola Liuzzo, Johnson went on television to announce the arrest of four Ku Klux Klansmen implicated in her death. He angrily denounced the Klan as a “hooded society of bigots,” and warned them to “return to a decent society before it's too late” (Woods 2006: 262). Johnson’s civil rights advocacy on behalf of Mexican-Americans—which in many ways started with his work as a teacher in Cotulla, Texas in 1928 and at Santa Rita Courts—also found expression in the passage of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968, the first piece of federal legislation regarding minority language speakers. Among Johnson’s lasting presidential achievements in the area of housing specifically are the establishment of the cabinet level Department of Housing and Urban Development in 1965, and subsequent enactments such as the 1968 Fair Housing Act (Dallek 1998: 228-229, 517), which Johnson considered the most important political achievement in housing of his political career. The passage of these laws served as a capstone on a political career that found their first bold expression in the funding and construction of Santa Rita, Rosewood, and Chalmers Courts thirty years prior.

At the beginning of his career Johnson’s New Deal advocacy entailed a variety of approaches, including radio addresses. In his famous “Tarnish on the Violet Crown” radio address (Austin had been dubbed "the City of the Violet Crown" since the 1890’s by O. Henry) delivered on Austin radio station KNOW on January 23, 1938, Congressman Johnson talked about scenes of Austin he had observed while on a walking tour of the city the previous Christmas: “Within the shadow of the Capitol I found people living in such squalor that Christmas Day was to them just one more day of filth and misery” (Dallek 1991: 173). He saw a family of eight or ten people living in a room 20 by 25 or 30 feet, a fire hydrant from which 110 people took their drinking water, and an outdoor toilet which they all used (Dallek 1991: 173). Johnson continued, “But why do I tell you this? Why, some may ask, should one who is elected to represent this district take note of such unattractive spots when our city has so much to be proud of?” No one is more proud of the beauty and attainments of the City of Austin than I. But for that very reason I am unwilling to close my eyes to needless suffering and deprivation, which is not only a curse to the people immediately concerned, but is also a cancerous blight on the whole community” (Congressional Record 1938). Prior to delivering this speech, Johnson had spoken before the Austin City Council just before Christmas 1937. He observed, “We have some slums in Austin. We ought to be progressive enough to remove certain eyesores” (Duggar 1982: 210). He argued there was a correlation between poor housing areas and juvenile delinquency, crime in general, and poor health, especially tuberculosis and syphilis.

To ensure that his speech reached a national audience, Johnson had his colleague Morris Sheppard enter the speech in its entirety into the Congressional Record on Thursday February 3, 1938. And in a revealing passage indicative of his already considerable political ambition, Johnson noted: “One thing I believe all of us have learned from the Roosevelt administration is that none of us can remain prosperous long unless more of us have an opportunity to live better and purchase more from our stores; for it is on the wide distribution of our manufactured and agricultural products that the prosperity of this country depends” (Congressional Record 1938). By the time Congressman Johnson delivered this speech, the Austin Housing Authority had just been established a few weeks prior. Johnson himself named two of the new agency’s commissioners, E.H. Perry, a retired cotton broker, and Alvin Wirtz, two of his biggest benefactors. The geriatric Perry was mostly a figurehead; the authority would be mostly run by vice chairman Wirtz. The Austin city manager was named executive director.

After passage of the 1937 Housing Act, five housing authorities were initially approved and three loans announced by President Roosevelt: New York, New Orleans, and Austin, Texas. Congressman Johnson—so the local story goes—had the grants announced in alphabetical order, knowing that recognition of Austin would precede New Orleans and New York (Duggar 1982: 210). Why Austin? “Because,” said Leon Keyserling, then deputy administrator of the federal agency, “there was this first term congressman who was so on his toes and so active and so overwhelming that he was up and down our corridors all the time....” Johnson called on Keyserling and said, “Lady Bird and I want you to have cocktails with us”—“How’s that?”—“Well, we want Austin to be announced first”—“Well, why first?”—Mayor La Guardia [of New York] might not like that.”—“Well, it’s the first in the alphabet, isn’t it?” (Duggar 1982: 210). Keyserling noted: “…It was his go-getterness that got the first project for Austin” (Unger & Unger: 1999: 71).

The three were announced simultaneously.

According D.B. Hardeman, longtime assistant to former Speaker of the House Sam Rayburn and Johnson biographer, Johnson “was proud of that project and bragged about it all the time and in places where it couldn’t have done him the slightest good, only the opposite” (Miller 1980: 73).

The March 20, 1938 Sunday Austin American-Statesman, featured a front-page picture of the signing of the initial awards. From left to right the picture (see Photo 2) featured Congressman Lyndon B. Johnson, Vice President John N. “Cactus Jack” Garner,

Most of Austin’s principal realtors as well as the local chamber of commerce tried to scuttle the project. They objected to “government competition” in rental property, warning that it would discourage private building and cost the city several million dollars in business activity. They also denied that Austin had “real slums.” A past president of the chamber of commerce spoke up against the city going into the rental business since, he said, every American has the right to say where he will live and “if his home is built of license plates, he still retains his independence” (Dugger 1982: 210). They opposed what they considered to be a socialistic undertaking.

In a famous meeting attended by these conservative realtors, Austin Mayor Miller and others, Congressman Johnson vigorously defended the public housing idea. The opponents of the project, he said, were “rent hogs,” men who worried that decent, low-cost housing for the poor would replace slum dwellings from which they profited. When Simon Gillis, one of the realtors, flailed the public housing plan, Johnson pointed out how many slum units Gillis actually owned. Johnson rejected the idea that government was “competing” with business and said “the government is competing with the shacks and hovels and hogsties and all the other foul holes in which the underprivileged have to live” (Dugger 1982: 211).

To back up his assertion, Johnson pointed to a study conducted by the Austin Housing Authority which showed that 1030 out of 1697 houses in East Austin were substandard (the study was largely based on the city’s 1934 real property inventory), meaning that they were either in need of major repair, unfit for use, or had no running water or sanitation. The housing authority also prepared maps for the meeting which backed up Johnson’s claim that the highest concentration of juvenile delinquency, petty crime, relief families, and diseases like tuberculosis and syphilis were in older areas of town with the poorest housing. The areas with medium and high cost housing showed little evidence of these social and medical blights (Austin Housing Authority 1939).

Johnson also pointed out that Austin’s housing did not measure up to national standards: 22.3 percent of all Austin homes were “either in dangerous disrepair or even unfit for habitation” compared with 18.1 percent in 64 other cities around the country. Nationally, one home out of twenty lacked running water; in Austin it was one out of six. Twice as many Austin homes lacked a private toilet as in the 64 sample cities. “If anybody says to you that the people of Austin do not need…. [new] dwellings,” Johnson concluded, “….take them through the blocks of slums we have, and show them conditions that are a disgrace to Americans in any city” (Dallek 1991: 173). Johnson also noted that both the federal and state housing laws did not compete with “legitimate private enterprise” (Congressional Record 1938). Johnson pointed out that “express rules against competition [were] written into the United States Housing Act of 1937 and into the Texas Act” (Congressional Record 1938). Johnson was referring to the required 20 percent gap between the upper income limits for admission to public housing projects and the lowest limits at which the private sector provided decent housing.

There was also a political dimension to Johnson’s advocacy for public housing in Austin. He had won election to the U.S. House of Representatives in a special election in which blacks could vote and he carried most of the black vote (Caro 2002: 735-737). The black vote in Austin was significant because until the 1960’s it represented the principal minority segment in Austin and drew the largest public attention (Orum 1987: 172). As in other southern states, African-Americans had been disenfranchised from voting in Texas primaries for decades. But the special election which Johnson won was a direct federal election that bypassed the established Jim Crow primary system in Texas. Johnson saw the new housing act as an expedient means of providing assistance for poor Mexican-American and African-American voters whose political support he actively courted.

Austin’s housing agency became the first in the country to receive funding and to start construction on its USHA low-rent housing. The first two projects to start construction were Santa Rita Courts and Rosewood Courts; both projects started construction on the same day. Santa Rita was accepted as substantially complete on June 24, 1939, Rosewood followed three months later, on September 1, 1939. HACA's housing was built for less than $2500 per unit compared with a $4500 national average for similar units, and it provided the lowest rent for the same amount of space available in Texas (Dallek 1991: 173). This figure is impressive considering that Rosewood Courts’ International Style architecture mandated interior appointments were lavish by the standards of the time, particularly in Austin; the kitchens included a gas range and wood open shelving as well as a gas hot water heater, and the living rooms contained unit gas heaters.

Oliver C. Winston

Congressman Johnson helped to secure the funding and direct involvement of the federal government, but without the work of O.C. Winston Rosewood Courts could not have been built. The impact of modern housing ideas in larger cities has received a fair share of scholarly attention (Radford 1996); its impact on smaller towns such as Austin has to date not been much documented. The work of O.C. Winston sheds considerable light on how the USHA housing program was implemented in actual practice across the country, not just in larger cities. The Oliver C. Winston Papers at Cornell University show the degree to which Winston all but took Austin officials by the hand and facilitated: a. the drafting of necessary resolutions on the part of the Austin City Council authorizing the creation of an Austin Housing
Authority, b. the establishment of a general plan, by-laws, and organization of the Austin Housing Authority, c. the conductance of a study establishing the need for low-cost housing in Austin (required by the 1937 Housing Act), d. the site selection of Rosewood Courts, as well as Santa Rita and Chalmers Courts, e. the development of architectural plans and cost estimates that would meet with federal approval, and f. the development of plans for the demolition of "equivalent units," another provision required by the enabling 1937 federal housing legislation.

Winston's most enduring contribution may lie in his education of local officials and architects about modern housing ideas and why they became basic USHA design requirements. Winston was an important bridge between the modern housing ideals of the architectural avant-garde largely concentrated in big East Coast cities and the local Austin design community, which had no experience with cutting edge architectural design and planning precepts. As a native of Central Texas, work in Austin was of both professional as well as personal importance for Winston. He was uniquely positioned to explain the modern housing ideal to an often skeptical Texas audience, and it was a shrewd management decision on the part of Nathan Straus to have selected Winston for the role. Although Winston would go on to a further career in the planning field, as well as public housing authority management, available evidence strongly suggests that Winston's association with Rosewood Courts as well as Austin's other two first public housing projects constitutes the best representation of his historic contributions to public housing in America.

Nathan Straus

Nathan Straus is nominated under Criterion B not simply because his involvement with Rosewood Courts is significant and direct (see Photos 3 and 4), but because his association with it best encapsulates his accomplishments in service to our nation's public housing history. In order to make such a judgment, a brief discussion of Straus's career, especially his career as USHA Administrator, is necessary.

Straus served as USHA Administrator for slightly less than five years. During that time the agency funded the construction of approximately 120,000 units of public housing, about six times as many units as the experimental PWA Housing Division. Straus's tenure as USHA Administrator is generally viewed in negative terms by scholars; for instance Biles (1990: 45) observed that:

"Straus proved to be an ineffective administrator and lacked the political skill to work with an increasingly unsympathetic Congress. To protect housing from a hostile legislative coalition required skills he lacked. In all likelihood, a more capable administrator could have made a difference against powerful forces arrayed against public housing, but Straus's inadequacies undercut whatever support the reformers could muster" (see also Radford 1996)

This assessment of Straus is both unfair and incomplete. More recent histories of the New Deal point out that for a variety of reasons any administrator of the USHA would have faced almost insurmountable challenges during the late New Deal period and the imminent Second World War (Katznelson 2005, 2013). Moreover, the 1937 Housing Act itself was a piece of compromise legislation, with many potential pitfalls and booby traps for someone naive about the palace intrigues of Washington, D.C; Straus faced acrimony from the beginning.

For instance in addition to immediate friction with the notoriously grumpy and controlling Secretary of the Interior Harold Ickes, who wanted to continue the nation's public housing programs himself, Straus also ran afoul of Reconstruction Finance Corporation chief Jesse H. Jones, who aggressively sought to intervene against the newly established Houston Housing Authority in Texas. The Houston Housing Authority had purchased some downtown land, with approval from the mayor of Houston, which Jones and his business associates had wanted to develop themselves instead. Jones told Straus "I want you to take a site which belongs to some people I know. This particular site is much better suited for the purpose and is on the outskirts of town." "I want the land that your housing authority bought for some of my developments in Houston, and the land on the outskirts, which I want you people to buy, belongs to a friend of mine. Straus, you better go back and fix that up if you know what's good for you" (Straus 1950). Part of the downtown land purchased by the Houston Housing Authority would become the San Felipe Courts housing project; it was entered into the National Register of Historic Places in 1988 (Fox and Becnel 1988).

After speaking with his Texas based field staff (including O.C. Winston) and with local housing authority officials, Straus informed Jones that he would not exchange the downtown land purchased by the housing authority for the cheaper land located on the city's outskirts. Nor would he do a one-for-one swap (the downtown land was considerably more valuable) as Jones wanted. Incensed, Jones told Straus "You will regret this."

---

6 In his application letter to the United States Housing Authority requesting funding for public housing in Austin, E.H. Perry wrote that "we particularly express our gratitude for the invaluable assistance and advice that Mr. Winston has given us" (E. H. Perry to Nathan Straus, February 10, 1938).

7 Ickes thought that President Roosevelt made a significant mistake in appointing Straus as USHA Administrator, and considered Straus to be "a rich man's son" who lacked courage or "even ordinary ability." Ickes also despised Catherine Bauer, whom he termed "a wild-eyed female" who "regards herself as an expert" (Ickes 1954 (vol. II): 254) that would dominate Straus.
Straus also encountered difficulties with (mostly southern) members of congress, many of whom had voted for the Housing Act only because Rep. Henry Steagall had told them to. In spite of this, once the bill was signed into law many of them viewed the newly created USHA as an opportunity for political patronage and approached the USHA for funding for their districts. Straus viewed this hypocrisy with disdain. In this regard, Reps. Lyndon Johnson and Maury Maverick of Texas proved something of an exception; Johnson approached Straus and Assistant USHA Director Leon Keyserling as a true believer in the USHA's mission, not as someone who did not care about slum clearance housing one way or the other. Accordingly Austin became the location of the south's, not just nation's, first USHA financed housing.

Looking back on his tenure as USHA chief in 1950 (Straus 1950), a reflective Nathan Straus conceded that he "had made many mistakes in my personal relations," particularly with members of congress. He felt that he should have been more understanding of the desires of members of congress for political patronage. Nonetheless, he also noted that the opposition he ultimately faced in congress was largely ideological, not administrative. He observed:

"What irked these Congressmen was that the USHA kept on providing--through local housing authorities--homes within the means of families in the slums, that more than $100 million worth of land was acquired through local housing authorities without a breath of scandal, that the USHA had no labor difficulties, that USHA projects showed low construction costs and strikingly low rents--yet cost the taxpayer in subsidies far less than originally anticipated."

Nathan Straus's *Mr. Smith Goes to Washington* style administration of the USHA may have been politically naive, but it was not inept or corrupt. Previous studies that have been critical of his tenure have not only treated him unfairly, they have also displayed a tendency to claim—as did Straus's enemies at the time—that the housing problems of the slums "were rooted in cultural factors as well as in the physical surroundings of the poor" (Biles 1990: 46). Such "culture of poverty" rhetoric is also deeply steeped in racialist thought, as more recent scholars of the New Deal (Katznelson 2005, 2013) have noted.

During his tenure as USHA chief Straus attended numerous dedication ceremonies, but the record shows that in only one case was he ever invited to address a joint session of a state legislature: in Austin Texas. Straus's whirlwind March 1939 visit to Austin left a deep impression. In addition to addressing the Texas legislature and dedicating Rosewood Courts, Straus spoke at a luncheon to local housing officials as well as the city council. "I shall never forget this day" he is quoted as saying in a March 2, 1939 Austin *American* article about his visit. The remainder of Straus's tenure as USHA chief was marked by increasing rancor, a climate of fear, and an impending world war. Looked at in historical perspective, it is clear that Nathan Straus's relationship to Rosewood Courts stands out as the distinctive embodiment of the ambitions behind the USHA housing program that best represents Straus's historic contributions.

**Nathan Straus and the Rosewood Courts Historic District**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is the individual significant?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the individual directly associated with the property during his or her productive life?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In comparison to related properties, is Straus's affiliation with Rosewood Courts the best representation of his historic contribution to the public housing program?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

8 Two years after resigning as USHA Administrator, Straus authored *The Seven Myths of Housing*, much of which was written in response to his critics. For some modern discussion of Straus's overlooked book see Vale (2013: 11-12).

9 As a prominent Jewish American, during World War II Nathan Straus had other things on his mind besides housing. For instance in 1941 Straus was deeply involved in efforts to save the family of Otto Frank, then living in Nazi-occupied Holland. Frank was Straus's college roommate at the University of Heidelberg and was the father of Anne Frank. Recently published letters between Straus and Frank (Adler 2013) reveal the depth of the desperate efforts Frank undertook to save his family. Unfortunately the tightening restrictions of the U.S. State Department, along with deteriorating conditions in Europe, prevented even those with powerful connections and money from securing the necessary documents that would allow the Frank family to immigrate (Straus Historical Society 2007).
The Rosewood Courts Community

As at previous public housing developments built for African Americans by the experimental PWA Housing Division such as Langston Terrace in Washington, D.C. and Harlem River Houses in New York City, Rosewood Courts provided more than shelter for moderate income Austin families. The housing project became a pillar of the segregated East Austin African American community and was the location of numerous neighborhood uplift initiatives for residents and non-residents alike. Numerous social and educational programs were housed at Rosewood Courts, including some of the first War on Poverty initiatives targeting Austin's black community, such as Head Start. The initiatives of the Office of Economic Opportunity found their initial expression in the 1930's; given the large number of African-American laundresses that lived at Rosewood Courts during its early years, the segregated Austin schools thought it prudent to also offer sewing classes at the housing development (see Figure 29).

Rosewood Courts to the Present

By 1965 Lyndon Johnson had become President of the United States and had made Robert Weaver his administrator of the Housing and Home Finance Agency (HHFC), the agency which in 1947 consolidated the United States Housing Authority, Home Owners’ Loan Corporation, the Federal Savings and Loan Insurance Corporation, the Federal Housing Administration, the Defense Homes Corporation, and the United States Housing Corporation. The HHFC acquired the Federal National Mortgage Association (Fannie Mae) from the Federal Loan Agency as a constituent unit in 1950.

The year 1965 also marked the passage of the Housing and Urban Development Act as part of Johnson's Great Society, which created the new cabinet level Department of Housing and Urban Development. President Johnson appointed Robert Weaver, an original member of the USHA staff, to head the new department. Weaver became the first African-American cabinet secretary in American history.

The year 1965 also marked the construction of an HHFC sponsored 32-unit expansion of Rosewood Courts known as the "Rosewood Addition," designed to house senior citizens and to serve as the administrative offices for the Rosewood Courts property. By the late 1970's the Austin Housing Authority had rebranded the Rosewood Addition as "Salina" in recognition of the fact that the front entrance of the Rosewood Project office was located at 1143 Salina Street instead of along Chicon Street. Construction for the Rosewood addition was completed by early Fall 1966, with the 32 units fully occupied within a matter of days.10

Segregation in Austin

The 1928 Austin Master Plan codified into law both public and private real estate practices of exploitation, oppression and segregation (Busch 2013: 981) against African-Americans. Because explicitly race-based zoning had been declared unconstitutional and was considered politically unworkable, the stated purpose of the plan, authored by the Dallas engineering firm of Koch and Fowler, was to locate municipal necessities such as utility service, schools, parks, transportation, and healthcare facilities in racially specific areas of the city, as an inducement to producing the spatial arrangements desired by city planners: the retention of the nonindustrial and non-urban high quality of life enjoyed by Westside Austinites. The plan referred to this method of forced relocation as "an incentive to draw the negro population to this area" (Koch and Fowler 1928, Busch 2013: 982).

While the 1928 plan did not specifically mandate the segregation of "Mexicans" into a specific geographic area, the construction of Zaragosa Park and, later, Santa Rita Courts followed the pattern that had been established by the segregation of Austin's African-American population.

The July 1934 Homeowners' Loan Corporation Map for Austin (Map 8) furnished the first visual indication of segregation in Austin by the federal government. It demarcated the city into "hazardous (Type D)," "definitely declining (Type C)," "still desirable (Type B)," and "best (Type A)" areas, with the Negro district as well as most of the Mexican area shown as hazardous or definitely declining. Most of South Austin, a racially mixed area with a still significant black and Mexican population, was redefined as well.11

In August 1919 John R. Shillady, secretary of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) came to Austin at the invitation of the local NAACP chapter, which had been targeted by state officials for investigation. During his visit,

10 The LBJ housing legacy in Austin culminated with the construction of the Robert Weaver Homes and the Rebekah Baines Johnson senior housing center in 1969, the ambitions of which were an outgrowth of the housing advocacy experiences of the 1930's in which both Johnson and Weaver participated. For further discussion see the website of the Austin Tejano Trails project: www.austintejanotrails.wordpress.com.

11 The Home Owners’ Loan Corporation (HOLC) was a government-sponsored corporation created as part of the New Deal. The corporation was established in 1933 by the Home Owners’ Loan Corporation Act whose purpose was to refinance home mortgages in default to prevent foreclosure. The agency ceased operations in 1951.
Shillady, who was white, was dragged before a makeshift "court of inquiry," labeled a "n---er lover," 12 and was accused of inciting racial violence. He was later assaulted and severely beaten on the streets of Austin by a group of three whites, which included a county judge and a police constable. The incident attracted widespread criticism in the national press, especially after Governor Hobby not only refused to condemn the attack but actually defended the attackers' actions. Incensed by what they saw as northern interference, the state government instituted a suppression of the NAACP. The Austin branch was denied a license to operate, and the police harassed its chief officers. For example, Dr. Edwin W.D. Abner, a black physician and leading member of the local NAACP branch, was arrested and charged with practicing medicine without being properly registered. The harassment worked; Abner as well as other black Austinites, left town in the 1920's as part of the Great Migration (McDonald 2012: 30).

The racial bigotry found in Austin in the 1910's and 1920's was not unusual by southern standards. While the city was largely spared the spectacle of "N---er Barbecues" (a.k.a. lynchings) such as the 1916 lynching of Jesse Washington in Waco, the city's institutions, socioeconomics, and culture were firmly in the grip of white supremacy. The term "n---er" was accepted language; the city's police department even used the term in its official records (McDonald 2012: 37), and the Jim Crow segregation of the city's streetcar service, public drinking fountains, and swimming pools such as Barton Springs had been an Austin fact of life for over a decade by the time the 1928 master plan was enacted. The city's cemeteries, hospitals, restaurants, and schools were also segregated. African-American voting rights and other forms of political participation had been reduced to a trickle. White supremacy in Austin during this era was so entrenched that the recently re-established Ku Klux Klan marched down Congress Avenue during a parade in the early 1920's (see Figure 27).

The spatial redistribution of Austin's minority populations was accomplished quickly: whereas African-Americans resided in nearly every part of Austin throughout the post-emancipation period well into the twentieth century—particularly in neighborhoods such as Clarksville and Wheatsville—by 1932 city records show that the city's black population had been relocated to the desired Eastside location. The African-American school in Wheatsville, which had been in operation for sixty years, closed in 1932. Mexican-Americans had been relocated to an East Austin area just south of the Negro District by the early 1940's.

Private sector practices of racial segregation pre-dated the 1928 master plan and serve as important segregation precursors. For instance the African-American community of Clarksville began to be targeted for Negro removal by the descendants of former Texas Governor E.M. Pease who wished to develop the West Austin area into the Old Enfield neighborhood (McGhee 2012). In 1916, Richard Niles Graham (E.M. Pease's grandson) and his cousin W. Murray Graham (a member of the Austin City Council) formed what would be one of Austin's most influential business ventures, the Enfield Realty and Home Building Company. Serving as vice president, R. Niles Graham used land from the Pease estate to develop residential neighborhoods in Austin and in various counties throughout Texas. The company was responsible for the development of Austin neighborhoods such as Enfield, Westfield, and Tarrytown. Graham's brother-in-law Paul Cruseman, served as secretary. These neighborhoods, as well as the newly established community known as Pemberton Heights, were racially restricted. A major factor in the eventual depopulation of Clarksville was the withholding of street paving, sewer and water lines, as well as other essential public services.

In 1915 Graham and his business partners objected strongly to the proposed siting of a new public school for Negroes to serve the children of Clarksville. The proposed school was to have been located on West Eleventh Street. In a letter to the Austin school board published in the Austin Statesman on August 14, 1915, they wrote:

"West Austin is the coming residence section of our city and is now being rapidly built up by the best element of our citizenship, and the establishment of a negro school in our midst will, in a great measure, destroy the value of our property.....the proximity of the two sites...on Westlyn [West Lynn] Street for Whites and on West Eleventh Street for colored, will, in our judgment, cause constant strife between the races...it will be necessary for the negro pupils, in going to and returning from school, to pass the school on Westlyn Street, and you know that daily conflicts are inevitable."

Residential segregation in Austin goes back even further. For instance, soon after "Colonel" Monroe Shipe arrived in Austin from Kansas and began speculating in Austin real estate in 1889, he acquired a large tract of land about two miles north of the Texas State Capitol and the University of Texas' main campus. In 1891 he platted and later built Austin's first planned upscale suburb, Hyde Park, as an exclusively white neighborhood that would "select and [be] entirely free from nuisances and an objectionable class of people, proper restrictions being taken to guard against undesirable occupants" (Austin Board of Trade 1894: 36, Tretter 2012).

Shipe's influence on the political as well as economic history of Austin is considerable. One of Austin's most important turn of the century business leaders and one of its first modern land developers, he was a business progressive who was closely associated with Alexander Wooldridge, Austin's early twentieth century mayor. Shipe and Wooldridge were instrumental in overturning Austin's original municipal charter based upon geographic representation: "In 1909 Austin adopted a new municipal charter, one that was essentially written by Shipe, which changed the structure of its local government from an alderman (or ward) system to a commission system" (Tretter 2012: 2). Progressive business interests disliked the ward system because of its potential for corruption and tendency

12 In keeping with National Register policy to refrain from the use of "inflammatory" or offensive words, the operative portions of this word have been deleted here and elsewhere.
to support more populist elements in government (Rice 1977). The same progressives also supported Austin's adoption of the city manager form of government in the late 1920's (McDonald 2012: 108), the adoption of the "place" system in 1953, and the so-called "Gentlemen's Agreement" in 1971, which reserved two seats on the Austin City Council for minorities.

Public Housing, Real Estate and Race

The most historically significant aspect of Rosewood Courts’ post-1954 history was its symbolic role in the battle for the desegregation of all housing in Austin. The political battle for the passage of an Austin fair housing ordinance in 1968 once more pitted the same forces in the battle over public housing in 1937-38 against one another. The losers in the 1937 fight over public housing—the Austin Board of Realtors and the Chamber of Commerce (Orum 1987: 251)—again opposed the proposed fair housing ordinance as an encroachment upon private property rights.

Throughout the 1950’s and 1960’s Austin civil rights activists had fought for the desegregation of public accommodations, against police mistreatment, and for fair and equal access to housing. They also ran minority candidates such as local NAACP chief Arthur B. DeWitty for Austin's City Council. Like white citizens in other southern cities, many prominent Austin business owners adopted a strong anti-desegregation stance. For instance White’s Pharmacy at the corner of Sixth and Congress tore out its stools rather than serve black customers, and Scarbrough's Department Store, also on Congress Ave., completely shut down its restaurant (Orum 1987: 257). Local race relations were profoundly affected by President Johnson’s civil rights actions, especially the passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act and subsequent enactment of the Voting Rights Act and Fair Housing Act in January of 1968. Imminent passage of the federal fair housing law immediately desegregated all public housing, including Rosewood Courts—one of the more glaring shortfalls of the 1937 Housing Act—and strongly influenced the Austin City Council when it passed a local fair housing ordinance drafted by the city human relations commission in 1967 by a vote of three to two.

The Austin Board of Realtors, as before “dedicated to preserving the right of private property” in a series of advertisements in the Austin American declared the new ordinance to be “forced public housing” (Orum 1987: 264) and organized a referendum campaign that successfully overturned the ordinance. After more political wrangling, the issue of open housing in Austin was eventually put to a public vote. The local fair housing ordinance was defeated by a vote of 13,913 to 10,391 in October of 1967. Speaking before the city council several days after the election, local realtor Nelson Puett said that “it was a glorious thing that the people of Austin were able to see what the issue was—the right to private property against those who wanted to dilute the rights of private property” (Orum 1987: 266).

The vote was an indicator that both local and national politics were changing. By 1968 the local Board of Realtors was aided by a rising pro-growth sentiment that by this time was beginning to see the New Deal and civil rights as dated and overreaching. The activism unleashed by the civil rights struggle and the anti-Vietnam War movement had also offended the Austin old guard, never a friend of public housing. The inevitable backlash culminated in the election of Richard Nixon and the development of a politics later labeled as the "Southern Strategy." The racial dimensions of the housing aspects of such policies were straightforward: the battle was about civil rights versus property rights.

The consequences of the fight over the local Fair Housing Ordinance have been long-lasting. Emma Long, Harry Akin, and the other member of the liberal majority on the council were defeated for re-election. A member of the Young Chamber of Commerce ran and was elected, and Travis LaRue, no friend of LBJ's Great Society, was elected mayor. Austin also went to a seven-member city council and began directly electing the mayor instead of having the city council vote him or her in. Perhaps most notoriously, around this time Austin also adopted its so-called "Gentlemen’s Agreement," which kept the city's system of place-based at-large elections but guaranteed two seats on the city council reserved for minorities. The new political consensus of the early 1970's produced the election of Roy Butler, with numbers similar to the overturned Fair Housing Ordinance; the highest in Austin’s history. While there have been variations in Austin governance since, from a racial perspective these political fights have largely been about the city's natural environment and have entailed debates about the intensity of permitted real estate development. The racial trajectory, however has been consistent: segregation, oppression, differential treatment, and disregard.
Narrative Statement of Significance

Social History and Politics/Government

The political and social battles represented by the passage and subsequent implementation of the 1937 U.S. Housing Act offer a comprehensive historical window into the relationship between race and class in twentieth century America as any aspect of public policy. The political career of President Johnson furnishes an ideal lens from which to investigate this aspect of federal domestic policy because few—if any—national figures advocated as forcefully and successfully for public housing as Johnson did over so long a time period and at multiple levels of government (Johnson is one of the few American presidents to have served in both houses of Congress as well as in the executive branch before becoming Vice President and eventually President). Moreover, many of the sensitive political and social concerns associated with public housing remain unresolved and are debated down to the present. It is instructive that contemporary discussions concerning affordable housing policy and public housing’s role in it mostly mirror, sometimes exactly, the same discussions and apprehensions raised in the 1930’s. As the first USHA project (alongside Santa Rita Courts), and the first project built for African-Americans, Rosewood Courts embodies those hopes, struggles, and historical memories. Under this category the following themes and areas of significance are embodied by the Rosewood Courts property:

- It represents an important effort by the Federal government to provide local employment opportunities through the construction of public works during the Great Depression.
- It represents an early interaction between the Federal government and the City of Austin to eliminate slums and to improve the housing available to the urban poor.
- It represents the influence of the Democratic Party both locally, statewide, and nationally during the New Deal.
- It represents a project that significantly affected Federal, state, and local law, as well as policies and programs.
- It provides an important early example of federal design and construction standards and policies for public housing, that had a major local and statewide influence.
- It reflects the the important contributions of Lyndon B. Johnson, Nathan Straus, and Oliver B. Winston, all of whom had a direct personal involvement with the property and the programs that produced it.

Ethnic Heritage

Emancipation Park is one of the original Juneteenth parade grounds in America (City of Houston 2007, Brewer 2007). Juneteenth, now a national holiday celebrated in many states, is a celebration that began in Texas and commemorates the emancipation of enslaved African-Americans in Texas at the end of the Civil War. The Emancipation Park history of the Rosewood Courts site:

- Represents an important history of civic mindedness, race-based self-help, community pride, and advocacy during the period that historians have termed the "nadir" of American race relations (Logan 1970, Foner 1988), particularly in the south.
- Represents an early local as well as national effort on the part of African-Americans to band together to acquire real estate for civic use, at a time when all mainstream civic and social institutions were unavailable to African-American populations and the community pooled its resources to build schools, churches, cemeteries and other basic institutions.
- The founding of the Travis County Emancipation Organization by Mattie B. Haywood White and Thomas J. White is an important example of African-American civic entrepreneurship that mirrors the efforts of descendants of enslaved African-Americans in other cities to commemorate the efforts of slavery. Other important examples include the establishment of Emancipation Park in Houston in 1872 and the establishment of Houston's Colored Emancipation Park Association (CEPA) in 1883, the establishment of the Nineteenth of June Organization in Mexia, Texas in 1898, as well as similar actions in cities throughout Texas and the nation. Another noteworthy example of the construction of an Emancipation Park is the construction of an amphitheater and fairgrounds in Nashville, Tennessee in 1872.
- Austin's Emancipation Park was private property. The founders of the park in Austin were aware of some of the late nineteenth century legal wrangling associated with the ownership of Houston's Emancipation Park (City of Houston 2007: 6) and experienced similar property tax problems. This, combined with the construction of the city-owned Rosewood Park in 1930, were a powerful inducement to sell. Still, the Emancipation Organization refused to relinquish its land, and the city ultimately took the property from the owners through eminent domain. This is a powerful indicator of the degree to which city officials were willing to go in order to implement their 1928 master plan. Violation of African-American property rights became an institutionalized fixture of Austin planning and politics for the remainder of the twentieth century and into the twenty-first (Busch 2013).

As a housing project, Rosewood Courts embodies the history of local, state and national residential segregation. Purposely sited at a location at the edge of the Austin city limits designated as the "Negro District" in the 1928 master plan, the property that would become Rosewood Courts included tracts that were purchased from the former city attorney of the City of Austin and tracts and homes that were appropriated from African-American landowners via eminent domain. Rosewood Courts, built atop Emancipation Park after the City of Austin obtained the property via eminent domain, is the nation's oldest USHA housing project built specifically for African-Americans. It is also the first USHA housing project in the nation to begin construction, alongside Santa Rita Courts. Accordingly, in addition to its significance as Austin's Emancipation Park, the Rosewood Courts property:
Represents an important local attempt to improve the housing conditions of a specific ethnic group, in this case African-Americans, albeit within a context of residential segregation.

Served as an important center of cultural, health, education and community activity for Austin's African-American community, a history which was recognized when Rosewood Courts was included as a vital part of Austin's African-American Cultural Heritage District.

Served as a focus for important events significant to the history of race relations in Austin.

**Community Planning and Development**

The establishment of Freedmen's communities, the organization of the Travis County Emancipation Celebration Organization and the African-American purchase and use of Emancipation Park represent an important example of black self-help and community organization during the Jim Crow era. Almost completely without public services, black communities were forced to self-provide services (e.g. parks, drainage, water, sanitation, streets & bridges, cemeteries, transportation) that white populations could "plan" and therefore afford to take for granted.

The creation of the USHA and the construction of public housing during the New Deal is one of the most important planning and development turning points in twentieth century America. The manner in which first generation USHA housing was financed, site selected, designed, constructed, and managed furnishes central and enduring lessons about race and class in America as well as the tensions and opportunities represented by the New Deal.

Under Criteria A and B Rosewood Courts embodies the following themes and areas of significance:

- It represents the crusading efforts of a newly elected New Deal Congressman and a small-town mayor to eliminate slums and to develop well-planned low-rent housing for the poor.
- It represents a major "old urbanist" attempt to encourage community development through the construction of public works projects.
- It was seen as a source of community pride and achievement during a time of great housing need.

Under Criterion C, Rosewood Courts:

- Represents an important and exemplary illustration of early large-scale housing development in which uniformity of design, low ground coverage, limited density, precise spatial relationships, and traffic patterning that emphasized pedestrians and the feeling of a park were combined to create a new environment for the urban poor that replaced the squalor and congestion of the slum.

**Architecture**

As the first USHA housing project to begin construction (alongside Santa Rita Courts), Rosewood Courts is a paradigmatic example of the International Style in twentieth century architecture. It embodies more than the revolutionary design aspects of the International Style that would become a fixture of individual twentieth century buildings in terms of form, function and material selection, although these are amply present. Importantly, the housing development also personifies the social and political aspects that the European founders of the modernist style shared: a deep commitment to social justice through housing. Rosewood Courts represents the first real effort on the part of the federal government of the United States to engage in large-scale neighborhood development that embraced all of the aspects of what would later become known as environmental design.

---

13 Many critics have blamed modern architecture *itself* for the supposed failures of America's public housing (Hunt 2015: 47-63). Such critiques not only influenced the large-scale dismantlement of public housing across the United States beginning in the 1990's, they also found their way into historic preservation debates about public housing planning and architecture. Instead of a proper discussion about the historic character of a large government program such as public housing, the discussion instead became about the "cold" and "barracks-like" warehousing of the poor and people of color in "severely distressed" public housing projects. Historic preservation discussions often entailed claims about the lack of aesthetics in public housing—something which was never meant to be a feature of the International Style and in any case was impossible given the construction cost constraints imposed by Congress. The 2015 book *Public Housing Myths* empirically investigated various claims about the supposed failures of public housing planning and design and concluded that broad-brush condemnations of the role of modern architecture in public housing were oversimplified and propagandistic. The problems inherent in public housing had more to do with demography and cost considerations—both functions of public housing management—than with inadequate design (Hunt 2015: 61-63). In other words, it was public housing underfunding and mismanagement that were to blame, not the supposed flaws of architectural modernism.
Walter Gropius, the founder of the Bauhaus and a founder of the International Style, designed a 250 unit public housing complex for defense workers in 1941 called Aluminum City Terrace that bears a noticeable resemblance to Rosewood Courts in many important regards. In addition to similarities in the selection of construction materials, other similarities between the two projects include construction on a hilly terrain with ample pre-existing natural vegetation, built-ins such as closets and bookshelves, a terraced landscape designed to reinforce the advantages of natural sunlight and ventilation, a crucial focus on the orientation of the buildings so as to maximize southern light, cantilevered porches and overhangs, well appointed kitchens, communal space, accommodations for recreation and gardening, and a rigid adherence to federal cost limitations. Both Aluminum City Terrace and Rosewood Courts are still in use and represent the progressive vision of their designers.

Rosewood Courts represents a unique implementation of USHA's Bauhaus based and standardized modernist design guidelines, primarily because of the considerable south to north slope of the site, its previous use as Emancipation Park, and the presence of Poquito Creek, which flows through the site's northern portion. In addition to standardized kitchens with modern appliances and appointments (such as gas heaters and ranges as well as consistent electrical power), the site design also emphasizes key custom features that would be needed by the occupants of Rosewood, such as an abundance of clothesline poles, that constituted crucial components of the overall design. Most of the African-American women living at Rosewood Courts worked as domestics and laundresses for white clients in West Austin. These and other design features went well beyond the basics of slum clearance and are a strong indicator of the degree to which first generation public housing differs from the urban renewal high rises that followed after the enactment of the 1949 Housing Act. The landscape architect for the project C.C. Pinkney produced a creative planting plan that retained as much of the site's natural character and indigenous vegetation as possible. The site's now mature vegetation, particularly its heritage trees, not only furnish shade and provide an urban rustic feeling that invite visitors and residents alike to engage in individual as well as communal reflection.

In sum, Rosewood Courts embodies the following themes and areas of significance that make it eligible under Criterion C:

- As the first modernist residential structures in Austin, as well as some of the first multi-family structures, Rosewood Courts serves as a physical symbol of housing design and construction standards developed through the efforts of the housing reform movement.
- The public housing constructed in Austin in the late 1930's was at the cutting edge of modern architectural design and planning philosophy and revolutionized how the City of Austin conceived and did planning. It changed the way the local community of architectural professionals functioned, and it upgraded the capacity of the local building trades and construction industry.
- The "functional modernist" architecture of Rosewood Courts involved design and planning contributions by H.F. Kuehne and C.C. Pinkney, two acknowledged architectural masters of local, state, and national significance.

It has been observed that the "most likely candidates for national level significance" under Criterion C "would be those projects built under the Public Works Administration" because they were "superior examples of the property type" (Robinson, et. al. 1999: 26), but this pronouncement constitutes a flawed and biased view of the full history of public housing in the United States. Most scholars have viewed the evolution of housing policy in the United States as a process not as an amalgamation of objects or forms (Hayes 1995, Schwartz 1996). The historical importance of 1930's public housing architecture, therefore, should be more holistically evaluated in terms of policy and funding constraints, not simply its aesthetics. The placement of an experimental program such as the PWA Housing Division as representative of the nation's overall public housing experience, thereby justifying the shirking or minimization of the importance of subsequently constructed housing, is both illogical and unhistorical. Such a practice would be seen as flawed in other areas of policy, most notably high-dollar weapons systems produced by the War or Defense Department. Consider, for instance, a useful analogy: the U.S. Navy's F-14 Tomcat.

The F-14 is one of the most successful carrier intercept aircraft ever developed. 712 of the aircraft were produced between 1969 and 1991, at a cost of about $38 million dollars each. The airplane did not spring forth from whole cloth; it was based upon the experimental F-111B project as well as the 1968 experimental Naval Fighter Experimental (VFX) program, which were designed to replace the Vietnam War era F-4 Phantom II. The Grumman Corporation was eventually awarded the contract for the construction of the F-14 Tomcat, which went through extensive testing, re-testing, improvements and changes over the course of its history before being retired from service in September of 2006.

Any consideration of this aircraft's historic significance would not posit that its earliest iterations in the late 1960's and early 1970's were constitutive of the entire program. Such a reductionist approach to evaluating the airplane's historic significance would produce

14 As Ira Katznelson notes in his 2005 book *When Affirmative Action Was White*, key New Deal employment programs discriminated against African-Americans both legally and administratively. For example maids and farmworkers—fully two-thirds of southern black employees—were excluded from participation in TVA, CCC or farm assistance programs (Katznelson 2013: 163). The installation of the clothesline poles at Rosewood Courts, therefore, should be measured against this larger context of New Deal segregation.
a deeply flawed understanding of this aircraft's historic significance for future generations. The principle applies with PWA vs. USHA public housing as well.

Consider further that:

- Beginning in 1933 during the early years of the New Deal, four government agencies began to tackle the country's housing crisis: the housing division of the Public Works Administration, the Resettlement Administration, the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, and the Farm Security Administration. Of these, the work of the PWA Housing Division is best known. The plan on which the PWA Housing Division operated was experimental and tentative. Its legal basis was a brief passage inserted in the National Industrial Recovery Act, a jobs not a public housing bill. Ultimately only about 20,000 units were built by the PWA Housing Division, at an average price of over $7,000 per unit, which facilitated more elaborate modernist design, particularly ornamentation.
- Extensive ornamentation, while aesthetically pleasing, is not a hallmark of the International Style, whose primary emphasis is on functional elegance. It is a mistake to confuse ornamentation with architectural significance, particularly in the case of first generation USHA (United States Housing Authority) housing which not only revolutionized residential real estate in small cities such as Austin but was built most closely to Catherine Bauer's Modern Housing ideal.
- If anyone was well positioned to pass judgment on the architectural and planning significance of first generation USHA housing, it was Catherine Bauer. Bauer was very familiar with Austin's public housing and not only endorsed its design, she featured Rosewood Courts in her 1940 Citizen's Guide to Public Housing alongside New York's Queensbridge housing project in order to draw a contrast between the differences between her modern housing ideas in large versus small cities.
- In contrast to the housing constructed by the PWA Housing Division, the USHA, financed the construction of over 120,000 units of low-rent public housing units in all parts of the United States, urban and rural. The 1937 U.S. Housing Act restricted the costs at which these units could be built; in the case of Rosewood Courts, the housing was built for less than $2,500 per unit, a parsimonious sum by almost any standard. It is a testament to the rigorous design requirements and construction craftsmanship of the Rosewood Courts architects and builders that the housing development continues to function as public housing over 75 years after its construction, despite uneven maintenance over the years.
- The developments built by the PWA were demonstration projects largely built through trial and error. The federal government acquired and owned the land, often through eminent domain, and oversaw all aspects of housing finance, construction and administration. In contrast, the USHA introduced the notion of a local housing authority—an idea borrowed from Great Britain—whose function would be to site select, design, construct, own and manage the public housing locally. As the first USHA housing project (alongside Santa Rita Courts), Rosewood Courts played a pivotal role in this important transition of the Federal government's role from builder to banker. It also was an important early test case for the segregation requirements included in the 1937 U.S. Housing Act. The housing authority system of public housing provision remains America's chief method for administering the program, in both law and practice.
- In discussing the Bauhaus origins of the International Style it is historically inaccurate to disconnect the style's form-making and design aesthetic from its social and political content. American architectural critics beginning with Henry-Russell Hitchcock and Philip Johnson in 1932 have never been comfortable with the left-leaning politics of the European modernists that were the progenitors of the style (Hitchcock and Johnson 1966: 13). That attitude persists and has been a shadow hanging over the American public housing program since its inception, particularly in historic preservation debates.
- Historic integrity should not be confused with structural condition. Rosewood Courts not only maintains a high degree of integrity that conveys its historic significance, it is still being used for the purpose it was originally designed for. Avoidance of presentism obligates us to immerse ourselves in the perspectives and points of view of the housing project's founders and to avoid the present-day promulgation of supposedly "resident-focused" pseudo-historical arguments about how early twenty-first century public housing demolition instead of construction is now in the public interest.

These facts amplify why early USHA projects such as Rosewood Courts are more representative of America's public housing experience and why it is one of the projects that "demonstrate[s] a decisive or pivotal role in the development of…later Federal housing programs or…the formulation of U.S. housing policy and standards" (Robinson, et. al. 1999: 26).

Archeology

According to National Register Bulletin 15, in order for a property to qualify for National Register listing under Criterion D both of the following requirements must be met:

- The property must have, or have had, information to contribute to our understanding of human history or prehistory.
- The information must be considered important.

The property must have characteristics suggesting the likelihood that it possesses configurations of artifacts or ecofacts that make it possible to do the following:

- Test a hypothesis or hypotheses about events, groups or processes that bear on important research questions, or
furnishes a database of African American archaeological and historical sites in Texas. Archaeological investigations at the Rosewood
historic context for archaeological work at Texas African American archaeology sites, the document also serves as a research guide by
artifact and ecofact analysis at Afro-Texas sites.

It should be noted that important archaeological discoveries have taken place at public housing sites in the past. Two noteworthy
examples: human remains were found at the San Felipe Courts Historic District (a.k.a. Allen Parkway Village) in Houston in 1997
and at the Iberville public housing project in New Orleans in 2012. It would be a mistake to assume that Emancipation Park is no
longer extant and is of no archaeological value. Such claims have been made at public housing sites before and were shown to be
false, at great scientific cost as well as taxpayer expense. The park as well as the rest of the Rosewood Courts site fit the profile of an
archaeological site with high information potential; scientific investigation of soil strata, structural remains (such as foundations),
settlement patterning along Poquito Creek or other possible queries represent a unique opportunity to study African-American
domestic life as well as communal patterns.

The need for more empirical and field-based research on African American urbanization and responses to Jim Crow is great. As
University of Texas at Austin historical archaeologist Maria Franklin notes (Franklin 2014), "there has not been a lot of historical
archaeology done in Texas" and "that needs to change because a lot of our historic sites are being overlooked." The Rosewood Courts
site represents a distinctive opportunity because no original Juneteenth Parade ground has been professionally or semi-professionally
excavated to date nationwide, not just in Texas. The entire site should be considered archaeologically sensitive, but areas of higher
probability would include Poquito Creek as well as Emancipation Park (see Map 7) and the footprint of the "frame house" depicted in
the topographic map shown in Map 2 that was demolished to make way for Building O at Rosewood Courts.

A survey of Boggy Creek, less than 100 meters from the Rosewood Courts site (see Map 7), was conducted in 2009 by the URS
Corporation in conjunction with a planned channel stabilization project (Ahr 2009). Although numerous historic artifacts were found,
including Tabasco bottles, broken glassware and jar fragments, the site was judged to "not contain research value." Such management
decisions are made often at African-American sites, with crucial SHPO support, and they illustrate a larger problem: what happens
when archaeologists with no training or experience in African-American culture or history make judgments about the potential
research value of such sites. Similar decision-making took place at the San Felipe Historic District in Houston in the mid to late
1990's and culminated in the unfortunate 1999 issuance of a blanket Texas Historical Commission policy that reductionistically
claimed that the majority of late 19th and early-20th century sites were ineligible for the National Register of Historic Places because:

"the distribution of mass-produced goods across the United States produced amazing artifact assemblage uniformity, and,
therefore, the archaeological results rarely provide important new interpretive insights for the historical record. What these
massive numbers of artifacts almost always produce is increased costs, dramatically increased analysis times, and curation
problems (Denton 1999: 13-14).

Texas based African-American archaeologists responded to this policy negatively. A 2008 article in the Bulletin of the Texas
Archeology Society (McGhee 2008), based on a paper delivered at the 2007 Society for American Archaeology conference in Austin,
Texas (McGhee 2007), argued that the policy had more to do with facilitating urban renewal than with giving archaeologists the skills
needed to properly analyze black history and archaeology in the Lone Star State. The paper also pointed out that the policy was
adopted without the existence of a proper historic context document that could help guide the Texas archaeology community with
artifact and ecofact analysis at Afro-Texas sites.

As of 2013 a planning document for African American Archaeology in Texas exists (McDavid et. al. 2013). In addition to furnishing
historic context for archaeological work at Texas African American archaeology sites, the document also serves as a research guide by
delineating some of the existing Afro-Texas archaeology literature and by pointing out standing research questions in the field. It also
furnishes a database of African American archaeological and historical sites in Texas. Archaeological investigations at the Rosewood
Courts site can help answer important research questions in African-American archaeology, such as:

- Where and how did African-Americans live in towns and cities like Austin during the crucial "nadir" of race relations (Logan
  1970, Foner 1988) in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century?
- How did African-Americans celebrate Juneteenth?
- How are cultural continuity and cultural change reflected in the material record?
- What sorts of meanings did African Americans ascribe to material goods and their environment?
- What types of African retentions or creolization can be identified?
In addition to serving as Emancipation Park, the landscape that would become Rosewood Courts also served as a residential area for African Americans. As the December 1938 topographical Map reproduced in Map 2 shows, at least two homes were demolished in order to make way for the public housing project. As at Allen Parkway Village, archaeological evidence related to these occupations may remain.

**Environmental Setting and Natural Features**

**Geology, Hydrology and Soils**

Examination of USDA soil maps for Travis County (Werchan, et al. 1974), the Austin sheet of the Geologic Atlas of Texas (Bureau of Economic Geology 1981), and the 1992 edition of the Geologic Map of the Austin Area (Bureau of Economic Geology 1992), show that soils along Boggy Creek and Poquito Creek are Trinity series alluvial (i.e. floodplain deposits) and fluviatile terrace deposits. They consist of Upper Cretaceous Austin Chalk (Kau) and Upper Colorado River terrace deposits (Quer), which consist of chalk, marl and microgranular calcite as well as gravel, sand, silt and clay. They range in color from tan to light gray and yellow to orange-brown. For further description of Trinity series soils and the pedology of the area see Werchan, et. al. (1974: 57) and Bradle, et. al. (2006: 5-8). The headwaters of Boggy Creek are located in north Austin near Airport Blvd. and flows south along the Austin and Northwestern Railroad for approximately 5.6 km before being diverted to the east where it enters the Colorado River. The creek is a low-gradient stream that drains an area underlain by relatively resistant Cretaceous bedrock. In most places, the channel is fairly narrow (5-10 ft) and incised into surrounding sediments (Ahr 2009: 7).

**Climate**

Area climate is classified as humid subtropical with hot summers and mild winters (Werchan, et. al. 1974: 117). The Köppen Climate classification of the area is Cfa. July and August are usually the hottest months, with December and January the coolest. An average of 21 days per year measure below freezing, with at least 10 days at or above 100 degrees Fahrenheit. Local rainfall tends to be bimodal, with peaks in May and October and minimums in January, February and July (SRCC 2003c).

**Flora and Fauna**

Flora located along Boggy Creek includes varieties of Mesquite, primarily Prosopis glandulosa, a.k.a. Honey Mesquite, Huisache (Acacia farnesiana) and Netleaf Hackberry (Celtis reticulata), as well as the customary Pines, Oaks, and Cedars. Fauna primarily includes domestic animals with occasional sightings of animals such as Raccoons or the Eastern Cottontail Rabbit (Sylvilagus floridanus). Vegetation at Rosewood Courts has been noted and can also be observed in historic photographs (see Photos 7-9).

**Prehistory**

There are many excellent summaries of the pre-history of the area, and it will not be repeated here. The reader is directed to works such as Forty Years of Archaeology in Central Texas (Collins 1995) and Implications of Environmental Diversity in the Central Texas Archaeological Region (Ellis Wootan et. Al. 1995) as well as Bradle et.al. (2006: 10-12), which contain a good summary of previous research.

**Period of Time**

The site's historic period of significance is from 1880-1938. Oral tradition holds that the Emancipation Park site was in use as a Juneteenth Parade ground as early as the 1880's. Photos 17 and 18 show Emancipation Park in use in the year 1900. Photo 16 depicts the Travis County Emancipation Organization's fundraising effort from 1904.

**Identity of the Ethnic Group Associated with Emancipation Park**

African-Americans.

**Physical characteristics and likely appearance during periods of use**

Archaeological investigations conducted at Texas and Louisiana public housing sites and their surrounding communities (see for example Ahr 2009, Feit and Jones 2007, Knighten and Dooley, 2012 and PBS&J 2002) furnish useful guidance for establishing the projected depth and extent of archeological deposits as well as the types of artifacts and ecofacts that are likely to be encountered.
Cutbank examinations along Boggy Creek located less than 100 meters from the Rosewood site revealed the presence of numerous domestic 20th century artifacts, including cut glass, jar fragments, bottles, window glass, and a historic Tabasco bottle at depths as shallow as 5 cm below the surface. The site was designated as 41TV2330 (Ahr 2009: 21).

In their investigation of Houston's Freedmenstown community, located less than 200 meters from the San Felipe Courts Historic District/Allen Parkway Village, Feit and Jones (2007) located numerous domestic artifacts, including a hot comb, decorative glass, buttons, jewelry, medicine bottles, marbles and toys, kitchen glass, porcelain and stoneware whiskey jugs, among many others. Similar domestic assemblages were located by Feit et al. during their investigation of Austin's Guy Town (2003). Most of these artifacts were found less than 100 centimeters below the surface.

In their archaeological investigation of the Iberville housing project in New Orleans, Knighten and Dooley located artifacts such as Pine Tar bottles, clay pipe bowls, irrigation syringe bottles, redware chamber pots, creamware, pearlware, bone buttons, flint, as well as copper coins. Caches of turquoise seed beads, 765 in total, were also located. These deposits were also shallow, well above 100 centimeters below the surface.

The historic appearance of much of the site can be inferred from photographs, including those reproduced in this nomination.

**Previous Investigations**

Ahr (2009) is the closest and most recent archaeological study and has already been cited. No other studies of the site have been identified.

**Current and Past Impacts**

The site was impacted by modern development when Rosewood Courts began construction in 1938. Groundbreaking activities have been sporadic since, mostly limited to maintenance activities and the installation of "defensible space" fencing in the 1990's.

**Present Condition**

The site is currently in use as the Rosewood Courts public housing project. Present condition is excellent. Its ability to confer useful historical information is excellent.

**Cultural Remains**

Map 2 furnishes useful information about the topography and environment of the site in 1938. The present state of cultural remains is unknown. Archaeological investigations of Emancipation Park will need to be conducted to establish the existence and extent of cultural remains. Previous research conducted elsewhere in Texas and Louisiana, as well as nationwide, strongly indicate that the research potential of Emancipation Park is high. Based upon oral tradition concerning the existence of gravesites at Rosewood Courts, the potential for the inadvertent discovery of human remains is considered high (McMillin Burns 2015).

**Type and Degree of Alterations**

Construction of Rosewood Courts altered the natural and cultural features of Emancipation Park. But as at other public housing sites that were built during the New Deal, the exigencies of their construction resulted in the retention of many underappreciated features that can be recovered archaeologically, including, potentially, human remains.

**Explanation**

Much of the natural setting of Rosewood Courts is attributable to its previous existence as Emancipation Park. The contemporary housing project has the feeling of a park, with ample vegetation, undulating and peaceful landscaping, and ample tree canopy. Assessing that relationship further will require archaeological investigation.
Bibliography

Adler, Joan

Ahr, Steve Wayne
2009 Archeological Survey for the Upper Boggy Creek Watershed Capital Improvement Project, Travis County, Texas. URS Corporation.

Arena, John

American Institute of Architects (Austin Chapter)

Atlas, John and Peter Dreier

Austin Board of Trade
1894 The Industrial Advantages of Austin, Texas, or Austin Up To Date. Digital images online at: http://texashistory.unt.edu/ark:/67531/metapth38097/

Bauer, Catherine

Bennett, Larry, Janet L. Smith, and Patricia A. Wright (eds.)
2006 Where are Poor People to Live?: Transforming Public Housing Communities. Armonk and London: M.E. Sharpe, Inc.

Bloom, Nicholas Dagen, Fritz Umbach & Lawrence J. Vale

Bradle, Michael R., Gilbert T. Bernhardt and Robert P. d'Aigle
2006 Archaeological Survey of the Highway 183 Water and Wastewater Relocation from Springdale Road to Boggy Creek for the City of Austin, Travis County, Texas.

Brewer, J. Mason
1940 An Historical Outline of the Negro in Travis County. Samuel Huston College, Negro History Class.

Busch, Andrew

Caro, Robert A.
2012 The Passage of Power (The Years of Lyndon Johnson, Volume 4). New York: Alfred A. Knopf
2002 Master of the Senate (The Years of Lyndon Johnson, Volume 3). New York: Alfred A. Knopf

City of Austin
1934 Housing Pattern Study of Austin, Texas.
1977 Housing Pattern Study of Austin, Texas.

City of Houston

Clark-Madison, Mike
Collins, Michael B.

Congressional Record

Curtis, William J. R.

Dagen Bloom, Nicholas

Dallek, Robert

Delta Sigma Theta Sorority, Incorporated, Austin Alumnae Chapter
1976  *A Pictorial History of Austin, Travis County, Texas' Black Community, 1839-1920.*

Dennis, Regina

Dooley, Austen and William Kyle Knighten
2012  Trade and Luxury: Archaeological Investigations at the Iberville Housing Project. Available online at: http://scholarworks.uno.edu/academicsummit/2013/day2/46/

Dugger, Ronnie

Ellis, Linda Wootan, G. Lain Ellis, and Charles D. Frederick

Farrow, John Edwin
1973  *A Spatial Analysis, with Policy Implications, of the Location of Federally-Subsidized Low Income Housing in Austin, Texas.* Unpublished M.A. Thesis, The University of Texas at Austin.

Feit, Rachel and Bradford M. Jones

Feit, Rachel and James Karbula, John Clark and S. Christopher Caran

Foner, Eric

Fox, Stephen and Nia Becnel

Flores, Carol A.

Flores, Carol A. and Larry Keating

Franklin, Maria
2014 Texas Beyond History Interview, African-American archaeological sites.
   http://www.texasbeyondhistory.net/ransom/images/index-mariafranklininterview1-h5.html

Freeman, Martha Doty (with Kenneth Breisch)
1984 Historic Resources of East Austin. National Register of Historic Places nomination.

Goetz, Edward G.
2013a New Deal Ruins: Race, Economics Justice, & Public Housing Policy. Presentation given in Austin, TX on 18 September, 2013. Video available at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p30OD0CX4xw

Graham, Don
   URL: http://www.utexas.edu/utpress/excerpts/exbragap.html

Gropius, Walter

Hays, R. Allen

Historic American Engineering Record (National Park Service)

Hitchcock, Henry-Russell and Philip Johnson

Hunt, D. Bradford

Ickes, Harold L.

Jacobs, Jane

Katznelson, Ira

Khan, Hasan-Uddin

Kinney, Kaler, Crews (Firm)

Koch and Fowler Consulting Engineers.
1928 "A City Plan for Austin, Texas" (Report, 1928).

Leigh, Wilhelmina A.

Logan, Rayford

Lusignan, Paul R.
2014  Rosewood Courts Historic District, Travis County, Texas. National Park Service Return Comments.

Martin, Justin

Mazur, Jeremy B., John Henneberger, Karen Paup and Allie Vilenkin
1999  Austin’s Commitment to House the Poor: An Assessment of Austin’s Housing Needs, Housing Affordability and Housing Programs. Austin: Texas Low Income Housing Information Service.

McDonald, Jason
2012  Racial Dynamics in Early Twentieth-Century Austin, Texas. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books

McDonnell, Timothy L.

McDavid, Carol, Rachel Feith, Kenneth L. Brown and Fred L. McGhee

McGhee, Fred L.

McMillin Burns, Patsy
2015  Personal Interview with Fred L. McGhee, Ph.D.

Mears, Michelle M.

Miller, Merle

Mumford, Lewis

Myers, Howard (Editor)

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)

Oberlander, H. Peter and Eva Newbrun

Orum, Anthony M.

Owens, James Mulkey

PBS&J

Pfeiffer, Bruce Brooks and Robert Wojtowicz

Pommer, Richard

Public Broadcasting Service

Pycior, Julie Leininger

Radford, Gail

Reed, William V. and Elizabeth Ogg

Rice, Bradley Robert

Riis, Jacob A.

Rivera, Jane H., and Gilberto C. Rivera

Robinson, Judith, Bobeczko, Laura, Lusignan, Paul, & Jeffrey Shrimpton

Rybczynski, Witold

Schwartz, Alex F.
Storrer, William Allin  

Straus, Nathan  
1952 Two-Thirds of a Nation: A Housing Program. New York: Alfred A. Knopf  
1944 The Seven Myths of Housing. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Straus Historical Society  

Taylor, Quintard  

Texas Historical Commission  

Tretter, Eliot M.  

Unger, Irwin and Debi Unger  

United States Housing Authority  

Vale, Lawrence J.  

Von Hoffman, Alexander  

Wilner, Daniel M., Rosabelle Price Walkley, and Stuart W. Cook  

Williamson, Roxanne  
2006 “Kuehne, Hugo Franz.” The Handbook of Texas Online.

Winston, Oliver C.  
1945 The Local Housing Authority and the Architect. Chicago: Public Administration Service.

Wood, Edith Elmer  


Woods, Randall  

Young, Whitney M., Jr.  
Newspapers:
The Austin Daily American
June 18, 1914

The Austin American
December 21, 22, 23, 1937
January 14, 15, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 1938
March 1, 2, 1939
August 31, 1949

The Austin Statesman
June 23, 1938
March 1, 1939

The Austin Sunday American-Statesman
March 20, 1938
June 25, 1939

The Dallas Morning News
Dec. 17, 1939

Archives:
Olivers C. Winston Papers, Division of Rare Books and Manuscripts, Cornell University
Photograph File, Lyndon B. Johnson Presidential Library and Museum
### Map Log:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Map Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.5' USGS Quadrangle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Historical Topographic Map of Project Site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sanborn Fire Insurance Map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>June 10, 1938 Survey Map showing property boundaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Travis Central Appraisal District Map for 2013 tax year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Location of Freedmen’s Communities in Austin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Poquito Creek and Emancipation Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>July 1934 Homeowners’ Loan Corporation Map for Austin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Map 2: December 19, 1938 Topographic Map of Phase 2, showing location of previous structures, Poquito Creek and proposed structures.
Map 4: June 10, 1938 Survey Map Showing Property Boundaries, Including Emancipation Park.
Map 5: Travis Central Appraisal District (TCAD) 2013 Map of Rosewood Courts.
Map 6: Location of Freedmen's Communities in Austin.
Map 7: Location of Poquito Creek and Emancipation Park
Map 8: July 1934 Homeowners' Loan Corporation Map for Austin
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Phase 1 finished plot plan with clothesline detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Phase 1 Floor Plan and Elevations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Charles C. Pinkney's Planting Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Austin American, Feb. 24, 1939 (Straus Visit)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Phase 2 Floor Plan (Building O)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Phase 2 Elevation Drawing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>&quot;Dedication Ceremony to Highlight Visit of U.S. Official&quot; Austin American, March 1, 1939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>German Planned Community Unit (Bad Durrenberg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The German Superblock in Practice—Siemensstadt near Berlin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Standardization of materials and plans at Weissenhof Siedlung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Annual Juneteenth Parade Route in Austin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Typical Wall Section (One Story Building)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Phase I Basement and Workshop Details</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Phase I Gutter Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Diamond Porch Trim/Trellis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Phase II Diamond Trim/Trellis Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Exterior Step Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Interior Door Frame Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Phase I Door Schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Phase II Door Schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Phase I Window Schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Fenestra Casement Window Ad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Phase I Bathroom and Linen Closet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Phase I Bedroom Closet Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Phase I Kitchen Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Shelf Mounting Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Play Lawn Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Clothes Line Pole Detail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Concrete Retaining Wall Detail</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1: Phase 1 Finished Plot Plan with Clothesline Detail.
Figure 2: Phase 1 Floor Plan and Elevations.

FIGURE Page 50
Figure 3: Charles C. Pinkney's Planting Plan.
Figure 4: "Negro Housing Project Tablet Placing Slated for Straus' Arrival." The Austin American, Friday February 24, 1939.
Figure 5: Phase 2 Floor Plan (Building O).
Figure 6: Phase 2 Elevation Drawing.
Figure 7: "Dedication Ceremony to Highlight Visit of U.S. Official.\" "To Speak Thrice.\" Austin American, Wednesday March 1, 1939.
Figure 8: Catherine Bauer’s description of the Planned Community Unit from page 163 of *Modern Housing.*
FOUR STAGES IN GERMAN BLOCK-PLANNING

I. is the typical 19th-century block, with rear buildings. II. shows smaller blocks with buildings all around the perimeter. III. has open-ended rows facing each other across traffic streets. IV. is a diagram of Zeilenbau, with the rows endward to the street and all facing in the same direction. From *Das Neue Frankfurt*.

THE GERMAN SUPER-BLOCK IN PRACTICE

A plan of the Siemenstadt development, near Berlin, which includes a large central park, a school and a central heating plant and laundry.

From *Berliner Wohnbauten*.

Figure 9: Siemenstadt near Berlin. Bauer, Modern Housing, page 179.
This apartment-house was designed by Miës Van der Rohe and built at Weissenhof, the Stuttgart exhibition housing development, in 1927. With a light steel frame, prefabricated partitions and standardized wall and window-units, there is a maximum of flexibility in interior plans. The basement shows the construction plan throughout, and the three living floors show flats designed for every size family but that statistical one of exactly 4-5 persons. On the top floor there are storage rooms, communal laundries and roof-gardens. (Drawings from L'Architecture Vivante, Summer, 1928.)

Figure 10: Standardization of materials and plans at Weissenhof Siedlung, Modern Housing, page 200.
Street closures for Juneteenth parade today

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full street closures</td>
<td>5 a.m. to 1 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8 a.m. to 1 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 a.m. to 10 p.m.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Parade start 10 a.m.

Source: City of Austin

Figure 11: Austin Juneteenth Parade Route along Rosewood Ave. and Rosewood Courts.
Figure 12: Phase One (One-Story) Building Typical Wall Section.
Figure 13: Phase One Basement and Workshop Details.

Figure 14: Phase One Gutter and Downspout Details.
Figure 15: Diamond Porch Support/Trellis Detail.
Figure 16: Diamond Porch Support/Trellis Detail, Phase II

Figure 17: Exterior Step Detail Showing Pipe Handrailing
Figure 18: Interior Door Frame Detail.
Figure 19: Phase I Door Schedule.
Figure 20: Phase II Door Schedule.

FIGURE  Page 66
FIGURE 21: Phase I Window Schedule
SCREENED FENWROUGHT CASEMENTS

Solid, rolled steel sections, 1" deep. Corners mitered and electrically butt-welded. Continuous, two-point, flat contact and double baffle weathering. Swing leaves hinged at the top or at the side to open out.

Installation is made easier by use of Fenestra Wood Surrounds supplied as specified for attachment to casements in a bed of mastic before erection in the opening. One dip coat of gray lead and oil paint is applied before shipment. Glass sizes are shown on Page 15. We recommend 1/2" or 3/4" plate set in bed putty and held by spring glazing clips supplied without extra cost. Only steel window putty should be used.

Frames are drilled at jambos near the head for attachment of standard shade and drapery brackets.

Fenestra Flat Screens with cold rolled and rust-proofed steel frames and 16 mesh oxidized bronze wire cloth, fit inside the casement and are held by clips. Easily removed (from inside only). Painted two coats of gray enamel, the first coat baked on. Rewirable.

Tiltin Windows, one-light high, opening in at the top are supplied in types and sizes suitable for attachment to the sills of Fenwrought types but may be used individually if desired. They act as baffles at the sill deflecting air currents upward. Can be left open even in rainy weather. Screened on the outside if specified.

STANDARD FENWROUGHT CASEMENTS

Standard Fenwrought Casements are exactly like Screened Fenwrought types in all respects except hinges, hardware and screens. Side hung leaves have heavy, cleaning friction hinges with oil-imregnated bronze bushing washers, bronze studs and nuts. By adjusting the nuts, friction may be increased or decreased. Top hung leaves have hardened steel hinges with bronze pins.

Solid rolled steel brackets are welded to each swing leaf, each bracket carrying a drawn steel deal on which the locking handle is mounted and firmly attached by a friction clasp, screw and lockwasher, to prevent rattle. The locking handles themselves are of rust-proofed iron—solid bronze if specified—and are flat in design so that the screen and the casement swing leaf may be closed simultaneously without interference.

Hinged Screens are set flat against the side of the casement and swing on brass top and bottom studs. Screen frames are cold rolled oxidized bronze wire. All screens removable. Rewirable. Rolling screens available if desired.

Figure 22: Fenestra Casement Window Description.
Figure 23: Phase I Bathroom and Linen Closet
Figure 24: Phase I Bedroom Closets.
Figure 25: Phase I Kitchen Detail.

Figure 26: Kitchen Wooden Shelving Detail
Figure 27: Phase I Recreation Area Detail.
Figure 28: Phase I Recreation Area Detail.
Figure 29: Concrete Retaining Wall Detail
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Photo Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Photographer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bronze Plaque at Rosewood Building A</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Austin Papers are Signed</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Photograph of Rosewood Dedication, (l to r., E.H. Perry, Nathan Straus, Tom Miller)</td>
<td>Unknown (public domain available at LBJ Library and Museum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Nathan Straus before joint session of the Texas legislature, Austin Statesman, March 2, 1939</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>USHA Senior Staffers</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Photo of Oliver C. Winston</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Photo of Rosewood during construction, 1939</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Photo of Rosewood in 1954</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1939 Aerial of Phase 1</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Rosewood Courts Under Construction</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Trees and Laundry at Rosewood, 1939</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Travis County Emancipation League Logo</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1909 Officers and Directors Photo</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Thomas White Photo</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Mattie B. White Photo</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Emancipation Park 1904</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Emancipation Park, 1900</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Emancipation Park, 1900</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Building A at Rosewood Courts</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Gas Water Heater Closets and Terracing</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Mature Oak Trees and Clotheslines</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Clotheslines and Courtyard near Poquito Creek</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Building Located atop Emancipation Park</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Aluminum City Terrace, New Kensington, PA</td>
<td>HAER No. PA-302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Rosewood Addition Plaque</td>
<td>McGhee, Fred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Photo of the Ku Klux Klan marching down Congress Ave.</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Photo of Hyde Park Advertisement, 1915</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Sewing Class at Rosewood Courts</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Photo 1: Bronze Plaque affixed to Building 1 by Nathan Straus on March 1, 1939.


Seated: Nathan Straus, USHA Administrator.
Photo 3: Dedication of Rosewood Courts "Negro Housing Project," March 1, 1939.
From Left: E.H. "Commodore" Perry, Nathan Straus, Austin Mayor Tom Miller.
Photo 4: "Nation's Housing Chief Talks to Solons."
Nathan Straus Briefs a Joint Session of the Texas Legislature
Austin American, Thursday March 2, 1939.

"Texas has been in the vanguard of this housing movement. It was right here in Austin that the first project is being completed; and the first family to move in a slum clearance project will be an Austin family."
PHOTO 80

To Administrator Nathan Straus the housing problem has been more than an avocation. To wit, President, Hillocks Housing Corporation; Member, New York City Housing Authority; in 1935 Mayor LaGuardia’s Special Commissioner to study housing in Europe. A Princeton graduate (cum laude), and one-time Heidelberg student, Mr. Straus’ 49 years have yielded titles which include: Commander-Escort, U. S. N.; Editor-Publisher, PUCK magazine; New York State Senator; President, Nathan Straus and Sons, Inc. (largest U. S. manufacturer of hotel and restaurant equipment).

Young Leon Keyserling, General Counsel, functions as Administrator when Mr. Strauss is away. Graduated from Harvard Law School in 1911, he is a close friend of Woodford Guy (Tugwell), then Senator Wagner’s one-time secretary.

Caroline Boyd, author of MODERN HOUSING, in Director of Research and Information, Women’s Department of Housing, she worked with Senator Wagner’s office on the preparation of the U. S. Housing Act.

Rest President of the American City Planning Institute in Jacob Crane, Director in the Housing Division, Associated with the U. S. Housing Corporation during the early years, he was a consultant for the FHA and Suburban Reorganization.

A. C. Shirk, Director of Technical Division, began his government housing career with the FHA. Graduate of Stevens Institute of Technology, he has also been a member of the FHA, and Technical Editor of THE ARCHITECTURAL FORUM.

Charles J. Maxey, Comptroller and Financial Officer. Transferred from his post as Director of Accounting for PWA, Mr. Maxey’s previous experience includes the reorganization of New York City’s Department of Finance.

Theodore Krum is Director of Press Relations, Member, Illinois State Bar Institute. Mr. Krum has served as City Editor for the CHICAGO JOURNAL, received Pulitzer Prize Honorable Mention in 1924 for covering Leeds-Jeopardy case.

Former Chief of Research for Suburban Reorganization, Warren Joe Vinton is Chief of Project Review, Wartime Scientific Attaché at the American Embassy in Paris, he has also acted as Research Supervisor for the FHA.

Boris Shikhlin, Consultant of Labor Policy, is a native Russian educated in England and Columbia University. He is Chief of the Research Branch, U. S. War Department, has served on NRA’s Labor Advisory Board.

30-year-old Negro, Howard, is Robert C. Weaver, Special Assistant on Racial Relations, famed from four years of similar service to the Department of the Interior, he formerly taught economics at North Carolina’s Agricultural and Technical College.

For forty years W. V. Price, Director of Labor Relations, has been affiliated with the AFL. Former Vice-President of the Broilermen’s International Union and is credited with the recent promotion of New York swimming membership he stabilizes wage rates on pending projects.

Industrial Engineer Thomas M. Hall in Executive Office. Recent includes an instructorship at Officers’ Training Academy and engineering work for the Du Pont Company. Prior to his present appointment, he was in TVA’s personnel department.

Partner in the New York building firm Bahr and Leech, Inc. is Charles E. Love, Special Commissioner to the Department of Housing, he includes supervision of the construction of several large buildings for the Chinese Government and four major units of New York City’s Rockefeller Center.

Photo 5: The initial senior staff of the United States Housing Authority. Leon Keyserling (General Counsel) authored the 1937 U.S. Housing Act along with Warren Vinton (a New Deal economist) and Coleman Woodbury, executive Director of the National Association of Housing Officials.

PHOTO Page 80
Planner and Architect, PWA Housing Division.
Architectural Planning Engineer, U.S. Housing Authority.
Co-Founder, National Association of Housing Officials.
Executive Director, Housing Authority of Baltimore City, 1947-1959.
Executive Director, Valley Development Foundation, Binghamton, NY.
Author of The Local Housing Authority and the Architect.
Lecturer in Housing, Johns Hopkins University.
Director, Office of Regional Planning and Development, Cornell University.
Photo 7: Phase One construction at Rosewood Courts from 1939. This is a higher resolution version of the upper portion of Photo 11. Classic International Style markers include: a. absence of ornamentation; b. a box shaped building; c. expansive windows (especially for Austin at that time); d. cantilevered building extensions. International Style wall surfaces were generally smooth, but brick was also used, of which Rosewood Courts is an outstanding example.
PHOTO 8: One Story Building at Rosewood Courts from 1954, showing original flat roofs, metal fascia and gutters, porch cantilevers, and supports with diamond detail.
Photo 9: 1939 Aerial Photograph of Rosewood (Phase 1). Southward view. Chicon Street is to the right.

Photo 10: Rosewood Courts Under Construction, 1939. The buildings in the background are on Chicon Street.
Photo 11: Trees and laundry were prime architectural goals.

Photo 12: Travis County Emancipation League Logo.
Photo 13: 1909 Photo of the Officers and Directors of the Travis County Emancipation League taken at Emancipation Park.

Photo 16: Photograph of Emancipation Park, 1904.

Photo 17: Juneteenth, 1900, Emancipation Park.
Photo 18: Emancipation Park, 1900.

Photo 18: Emancipation Park, 1900.

PHOTO Page 88
Photo 19: Building 1 (Formerly Building A) at Rosewood Courts, April 16, 2013
Location: 623178 m E, 3349187 m N, facing south. Bronze plaque at left.
Note the missing diamond partitions/trellises, gutter removal and the installation of cementitious trim and soffit, but the retention of the 2 ¼" pipe motif.

Photo 20: Water Heater Closets, Clotheslines, Terracing, and Retaining Walls, April 16, 2013
Location: 623210 m E, 3349213 m N, facing north.

PHOTO Page 89
Photo 21: Mature Oak Trees, Terraces, Clotheslines in Use, April 16, 2013
Location: 623229 m E, 3349238 m N, facing east.

Photo 22: Clotheslines and Courtyard Near Poquito Creek, April 16, 2013
Location: 623335 m E, 3349343 m N, facing northwest.
Photo 23: Phase 2 Building Located Atop Emancipation Park and Adjacent to Poquito Creek, with Heritage Tree, April 16, 2013
Location: 623555 m E, 3349310 m N, facing south.

Photo 24: Aluminum City Terrace, New Kensington, Pennsylvania.
Photo 25: Rosewood Addition Plaque.
Photo 26: The Ku Klux Klan marches down Congress Avenue, date and time unknown. Judging by the vehicles and buildings in the photo, this picture was taken in the late 1910’s or early 1920’s.

Photo 27: “Hyde Park is Exclusively for White People.”
Austin Daily Statesman, Circa 1915.
Through the cooperation of the Austin Public Schools a home counselor has been placed in each of the projects to work with the residents and the surrounding community. The program is wide in its scope and flexible to assist the family in personal problems as well as group instruction in cooking, sewing, family relationship and home management. Housewives are trained to buy economically and how to preserve foods. This program is essential as many of the residents have never received fundamental educational training.

Photo 28: Sewing Class at Rosewood Courts sponsored by the segregated Austin Schools District.