PREFACE FOR:
The City of Tulsa, Oklahoma

PREFEBED BY:
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AND
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ABSTRACT

This report presents the findings of the intensive level survey of Tulsa’s downtown buildings, sites, structures and objects within the Inner Dispersal Loop (IDL).\(^1\) The survey was undertaken by Cathy Ambler, Principal Investigator, Tulsa, and Elizabeth Rosin and staff of Rosin Preservation, Kansas City, Missouri. The survey, conducted between January and July 2009, expanded upon the reconnaissance survey completed during the summer of 2008. This report provides an analysis of the findings and describes the resources that have the potential to be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places, either individually or as contributing resources within a historic district. The survey inventoried 554 buildings, 363 sites, six structures, and one object. Of these resources, twenty-seven are presently listed in the National Register.\(^2\) Eighty-eight individual resources appear potentially eligible for individual listing in the National Register. The survey area includes fourteen potential historic districts\(^3\), containing a total of 142 contributing resources and seventy-six non-contributing resources. Thirty-three resources have strong associations with Tulsa’s Urban Renewal program. Finally, the survey identified 298 buildings, structures and sites that do not appear eligible for register listing due to their age (less than fifty years old) or because they lack integrity. The inventory also included 353 parking lots and vacant lots. The report identifies the historic contexts used for determining eligibility and connects existing resources that share historical themes, time frames, and geographical areas.

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\(^1\) The IDL is a ring of major highways which geographically bound downtown Tulsa.

\(^2\) The National Register includes twenty-four properties in downtown Tulsa. Because the Holy Family Cathedral is composed of three buildings and the Vickery Phillips 66 Station is composed of two buildings the survey tally indicated twenty-seven listed resources.

\(^3\) The count of historic districts assumes that only one Downtown Commercial Historic District would be nominated. This report presents two options for that district. The count of contributing and non-contributing buildings similarly assumes that a nomination would be for the largest and most inclusive of those districts.
INTRODUCTION

Tulsa’s downtown, the area bounded by the Inner-Dispersal Loop (IDL), was first surveyed in 1978, more than thirty years ago. Fewer than half of the current twenty-seven National Register resources within the IDL were listed as a result of this survey. It is appropriate to resurvey the area at this time to document the intervening changes as resources have been demolished, constructed, modified or rehabilitated and to examine the significance of resources that were too new to evaluate adequately in 1978. Many post-World War II buildings have now reached fifty years of age and may be eligible for the National Register. Architects embraced modern and international styles after the war and these styles flourished in new construction, during urban renewal, and when oil companies sought contemporary images for their office buildings.

Urban renewal played a particularly significant role in Tulsa’s architectural history, and is defined here as the period from 1960 to 1974. Tulsa leaders used this federal program, generally with success, to change the built environment of the downtown. While residents today express remorse at the extensive demolition of both residential and commercial buildings that resulted from Urban Renewal, a significant number of buildings erected through this program deserve recognition for their architecture. These buildings also testify to the efforts of local city leaders and business owners who believed a new city image would keep the business core viable.

Since the 1978 downtown survey, new areas of significance and additional properties have become eligible for National Register consideration. The updated intensive level survey will help

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4 Three were listed prior to 1978, three in the 1980s, and six since 1999. In 2001, a limited survey of the East Village area was completed, but no nominations were written as a direct result.

5 For the purposes of this survey, 1974 was chosen as the end date for the early period of Urban Renewal because the method of funding changed, moving from direct federal assistance to Community Development Block Grants. The Urban Renewal program actually lasted far into the 1980s, but for this report, the change in how funds were allotted provided a reasonable end date.
the Tulsa preservation planning staff update their comprehensive preservation plan. The 2009 survey is also significant to the owners of resources within the IDL because it identifies buildings that have the potential to redeem state and federal tax credits when rehabilitated. The city has seen numerous historic tax credit projects over the last few years, and owners and investors are beginning to appreciate the historic resources that make this funding strategy possible. Rehabilitation efforts in Tulsa have already created new lofts, hotels and business spaces.

The survey should aid those interested in promoting heritage tourism. For example, Tulsa’s Art Deco buildings are nationally recognized and were the center of attention when the National Trust for Historic Preservation held their annual conference in Tulsa in October 2008. Conference attendees also expressed great interest in the Modern Movement buildings erected throughout Tulsa after World War II. Tulsa’s industrial past, particularly its lengthy history in oil-related industries and production, could also be more widely promoted. Tulsa called itself the “oil capital of the world,” and a large number of buildings associated with this period in the community’s history survive. In our current era of uniformity, mass production and globalization, the uniqueness of the city’s past can appeal to heritage tourists seeking authentic experiences if Tulsa can preserve its local identity.

This report, through the historic contexts it presents, connects downtown Tulsa’s built environment to the city’s past. More specifically, it establishes relationships between resources that share historical themes, time frames, and geographic areas. Some resources, however, are at risk as demolition continues to threaten not only older buildings but Tulsa’s mid-twentieth century Modern Movement buildings, many of which are highly significant works of architecture. Revitalization will be successful if the community embraces and celebrates the architectural past of downtown Tulsa as a record of the community’s shared history.
RESEARCH DESIGN

The project began with a meeting between the consultants and the City of Tulsa Preservation Planning staff to review the scope of work, timelines and deliverables, and to receive inventory materials collected by Anne R. Crotty and Lindsay G. Johnson, students in the University of Georgia’s historic preservation program, during the summer of 2008. The 2009 intensive level survey is somewhat unusual in its inception because it is a follow-up to the students’ work. The Microsoft Access database they developed was carefully reviewed for missing resources and photographs as well as additional information needed to complete the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office (OKSHPO) survey forms.

Historical research is critical to understanding Tulsa’s history as it relates to the downtown and the evolution of its built environment. Primary and secondary resources provided a wealth of background information about buildings, people, and developments within Tulsa which created the urban core that exists in 2009. As is frequently the case, materials on the recent past are rarely abundant, so personal interviews were helpful. Field survey, which confirmed or corrected information in the 2008 database, also confirmed social, economic and architectural patterns within the survey area.

Following the lead of the 2008 survey, the consultants proposed using city parcel numbers in place of legal descriptions to better sync the results with the city’s GIS system. However, parcel numbers are generally associated with one property owner, and a single parcel may include multiple buildings. While the 2008 survey generally only documented one building in these circumstances, the 2009 survey included all buildings, which consequently expanded the number of resources.
Archival research, using primary and secondary sources, developed a historic context for the survey area and helped to establish dates of construction for individual properties. Research occurred concurrently with the field survey and data review. This approach allowed the team to merge the field and research data to create a strong and understandable relationship between the effects of Tulsa’s history and its built environment.

The team updated the database with dates of construction for all resources. Sources from the Tulsa Historical Society, libraries and the Tulsa Foundation for Architecture were first consulted to determine dates of construction. Dates were also found in the tax assessor records. Where possible, dates were gleaned from Sanborn Fire Insurance maps and city directories. If unknown, construction dates were estimated based on building style.

The survey area includes a number of architecturally significant buildings dating from the mid-twentieth century. Some of these are outstanding representatives of Modern Movement architectural styles; others are exceptionally important for their associations with the city’s period of building linked to Urban Renewal. Exceptional importance does not require that the property be of national significance. It is a measure of a property's importance within the appropriate historic context, whether the scale of that context is local, state, or national.6 Several of these properties currently face demolition threats from under-utilization.

When evaluating the architectural integrity and potential register eligibility of individual resources, the consultants employed a “glass half-full” approach. The consultants considered the reversibility of alterations as well as the quantity of alterations. The goal was to give as many

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buildings as possible the opportunity to access state and federal historic tax credits to help fund rehabilitation and adaptive-reuse, either as individually-eligible resources or as contributing resources to a historic district.

PROJECT OBJECTIVES

1. To identify, record, photograph, and evaluate through intensive level architectural/historic survey those individual properties and potential districts in the project area that, on the basis of age and integrity, meet the eligibility criteria for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, and to substantiate such assessments.

2. To identify and characterize those portions of the project area which, on the basis of insufficient age or integrity, warrant no further study to exclude them from consideration for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places and to substantiate such assessments.

3. To identify and annotate all reference material necessary for completing National Register nominations of properties and districts located in the study area.

PROJECT AREA

PHYSICAL LIMITS OF THE STUDY AREA

The study area includes all of the historic resources circumscribed by the IDL. These roads include I-444/US75 on the east; I-244/US412 on the north; I-244/I-64/OK51 on the west; and I-64/US 75/OK51 on the south. This area contains 569 resources (buildings, sites, structures and objects) and 353 vacant parcels.
The IDL creates a barrier which has compartmentalized the area within it; logical or not, it has become a *de facto* boundary defining the city’s downtown core.

**Figure 1: Limits of Survey Area**

**CHRONOLOGICAL LIMITS OF THE STUDY AREA**

The period of significance for the Downtown Tulsa Intensive-Level Historic Resources Survey (Downtown Tulsa Survey) begins in 1905, with construction of the earliest extant building, and ends in 1974. This range of years extends beyond the standard fifty-year period for National Register eligibility because of the large number of significant properties in the survey area constructed after World War II. Much of Tulsa’s downtown was rebuilt during the era of Urban Renewal, and the period of significance for the Urban Renewal program ends in 1974 when the...
federal government ended Urban Renewal funding and began issuing Community Development
Block grants. The period of significance for some proposed historic districts extends even further
beyond this date if the district includes buildings associated with Urban Renewal-funded projects
that were completed after 1974. All properties associated with Urban Renewal that are less than
fifty years of age have the potential to be recognized for significance under Criteria Consideration
G.
METHODOLOGY

DATA ENTRY

Resources from the 2008 survey were checked against a March 2009 aerial photograph. Field data and photographs were matched to the aerial photograph’s building inventory and each resource was marked on the aerial map. Google Earth street views and Bing bird’s eye view maps also helped correct mismatched addresses and buildings. A new inventory sheet was created for those resources that were not included in the 2008 inventory. Properties with inadequate photographs were taken anew, and photographs were taken for resources newly added to the database. The following methodology was created for interpreting and supplementing the 2008 data.

2008 RECORDS

- Records were initially created using an existing parcel number attached to a single specific address
- However, some parcel numbers include more than one building OR
- Existing buildings did not have parcel numbers
- If buildings incorporated more than one address, the full range of addresses was entered in the “Address” field, but only the lowest number was entered in the “House Number” field

CREATING NEW RECORDS

- If a new record had to be created, a fake 14-digit parcel number was assigned
- New parcel numbers begin with 99999999999900, 99999999999901, etc.
- Addresses were determined using signage on the building or Google.com
- If new records were created for multiple buildings associated with a single parcel number, the record for the address originally associated with that parcel number was kept and new (fake) parcel number(s) were created for the other addresses associated with the parcel

7 The 2008 survey did not record buildings that were obviously outside the fifty-year age requirement for the National Register of Historic Places, multiple buildings on a single site, or buildings without city parcel numbers.
• Information was not entered into the newly created records for the fields of “Zoned,” “Area,” and “Appraised (2008)”
• If a single building incorporated more than one address, the full range of addresses was entered in the “Address” field, but only the lowest number was entered in the “House Number” field. Large buildings commonly have multiple addresses.
• Records were created for landscaped plazas and parks – these addresses were assigned based on logical sequence if no formal address was found.
• New Records were created for properties that include multiple distinct buildings at one address (e.g. Holy Family Church or Baptist Church complexes) – Building 1, Building 2, etc.

OVERLAPPING RECORDS
• In a few cases there are multiple parcel numbers associated with a single building (e.g. 1121, 1123, 1125 S. Detroit)
• A record with a true parcel number was not deleted
• Explanation of the overlap is indicated in the “Physical Description” and “Desc. of Significance” fields

ENTRIES FOR NON-BUILDINGS
• Lots that included landscaped plazas, parks or parking structures were surveyed and photographed
• Landscaped plazas and parks were identified as “Site”
• Parking structures (garages and covers) were identified as “Building,” per National Register guidelines
• Surface parking lots and vacant lots were identified as “Site”
• Surface parking lots and vacant lots were not photographed

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8 Ibid.
DATA FROM 1978 SURVEY

- Any information of value (beyond what was already entered in the 2008 survey) was added to the “Desc of Significance” field
- If the building still exists, information such as “Year Built,” “Architect,” or “Number of Stories” was added to the appropriate fields
- If the building no longer exists, information was added to the record for the parcel on which the building once stood and information was added to “Desc of Significance” field only. This approach was followed even if the building had occupied a small parcel that was later incorporated into a larger parcel
- Any information added to the database from the 1978 survey is followed by “[1978 TULSA HISTORIC PRESERVATION SURVEY]”
- If a building no longer exists, it was indicated as “DEMOLISHED” in “Physical Description,” and “Desc of Significance” fields

DELETING RECORDS

- No records associated with true parcel numbers were deleted

CODED FIELDS

- The following fields in the database are coded in accordance with the “Historic Preservation Resource Identification Code Sheet” in the Architectural/Historic Resource Survey: A Field Guide produced by the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office:
  - County Code
  - Resource Type
  - Function: Historic and Current
  - Area of Significance (Primary and Secondary)
  - Architectural Style
  - Material: Foundation, Wall (Primary and Secondary), Window, Door
  - Condition

ARCHITECTURAL STYLE

- The database includes an approved list of architectural styles that reflects the “Historic Preservation Resource Identification Code Sheet” in the Architectural/Historic Resource Survey
Survey: A Field Guide produced by the Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office. This list in turn was drawn from the list of architectural styles and subcategories presented in National Register Bulletin 16.

- The 2008 database further subdivided the MODERN MOVEMENT/Art Deco classification into Art Deco: PWA, Art Deco: Streamline, and Art Deco: ZigZag, even though all are coded as Art Deco. This subdivision was left intact.

PHOTOGRAPHS

- Four additional fields were added to the database to accommodate resource photographs. Each field lists one photograph.
- The photographs listed in the database are only those that are useful in understanding the property. These do not include every photograph taken in 2008 and 2009.
- All of the photographs listed on the survey sheet and in the database were printed.
- Photographs were named using the full address followed by the elevation or view.
- If there are multiple photos of a specific elevation, the name is followed by a number.
- Photographs from the 2008 survey were used whenever possible.
- Any photographs taken in 2009 are named the same way followed by “RP09”
  - 124 N. Boston east elevation
  - 124 N. Boston south elevation 01
  - 124 N. Boston south elevation 02
  - 124 N. Boston east elevation RP09

HISTORICAL RESEARCH

Research included review of existing National Register nominations for properties within the IDL, the Oklahoma Landmarks Inventory of Tulsa properties, the Oklahoma SHPO’s list of previously determined properties eligible for National Register listing, local library clipping files, primary and secondary resources, and maps. Materials on the history of Tulsa’s downtown were gathered at the Tulsa City/County Library and at the McFarlin Library at the University of Tulsa. Both libraries have pertinent primary resources in their general collections. The Tulsa library has an excellent set of vertical files, mostly newspaper clippings, on multiple aspects of Tulsa history, and a complete set of Polk Tulsa City Directories. Existing written materials about downtown...
Tulsa are found in National Register nominations and in numerous Tulsa books, which include general histories as well as other written histories on topics ranging from churches to the 1921 race riot. Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps for Tulsa are available on-line through the Tulsa City/County Library. Other internet resources consulted included volumes of Chronicles of Oklahoma, topographic maps, railroad histories and maps, and other resources referencing Tulsa. The Oklahoma Encyclopedia of History and Culture is also available on the internet and provides background materials for aspects of Tulsa’s history.

DETERMINING NATIONAL REGISTER ELIGIBILITY

Ambler and Rosin conducted two rounds of field work to evaluate the National Register eligibility of every property in the survey area. The National Register requirements for eligibility most often used are: that the resource must be fifty years old; that the resource retains architectural integrity; and that it meets one (or more) of the four criteria against which resources are evaluated for their historical significance. Two criteria are particularly relevant to this survey: Criterion A for properties associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history; and Criterion C for resources that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction. Criteria Consideration G was also applied to resources that have achieved significance within the last fifty years.

The first round of field work, at the start of the project, generated a preliminary evaluation of integrity for every resource and delineated preliminary boundaries for potential historic districts. At the end of the project, following the completion of historical research, data entry and preparation of historic contexts, Ambler and Rosin conducted a second round of field inspection,
at which time the eligibility of each resource was reevaluated and the boundaries for possible historic districts were refined. This information was coalesced into the findings and recommendations of this report.
SURVEY RESULTS

LOCATION AND SETTING

The Downtown Tulsa Survey examined 924 properties located in the downtown core of Tulsa. The IDL bounds the survey area on all sides. Of the 924 resources surveyed, there are 554 buildings, six structures, one object, and 363 sites, 353 of which are parking lots or vacant lots. The resources illustrate the array of commercial, residential, religious, and recreational property types and architectural styles constructed in Tulsa’s downtown core over a 104-year period, beginning in 1905 and ending in 2009. Variations in the character and types of resources present provide information about the historic patterns of development that occurred in Tulsa.

The Frisco line was the first railroad to arrive in the young town in 1882. Its tracks run east-west through the city and divide the downtown into two distinct areas: the Brady area to the north and the central business district to the south. Although the tracks laid a path askew from the true east-west line, the orthogonal grid of streets that now define downtown Tulsa is aligned with this important railroad artery. Main Street runs perpendicular to the tracks and was the original central north-south axis of the downtown. Avenues parallel Main Street to the north and south of the Frisco tracks. These roads are named for state capitals and arranged in alphabetical order radiating east and west from this center line. The streets that parallel the tracks are numbered to the south and named (ordered alphabetically) to the north.

The highly organized grid of streets breaks down slightly as it nears the IDL. To the south and east of downtown, Tulsa streets follow an orthogonal grid aligned with true north. These two grid patterns intersect at the edge of the downtown (in the survey area), where streets meet at acute
angles and irregularly-shaped lots are formed. The construction of entrance and exit ramps for the IDL also altered the layout of certain streets.

The survey area is divided into several different neighborhoods, each with its own distinct character and predominant property type. Old and new commercial buildings dominate the landscape of downtown Tulsa. There are a few small residential areas, mainly along the southern edge of the survey area. The Brady area north of the railroad tracks retains many of the small, commercial buildings and large industrial complexes constructed early in the history of the city. The East Village, south of the railroad tracks and east of South Cincinnati Avenue, also retains early-twentieth century commercial and industrial buildings, although it also contains open space composed of vacant and parking lots. Much of this open space was originally occupied by railroad tracks, spurs, and sidings.

The central business district is the dense urban core with the most variety of building heights and architectural styles. The most common building types are early-twentieth century commercial buildings, Art Deco skyscrapers constructed at the height of the oil-industry boom, and mid-century Modern Movement office towers, many of which were funded at least in part with Urban Renewal monies. West of the central business district, the Civic Center contains buildings that are larger in height and/or footprint. Many of the remaining buildings were constructed in the last quarter of the twentieth century or later. The Cathedral Square area, south of the central business district, contains several grand churches with their accompanying educational and support facilities. The Gunboat neighborhood tucked into the southeast corner of the survey area is the only predominantly residential area left within the IDL, with the majority of resources being either single-family or multi-family residences. Nearby is a concentration of small commercial buildings, auto-related concerns and metal warehouses.
HISTORIC PROPERTY TYPES

To assist in understanding the historic property types found in downtown Tulsa, Ambler and Rosin identified the surveyed properties based on their original function as well as their architectural style and/or vernacular building form/type. A property type is a set of individual properties that share physical or associative characteristics. Property types link the ideas incorporated in the historic contexts with actual historic properties that illustrate those ideas. By examining resources according to (1) original function and (2) architectural style, the analysis addressed both shared functional characteristics as well as physical (architectural style/building form/type) characteristics.

Figure 2: ORIGINAL FUNCTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUNCTION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COMMERCIAL</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESIDENTIAL: SINGLE-FAMILY, MULTI-FAMILY,</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AND HOTELS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDUSTRY/PROCESSION/EXTRACTION</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANSPORTATION</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELIGIOUS</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOVERNMENT</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANDSCAPED SITES: PARKS AND PLAZAS</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEALTH CARE</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECREATIONAL</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCIAL</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORK IN PROGRESS</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>571</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Drawn from the National Register subcategories for function and use, Ambler and Rosin identified different categories of historic building functions for the surveyed properties. While the functions of some buildings have changed from their original use, this analysis was based on the original building function. As the survey area incorporates a large portion of a major city that has grown and evolved over time, the variety of functional property types is extensive but not
unexpected. The majority of resources are commercial buildings, followed by residential and manufacturing buildings. There are also several examples of religious, social, government, recreational, and institutional buildings throughout the survey area. There is architectural diversity within each of these functional categories, reflecting the span of construction from circa 1905 to 2009. Figure 2 shows the distribution of buildings by property types.

**COMMERCIAL BUILDINGS**

Comprising 61 percent of the resources in the survey area, commercial buildings dominate the streetscapes of downtown Tulsa. The 350 commercial buildings in the downtown exhibit a wide variety of building forms, from the one-story retail concern with a single storefront to a fifty-story office tower. These buildings housed just about every possible type of commercial endeavor required by a city’s residents. The construction of specific property types parallels the major milestones in Tulsa’s history: the arrival of the railroad, the oil industry boom, and the popularity of Urban Renewal. The three main sub-types of commercial buildings in the survey area are one- and two-part commercial blocks, the tall office building, and the warehouse.

The majority of small commercial buildings disbursed throughout the survey area have retail sales or service functions that are typical of business districts throughout the country. They are business houses designed for small operations providing financial, legal, and other professional services or wholesale or retail sales involving the receipt and distribution of goods. Usually sited on one or two lots, the older commercial buildings have rectangular plans with the short side facing the street. Newer, mid- to late-twentieth century buildings often sit with their long side facing the street. The two-story designs incorporate public spaces on the first floor and office, residential, meeting, storage, or light industrial spaces on the upper floors.
A defining feature of the early, taller commercial property types is a well-defined ground floor “storefront” that distinctly separates it from the upper stories and reflects a difference in public and private uses. Storefronts housed retail or wholesale vending, public entry, showroom, or office spaces. Early-twentieth century commercial office buildings often have elaborate decorative ornament and a stepped profile in accordance with zoning regulations for tall buildings. The mid- to late-twentieth century office buildings retained the more-public ground floor for lobby and leased retail space, but lost the stepped profile in favor of the sleek, unbroken line of the glass and steel office tower. The tall commercial buildings often housed the headquarters for large oil companies, offices for financial institutions, and leased space for smaller professional businesses.

With one-hundred warehouses identified in the survey area, the property type varies greatly in size and construction. Older warehouses are located in close proximity to the railroad. They are often rectangular buildings of masonry or metal-frame construction with flat or barrel roofs. The warehouses constructed in the first half of the twentieth century are similar to retail commercial buildings in decorative details and in the use of a stepped parapet. Warehouses constructed within the second half of the twentieth century are predominantly metal shed structures with flat or gable roofs. These buildings have little or no decorative detail.

Stylistic treatments for the commercial properties in the survey area reflect architectural styles popular in the era in which they were built. They typically have either a flat or barrel roof. Depending on the date of construction, structural elements include load-bearing brick walls, concrete block, or steel members. Similarly, storefronts incorporate combinations of brick, glass, stone veneer and wood.
RESIDENTIAL BUILDINGS

The seventy residential resources account for only 7 percent of the resources in the survey area with nearly equal numbers of Single-Family and Multi-Family properties. These structures express a limited range of building forms and architectural styles. Although most of the residential areas of Tulsa are now located outside of the IDL, a few small pockets of residences survive scattered around the southern tier of the survey area. Their presence is often a defining characteristic of their neighborhood. Most of the twelve high-style hotel buildings are located in the central business district.

Single-Family Residences

Single-family dwellings were the dominant residential property type surveyed, although there were only thirty-one identified within the survey area. Their significance derives from the information they impart about the distribution and appearance of single-family dwellings erected in this community and their proximity to the central business district. With the exception of one dwelling that was constructed in 2007, all of the single-family residences were constructed between 1909 and 1930.

This property sub-type illustrates a variety of architectural styles that were popular during the era of their construction. All are detached dwellings; most are located on irregular lots due to the curved layout of the streets found, for example, in the Gunboat neighborhood. The width of street frontage varies somewhat depending on the lot. In general, the surveyed single-family residences are one- or two-story wood frame buildings constructed with masonry foundations, masonry, wood, stucco, or synthetic wall cladding, and asphalt shingle gable or hip roofs. Most buildings constructed as single-family residences remained so at the time of the survey, although some were converted to multi-family residences or businesses.
Multi-Family Residences

The survey area includes twenty-seven multi-family properties. Most are apartment buildings that contain more than two residential units. Several three-story, six-unit apartment buildings are mixed in with the single-family residences in the southeast corner of the survey area. The multi-unit apartment buildings are scattered around the periphery of the central business district.

Mixed-use commercial and residential buildings are concentrated north of the railroad tracks in the Brady neighborhood. They often date from the early part of the twentieth century and are similar in form and architectural style to the commercial buildings of contemporary construction. By the very nature of their commercial styling, these buildings are distinctly more urban in character than the other residential property types in the survey area. Finally, the survey area includes several high-density, modern apartment complexes and high-rise apartment towers constructed in the second half of the twentieth century. Most of the multi-family residential buildings are reinforced concrete or steel frame construction and have flat roofs.

Hotels

Twelve buildings in the survey area were originally designed as hotels. Seven were constructed between 1909 and 1930, while the remaining five were constructed between 1961 and 1976. Hotels, particularly those located in the dense urban area, often illustrate popular high-style architectural design trends. While all of the surveyed hotels are either reinforced concrete or metal/steel frame construction with flat roofs, the earlier hotels are clad in brick with stone trim and later hotels are clad in concrete, metal, and glass. Hotels are typically taller than the early-twentieth century commercial buildings around them. The one hotel located outside of the central business district is in the Brady area. It occupied the two upper stories of a brick commercial building with multiple storefronts on the ground floor.
INDUSTRY/PROCESSING/EXTRACTION RESOURCES

The majority of industrial, processing, and manufacturing facilities surveyed are concentrated in the Brady and East Village areas closest to the railroad tracks. Of the thirty-seven industrial resources identified in the survey area, thirty resources were constructed before 1950, some as early as 1915. Six of the remaining resources were constructed between 1960 and 1979, and one resource was constructed in 2001. Industrial resources vary in size and shape, from single-lot masonry buildings that blend in with the commercial buildings around them to large complexes that occupy entire city blocks. The small, individual manufacturing buildings closely resemble their commercial neighbors in size, style, and construction, except that they do not have a formal storefront. Larger industrial complexes contain multiple buildings and open space for parking and/or storage. Within a complex, age and construction materials often vary from building to building. Complexes contain masonry manufacturing facilities and metal warehouses. The larger industrial complexes often have a fence around the perimeter of the property.

TRANSPORTATION-RELATED RESOURCES

There are three distinct types of transportation resources: rail-related, road-related, and parking garages.

Railroad-Related Resources

Each of the four remaining railroad depots differs from the others. They ranged from the high-style Art Deco passenger depot to a plain brick freight depot. These two buildings sit adjacent to existing railroad tracks, while the tracks associated with the other freight and passenger depots were removed decades ago.
Three extant railroad bridges cross North Denver Avenue. Only the southernmost bridge for the Frisco line remains in use. Concrete posts support a concrete deck filled with gravel. The concrete bridge constructed for a spur of the Frisco had a wood deck that is not extant. The metal bridge with the wood deck constructed for the KATY line is extant, although the tracks leading to and from this bridge are gone.

**Road-Related Resources**

The road-related resources include four former filling stations and two bus transfer stations. The filling stations are small, masonry-clad buildings set back from the street. These buildings include a small storefront office and a service area with a vehicular entrance. This property subtype illustrates a variety of architectural styles that were popular during the era of their construction. The Tudor Revival Vickery Phillips 66 station and garage are excellent examples of the domestic style filling station popular in the late 1920s and early 1930s. The Blue Dome filling station and garage exhibits the unique application of the sparse Art Deco style commonly associated with the public works programs of the New Deal. The other two filling stations exhibit styles similar to the surrounding commercial buildings, including the streamlined details of the Moderne style. All of these buildings are located on the periphery of the central business district and are no longer in operation as filling stations.

The Greyhound Bus Station at 317 South Detroit Avenue also shares the form of nearby one-story commercial buildings. The long canopy that extends from the building to shelter passengers and the stucco siding give the building its Streamlined Moderne character. The building was constructed as a warehouse circa 1925 and was converted to a bus station around 1962. The Metropolitan Tulsa Transit Station, constructed in 1999, is a contemporary interpretation of this functional form and style.
The survey identified twenty-one parking garages scattered around the downtown. Most of these garages are multi-story reinforced concrete buildings with little or no decorative detail. They often occupy large lots or entire city blocks. Smaller parking structures include large metal canopies that cover several cars at once.

**Religious Resources**

Most of the twenty-one religious buildings within the survey area are concentrated in the southern portion of downtown Tulsa. This area is aptly named Cathedral Square. All of the formal churches were constructed between 1912 and 1929 and are high-style examples of ecclesiastical architecture with all of the requisite ornamental detail and stylistic features. Their formal styles include Greek Revival, Classical Revival, Gothic Revival, and Art Deco. Several buildings together form the religious complexes that often occupy an entire city block, although the church itself takes up only a portion of the block. The complexes include secondary buildings, such as schools, rectories, and chapels, all built between the 1920s and the first decade of the twenty-first century. The churches are load-bearing masonry, reinforced concrete, or metal/steel frame construction clad in brick or limestone.

The adjoining secondary buildings are either designed in a simplified version of the style employed for the church or they are more modern and visually distinct from the church. They have a concrete or steel frame typically clad in brick or concrete.

In addition to eight church complexes, there are four missionary facilities scattered around the periphery of the survey area. Constructed in the last quarter of the twentieth century, these are one-story, generic buildings that do not exhibit any distinctive style.
GOVERNMENT RESOURCES

The survey area identified twenty-one resources as the governmental, municipal, and public service facilities necessary for the operation of a large city that is also a county seat.

The formally-designed Civic Center occupies ten city blocks west of the central business district. The complex is an excellent example of mid-century Modern Movement architecture and city planning. The height, footprint, and cladding material vary greatly among these eight buildings. While some of the buildings are low, one- and two-story buildings with wide overhanging eaves and sleek, Modern posts, other buildings are high-rise towers with exterior vertical elements that emphasize their height. Most of the buildings are either reinforced concrete or steel frame construction. Curtain wall cladding is typically glass, metal panels, or concrete panels.

The survey area also includes two state government office buildings that were constructed during Urban Renewal. While these buildings are not part of the Civic Center, they are similar in function and share similar design traits with the Civic Center government buildings.

Public service companies that built their headquarters in downtown Tulsa during the second quarter of the twentieth century employed the popular Art Deco style for their tall office buildings. The buildings are either reinforced concrete or steel frame construction clad in concrete or stone with high-style exterior decorative ornament. Many of these buildings are now privately owned.

Other governmental resources include fire stations, an electrical substation, the county sheriff’s office, and the county jail. These low, utilitarian buildings of concrete or steel construction, often clad in concrete or synthetic material, do not exhibit any formal style.
OTHER PROPERTY TYPES

Health Care, Education, Recreation, and Social Resources

The survey identified nine health care resources, including one hospital complex; six educational resources, including two high school buildings, three college buildings, and a library; six recreational resources, including one theater, one auditorium, one music facility, one outdoor recreation facility (a ballpark), a Y.M.C.A. and one monument; and five social resources, including two meeting halls. Because the survey included so few examples of these property types, it is not possible to define property type characteristics for these buildings. However, it is worth noting that all have exterior architectural treatments that reflect conscious design choices specific to their functions and periods of construction. The theater, schools, and hospital are high visibility properties with high-style exteriors.

Landscaped Sites

Open space is a significant part of the urban landscape in the survey area. Patches of greenery on small lots tucked in among the buildings offer a contrast to the hard lines of concrete, glass, and steel. The survey inventoried five plazas associated with Urban Renewal designs. The plazas are often found adjacent to or among other Urban Renewal resources. Features of these formal landscapes include concrete pavers and planters; grass, ground cover, shrubs, and trees; and public art, typically bronze sculpture. The four parks scattered around the survey area are landscaped with grass, shrubs, and mature trees, but in a less formal manner.

Parking Lots and Vacant Lots

The survey identified 353 resources that are either vacant lots or used as surface parking. The majority of the parking lots are south and east of the dense central business district, particularly
surrounding the churches of Cathedral Square. Most of the vacant lots are concentrated in the
East Village and Brady areas, particularly in areas where the railroad used to cut through the city.

ARCHITECTURAL STYLES AND BUILDING FORMS

Classifications based on shared physical attributes include categorization by architectural styles
and/or vernacular building forms. The architectural styles and vernacular forms identified in the
survey area and assigned to the properties follow the terminology and classifications accepted by
the National Register of Historic Places program and as presented in the Oklahoma Historic
Properties Survey Form database template. This hierarchy and nomenclature relies heavily on the
forms and styles discussed for commercial buildings in *The Buildings of Main Street: A Guide to
American Commercial Architecture* by Richard Longstreth and *A Field Guide to American
Architecture* by Carole Rifkind; and for residential buildings in *A Field Guide to American
Houses* by Virginia and Lee McAlester. *A Field Guide to American Houses* includes common
vernacular forms of architecture adapted throughout the country under the category of “National
Folk Houses.”9 Longstreth classifies commercial buildings by building function and form, such
as the “one-part commercial block.” Such terminology is often combined with the building’s
style (i.e., “Italianate one-part commercial block”).

The 554 buildings surveyed include 336 that represent a formal architectural style and 218 that
have no discernable style. Figures 3 and 4 show the distribution of properties by building form
and architectural style.

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9 The term vernacular is used in its broadest application and refers to common local and/or regional
building forms and the use of materials specific to a particular period.
**Figure 3: BUILDING FORMS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STYLE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WAREHOUSE/LIGHT INDUSTRIAL</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ONE-PART COMMERCIAL BLOCK</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWO-PART COMMERCIAL BLOCK</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREE-STANDING COMMERCIAL BLOCK</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREE-STANDING TOWER</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THREE-PART VERTICAL BLOCK</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TWO-PART VERTICAL BLOCK</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREE-STANDING TOWER</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPLE FRONT</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARCADE FRONT</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>387</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 Analysis includes only resources identified as “Building” resource type and as having a historic function of “Commercial” or “Industry/Processing/Extraction”

**Figure 4: ARCHITECTURAL STYLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STYLE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO DISTINCTIVE STYLE</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMERCIAL STYLE</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODERN MOVEMENT: OTHER</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART DECO: ZigZag</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRAFTSMAN</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODERNE</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLASSICAL REVIVAL</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART DECO: PWA</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MISSION/Spanish Revival/Spanish Eclectic</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEAUX ARTS</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOTHIC REVIVAL</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHER</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART DECO: STREAMLINE</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIXED</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LATE GOTHIC REVIVAL</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GREEK REVIVAL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITALIANATE</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COLONIAL REVIVAL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TUDOR REVIVAL</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERNATIONAL STYLE</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LATE VICTORIAN</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>554</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11 Analysis includes all resources identified as “Building” resource type.
COMMERCIAL BUILDING FORMS

Commercial architecture is distinguished first by building form and second by its architectural style. In *The Buildings of Main Street: A Guide to American Commercial Architecture*, Richard Longstreth identifies and categorizes buildings common to central business districts and neighborhood commercial areas according to the composition of their façades. Despite intricate detailing and stylistic treatments or the lack thereof, the organization of the commercial façade can be reduced to simple patterns that reveal major divisions or zones. Due to their functional nature, many commercial buildings exhibit restrained architectural details. The cornice area followed by the first-story storefront are the most prominent and distinctive features of a commercial building. In addition to the storefront, cornice, and parapet, important character-defining elements of commercial buildings include corner posts, bulkheads, transoms, signs, and doors.

Commercial buildings and the streetscape they create define both the functional and visual character of the distinct neighborhoods within the survey area. Dating from the 1900s through the late twentieth century, most of the commercial buildings surveyed are simple, one-, two-, or three-story structures. The traditional building material is brick.

The central business district of Tulsa contains several tall buildings in addition to the numerous one- and two-story commercial buildings. These are predominantly office towers with metal/steel structures.

The most conspicuous alterations to commercial buildings in the survey area reflect the modernization of first-story display windows and entrances and the application of wood or metal cladding covering the upper wall of a façade. Many of these alterations have left the original
openings and spatial relationships of the storefront intact. Other changes are more-easily reversible, such as the addition of awnings and applications of wood or metal sheathing over original openings or transoms. Where left exposed, the upper stories usually retain their historic integrity and original appearance and are the principal means to identify the building’s original style.

Utilizing Longstreth’s basic commercial building property types, the most abundant are the Warehouse/Light Industrial and One-Part Commercial Block building types. The categorizations of One- or Two-Part Commercial Blocks, Free-Standing Commercial Block, Temple Front, or Arcade Front all apply to buildings four stories and under. Two- and Three-Part Vertical Blocks, the Stepped Vertical and the Free-Standing Tower describe tall buildings.

**Warehouse/Light Industrial**

The Warehouse/Light Industrial building is often one or two stories with no discernable storefront. It is often a simple cube with a flat or gable roof. After World War II civilian businesses occasionally adopted the military Quonset hut for industrial functions. These sheet metal buildings have a distinctive barrel-shaped form.

**One-Part Commercial Block**

The One-Part Commercial Block building has only a single story and is a simple cube with a decorated façade. In many examples, the street frontage is narrow and the façade comprises little more than plate glass windows and an entrance with a cornice or parapet spanning the width of the façade.
Two-Part Commercial Block

Slightly more complex than their one-story cousins, Two-Part Commercial Block buildings are typically two- to four- stories in height. They have a clear visual separation of use between the first-story customer service/retail space and the upper-story office, meeting room, or residential uses. Similar to One-Part Commercial Block buildings, the styling of the first story focuses on the storefront glazing and entrance(s). The design of the upper stories identifies the building’s architectural influences.

Two-Part Vertical Block

The Two-Part Vertical Block is similar to the Two-Part Commercial Block in that there is a clear visual separation between the first story, or the “base,” and the upper stories, or the “shaft.” However, these buildings are taller than four stories. The design of the upper stories identifies the building’s architectural influences and often uses decorative or structural elements to emphasize the verticality of the building.

Three-Part Vertical Block

The Three-Part Vertical Block is a tall building that contains the same distinct zones of “base” and “shaft” as the Two-Part Vertical Block. The uppermost one to three stories form the third part of the vertical block, becoming the “capital.” This creates an analogy between the façade organization and the parts of the classical column. It is therefore common for these buildings to be designed in the Classical Revival style or a related style, such as Beaux Arts.

Stepped Vertical

The Stepped Vertical building form primarily applies to early- to mid-twentieth century skyscrapers designed when zoning regulations required setbacks at specific heights for tall
buildings. These buildings have a large footprint at the base that gradually decreases as the building increases in height. They often exhibit high-style exterior design and ornamentation.

**Free-Standing Commercial Blocks**

The Free-Standing Commercial Block defines late-twentieth century commercial development. Examples of the form house auto service stations and convenience stores, fast food restaurants, and a variety of retail and professional businesses. In the downtown urban core these resources are often identified as office buildings between one and nine stories. The largest examples are the “big box stores.” The design of Free-Standing Commercial Blocks often identifies the building with a particular corporate brand.

**Free-Standing Tower**

The Free-Standing Tower is similar to the Free-Standing Commercial Block office building in terms of style and placement on the lot, but it is often much taller. This commercial building form is used to describe skyscrapers and tall office buildings designed in the Modern Movement style or later. There is often minimal differentiation, if any, between the base and the upper stories.

**Temple Front**

The defining feature of the Temple Front building form is the application or the implied application of columns to the main façade. While this form was most popular for banks, it was occasionally applied to other commercial buildings also. In these cases, the columns are not free-standing and therefore do not create a portico.
Arcade Front

The Arcade Front building has a series of round-arched openings that are evenly-spaced along the first story of the main façade. These buildings are generally between one and three stories tall.

**NON-RESIDENTIAL ARCHITECTURAL STYLES**

Nationally, after the Civil War commercial centers tended to become specialized according to administrative, retail, wholesale, industrial, or recreational use. New building types and reinterpretations of traditional building types appeared as styles changed. Based on the size of the survey area, downtown Tulsa contains at least one example of nearly all of the formal styles within the categories of *Late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Century Revivals*, *Late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Century American Movements*, and *Modern Movement*. Elaborate, high-style examples of these architectural styles are located in the central business district while the smaller, simpler versions are located in the surrounding neighborhoods. Buildings employing these styles include commercial, educational, institutional, governmental, and manufacturing facilities. The most common architectural style for non-residential buildings in the survey area is the Commercial Style.

Late-Nineteenth and Early-Twentieth Century Revivals

There are thirty-five examples of various Late-Nineteenth and Early-Twentieth Century Revival styles applied to non-residential architecture. These resources date from circa 1906 to circa 1940, and most are located in the central business district. Like their residential counterparts, the contemporaneous Classical Revival, Gothic Revival, Colonial Revival, Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival, and Beaux Arts styles reflect the influences of historic architecture derived from European and American antecedents.
Classical Revival

The twelve resources identified as Classical Revival have the symmetrical façade and simple, classically-inspired ornament that characterize this style. The majority of these resources are also identified as either Two- or Three-Part Vertical Block. They have a strong base often clad in stone and punctuated by round-arched openings. A difference in cladding material and simplification of ornament differentiate the upper stories from the base.

Beaux Arts

The grand and dramatic Beaux Arts style is often applied to large-scale commercial or formal institutional or governmental buildings. Of the nine resources identified as Beaux Arts, five of them are eight stories or taller, and all were constructed between 1917 and 1940.

Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival

The Panama-California Exposition staged in San Diego in 1915 made Spanish-influenced architecture popular in the United States, particularly in the Southwest. Intricate designs rooted in the broad spectrum of Spanish architectural influences (Moorish, Byzantine, Gothic and Renaissance) provided inspiration. Designs mimicking the elaborate Spanish prototypes soon appeared around the country. The style enjoyed a limited popularity, peaking during 1920s and 1930s. Character-defining features of the four non-residential buildings in the survey area include stucco and light brown brick walls, tile roofs, terracotta ornament and shaped parapets.

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Modern Movement

The Modern Movement encompasses the wide variety of architectural styles developed in the twentieth century as a significant break from the historical revival styles that dominated the previous era. Beginning in the 1920s and continuing into the 1970s, architects sought inspiration in the innovations of man and machine rather than in the architecture of the past or in nature. The goal was to create completely new forms that reflected the energy, creativity, and engineering ingenuity of the age. As the first formal style to emerge from the Modern Movement, Art Deco utilized stylized geometric ornament to emphasize modernity and progress. Subsequent styles, such as Streamline Moderne, International, New Formalism, and Brutalism stripped the building of all formal ornament. Form, construction, and man-made materials became the main components of architectural expression. Although there are residential examples of these later styles, they were predominantly used for large-scale, free-standing commercial buildings in urban areas.

Art Deco

The Art Deco style gained popularity in the United States after the 1925 *L’Exposition Internationale des arts Déroratifs et Industriels Modernes* in Paris. While initially decorative in nature, architects embraced Art Deco forms as symbols of modernity. Tulsa architects used the style to unite the city’s identity with national and international cities. It is difficult today to capture the mindset of the roaring 1920s, but the architecture fit a mood of gay, carefree exuberance through expansive ornamentation. With the riches of oil flowing into Tulsa during this period, the architecture provided a means to express the local mood of optimism. The forty-three Art Deco buildings in the survey area illustrate the breadth of the style in all its variations,

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from high-style institutional buildings to modest commercial storefronts. Tulsa architects used elements of Art Deco up to the 1950s.

**Streamlined Moderne**

Examples of Modern Movement commercial design generally first appeared in the survey area 1930s. At the start of this period, architects began applying the streamlined forms popular in industrial design to commercial buildings. In the 1930s, the Streamlined Moderne style featured cubic and cylindrical forms with a horizontal emphasis, smooth surfaces, curving shapes, and a minimum of ornamentation. The eighteen Streamlined Moderne buildings in the survey area have buff brick walls, curved corners, and aluminum canopies that define their architectural style.

**Modern Movement – Other**

In the post-World War II period, buildings, especially commercial buildings, got bigger and sleeker. All vestiges of architectural ornament and references to historic styles were removed. Skins of glass and metal replaced traditional veneers of brick and stone. Windows became expansive ribbons of glass rather than punched openings. Sixty-eight buildings of this genre rose in downtown Tulsa during the post-war boom and especially during the Urban Renewal era. Commercial businesses and government institutions alike embraced forward-looking Modern Movement architecture to represent their own visions of the future. The Tulsa City Council Chambers and the Tulsa City/County Public Library are examples of New Formalism, where the most prominent features are the wide projecting roof slab and the shaped columnar supports. City Hall, located at 200 Civic Center Plaza, illustrates the Miesian subtype of the International Style.

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14 McAlester, 468.
Features of this style include the recessed ground floor walls and the regular pattern of the façade created by the exposed concrete frame.

**Residential Architectural Styles**

Single-family dwellings are the dominant functional and architectural residential building type in the survey area. The residential architecture found in the survey area includes examples from the early-twentieth century Romantic Era’s Revival styles through the post-World War II Modern Movement and Neo-Eclectic styles, as well as the gamut of twentieth century folk house forms.

**Craftsman**

Craftsman houses evolved from the early designs of Charles Sumner Greene and Henry Mather Greene who practiced architecture in California from 1893 to 1914. The Greene’s designed both elaborate and simple bungalow houses that incorporated designs inspired from the English Arts and Crafts movement and Oriental architecture. Popularized by architectural magazines and builder pattern books, the one-story Craftsman house became popular nationwide during the early decades of the twentieth century as the most fashionable style for a smaller house. Identifying features include low-pitched roofs; wide eave overhangs, often with exposed roof rafters; decorative beams or braces under gables; and full- or partial-width porches supported by square piers.\(^{15}\)

**Classical Revival**

The World’s Columbian World’s Exposition held in Chicago in 1893 sparked a renewed popular interest in classical architecture. The Classical Revival (or Neoclassical) style appeared in various forms through World War II. Although never as popular as the Colonial Revival for

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\(^{15}\) Ibid, 453-54.
residential buildings, the two styles shared many similarities. Both emphasized geometric forms and symmetrical façades and featured classically inspired entrances. Porches with classical columns (often full height) distinguish Classical Revival designs from Colonial Revival architecture.\(^{16}\)

**VERNACULAR FOLK HOUSE FORMS**

Throughout the nation’s history, its citizens erected modest dwellings constructed of locally available materials without stylistic embellishments. The early colonists brought with them the building traditions of Europe and, using locally available materials, adapted them to their new communities. Frame buildings constructed of hewn timbers and covered with thin wood siding dominated the early folk building in New England where massed plans more than one room deep became the norm. In the early settlements of the Tidewater South, frame houses that were one room deep became common. As settlement expanded to the West, what became a Midland tradition of log buildings evolved out of a blending of the two Eastern traditions.

The character of American folk housing changed significantly as the nation’s railroad network expanded in the decades from 1850 to 1890. Builders of modest dwellings no longer relied on local materials. Instead, rail cars could rapidly and cheaply move mass manufactured construction materials (pre-cut lumber, nails, window and door frames, and ornamental details) from distant plants over long distances. It was not long until vernacular houses of light balloon or braced framing replaced hewn log dwellings. Despite the change in building technique and materials, the older folk house shapes persisted. The resulting houses were simple dwellings defined by their form and massing, but lacking identifiable stylistic characteristics. Even after communities became established, folk house designs remained popular as an affordable

\(^{16}\) Ibid, 343-49.
alternative to more ornate and complex architectural styles.¹⁷ These traditional prototypes and new innovative plans comprise distinctive families of residential forms that dominated American folk building through the first half of the twentieth century.

**Gable Front House**

The eponymous gable front shape of this vernacular house type referenced the triangular pediment on the façade of the Greek temple. As a building style, this trend originated with the Greek Revival architectural movement that dominated American design during the period from 1830 to 1850. Settlers brought the design west as they followed the expansion of the eastern railroad network in the 1850s. The adaptability of the gable-front form to narrow urban lots assured its popular use, and it remained a dominant residential building form well into the twentieth century.¹⁸

**Pyramidal Roof House**

While side-gabled roofs normally cover massed-plan folk houses of rectangular shape, those with more nearly square plans commonly have pyramidal roofs. The pyramidal roof form (an equilateral hipped roof) has a more complex roof framing system, but requires fewer long-spanning rafters and is therefore less expensive to build. This Folk House form often appeared in small towns concurrent with the arrival of the railroad and became a favored replacement for the smaller Hall-and-Parlor house and the narrow two-story I-house during the early twentieth century. Like most folk house forms, the roof pitch and the size and location of the porches vary.

**HOTELS AND MULTIPLE DWELLINGS**

¹⁷ Ibid, 89-90.
¹⁸ Ibid, 90.
Twelve hotels and twenty-seven multiple dwellings, such as duplexes and apartment buildings, are scattered throughout the survey area. As a category these buildings evolved greatly in size, form, and style over time. The most common apartment building variant dates to the early-twentieth century and is located within a historically residential area. It is three stories tall, masonry-clad, and ornamented in the Mission/Spanish Revival Style. Hotels of the same vintage are similar in form and massing to contemporary commercial office buildings. They are also masonry-clad and generally feature classically-inspired ornament. Both apartment buildings and hotels from the mid- to late-twentieth century illustrate Modern Movement design. They are mid-to high-rise towers with steel or concrete structures clad with expansive areas of glass and stripped of architectural ornament.

**RELIGIOUS BUILDINGS**

Religious buildings are often more architecturally expressive than commercial buildings, although they are generally conservative in their selection of an architectural idiom. Classical motifs and traditional styling with historical antecedents are the most common stylistic treatments. Historic subtypes identified in the survey area include community and religious buildings.

**DATES OF CONSTRUCTION**

The 2008 survey provided dates of construction for the majority resources surveyed. For resources added to the database, the consultants utilized Sanborn Maps, city directories, and other archival sources described in the Methodology to estimate dates of construction. Dates of building additions and alterations were not considered in the analysis. Figure 5 presents the distribution of buildings by estimated date of construction.
**Figure 5: ESTIMATED DATE OF CONSTRUCTION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ERA</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EARLY 20TH CENTURY: 1900–1929</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPRESSION, WORLD WAR II, POST-WAR: 1930–1959</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URBAN RENEWAL: 1960–1972</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MODERN ERA: 1973–PRESENT</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL:</strong></td>
<td><strong>571</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NATIONAL REGISTER EVALUATION**

All properties eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places must retain sufficient architectural integrity to convey the period of time for which they are significant. As described above in the Methodology, each building received an evaluation of National Register eligibility. Figure 6 illustrates the results of that analysis. These findings are discussed further in the Survey Results chapter that follows.

**Figure 6: NATIONAL REGISTER EVALUATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NATIONAL REGISTER EVALUATION</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LISTED ON THE NATIONAL REGISTER 20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDIVIDUALLY ELIGIBLE</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>CONTRIBUTING</td>
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<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>URBAN RENEWAL</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOES NOT MEET NATIONAL REGISTER CRITERIA</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESS THAN FIFTY YEARS OF AGE</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL:</strong></td>
<td><strong>571</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19 Figures 5 & 6 do not include resources identified as “Parking/Vacant Lot”.
20 The National Register includes twenty-four properties in downtown Tulsa. Because the Holy Family Cathedral is composed of three buildings and the Vickery Phillips 66 Station is composed of two buildings the survey tally indicates twenty-seven listed resources.
HISTORIC CONTEXT

EARLY HISTORY

When the Lochapokas Creek tribe settled along the banks of the Arkansas River they chose a location that appeared much like their Alabama homelands. Eventually they called their settlement “Tulsey” town. Established in the rolling Sandstone Hills, the town overlooked the Arkansas River approximately between Seventeenth and Eighteenth Streets, and Cheyenne and Denver Avenues. After the passage of the Indian Removal Act of 1830, these Native Americans had “removed” to Indian Territory when the federal government forced them to turn over their eastern homelands to white settlers. In the Tulsa area, the Creeks found a place of abundance; the hills, streams, forests and variety of wildlife made them self-sufficient until the Civil War changed their lives. The Creek Nation divided its loyalty over the war: some nation members remained neutral while others supported the Southern cause. When the war was over, the conflict-scattered Creeks returned to rebuild their Tulsa community square for ceremonies, and they relit the ceremonial fire, but they lived scattered around the Tulsa area rather than together as they had before the war. African Americans, who had either been freed by their white or Native American owners or who had freed themselves after the Civil War, also settled in the Tulsa area.

THE RAILROAD ERA

The influence of the railroad in Tulsa should not be underestimated. Before the railroads came to Oklahoma, earlier forms of transportation that relied on dray animals or boats limited the town’s

21 Angie Debo, Tulsa: from Creek Town to Oil Capital (Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press, 1943), 14. Chapters 1 and 2 provide a history of the Creeks in the east and their removal west.

22 Many African American “freedmen” were once owned by Native Americans. When eventually freed, they were considered tribal members by the federal government.
economic development.\textsuperscript{23} The railroad revolutionized transportation, bringing thousands of white settlers to the territory and heralding the end to Native American sovereignty. The railroad’s arrival was also critical to the development of industry in Oklahoma.\textsuperscript{24} The merger of transportation and industrial development are particularly evident in two areas of Tulsa, the Brady area north of the commercial center and in the East Village east of the commercial center.\textsuperscript{25}

White traders began entering the Tulsa area in the 1870s despite the Creek’s resistance, but the postwar treaties of 1866 required Indian Territory tribes to allow a right-of-way for at least one north/south and one east/west railroad. This allowed workers and traders to enter the Territory and reside in the Tulsa area.\textsuperscript{26} The Missouri, Kansas, and Texas Railroad (KATY) received the franchise for a north/south route, which passed thirty miles east of Tulsa. The Atlantic and Pacific Railroad, soon called the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad (Frisco), received the east/west franchise. The Frisco met the KATY in Muscogee, and in 1881, the Frisco created a short line to Tulsa. The Tulsa area was known for its lush grasslands and the railroads wanted to capture the shipment of trail herds heading north from Texas.


\textsuperscript{25} Walter Sadler, “Description and Analysis of the Tulsa Metropolitan Area Railroad Network” (Tulsa, OK: Pacific Planning and Research, 1958), 11, 29-32. Sadler, in his 1958 analysis, reported that railroads still serviced 240 industrial sites within the Tulsa Industrial Loop Zone, of which fifty-seven had their own spurs. One hundred and thirty-five miles of railroad tracks intersected major streets at multiple points. Railroads owned 2,000 acres of property, and there were 503 collateral tracks (spurs, sidings, etc.) in the Tulsa metropolitan area. The extent of the railroads physical presence was impressive and, understandably, determined the location of many businesses. Extant railroad resources identified in this survey are Union Station, the Midland Valley Railroad Depot, the Atchison Topeka and Santa Fe Freight Station, the Frisco Freight House, and one KATY and two Frisco overpasses crossing Denver Avenue. Of the overpasses, only one of the Frisco overpasses retains integrity.

\textsuperscript{26} Treaties established the right that some whites could reside within tribal lands. These included railroad employees and traders, if they procured a federal license and paid a tax to the tribal treasuries. But, traders became just about anyone who opened a business in Tulsa, much to the annoyance of the Creeks.
When the railroad arrived in 1882, Tulsa was only a tent town, but the location of the railroad was significant because it entered at the northeast boundary of Creek lands and terminated at the tent town. The tracks were placed in this location because the Creeks generally had a more liberal land leasing attitude toward non-citizen traders than the Cherokee Nation, which held lands just to the north. The first trains made only one trip a day between Tulsa and Vinita, Oklahoma, and for twenty years the Frisco line was the only railroad coming to Tulsa. Tulsa began with tenuous roots associated with the railroad and because of unrest and conflict among the Creek, the town remained little more than a tent city until 1883.

When the Frisco line arrived, it became the center of daily life for the town, and a railroad engineer laid out Main Street. Today, Boston Avenue appears as Tulsa’s main business artery, but Main Street was the town’s hub during Tulsa’s early days.

The town site was well-located geographically. To the north of the Frisco tracks are rolling hills and limestone outcrops; to the west, are the Sandstone Hills and uplands. Approximately eighty percent of the city lies in the Prairie Plains, and Tulsa is within the Arkansas River alluvial

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27 A sketch of the tent town exists (Beryl Ford Collection/Rotary Club of Tulsa, Tulsa City-County Library and Tulsa Historical Society). Also see James Monroe Hall, *The Beginnings of Tulsa* (Tulsa, OK: c. 1933), 1-2. Only a log house belonging to a Creek existed in the future town of Tulsa before the railroad. Once track was laid from Vinita, incomers gathered around this house. The Hall brothers, contractors for the railroad, put up a general store tent which they had moved from terminal to terminal in advance of the tracks. A couple established a boarding tent intending to build a hotel near the tracks. Other early settlers included a railroad employee, a doctor, and T. J. Archer, a trader.


29 Only later did the Frisco move west through Tulsa. It first crossed the Arkansas in 1884 to Red Fork, and in 1886 the line extended to Sapulpa. Debo, *Tulsa: from Creek Town to Oil Capital*, 66.
basin.  Downtown itself rises from a valley floor, “standing on a hump in the bottom of a bowl.” Skyscrapers would rise from this hilltop, making them seem even taller.

The early Tulsa economy was based on ranching. With vast grasslands to fattened cattle, stock was shipped east, both live and processed. About 1900, grain mills and agricultural equipment businesses served the area’s agricultural economic base. Early mills, ice plants, and cattle pens, all needing access to railroad transportation, located on both sides the Frisco tracks, establishing land use patterns for those industries dependent on transportation.

Tulsa in 1894 had only a few proper streets and alleys. Businesses tended to locate next to tracks, while houses were scattered around the settlement. This was due, in part, to the town’s lack of incorporation, which finally occurred in 1898. After passage of the Curtis Act in 1901, which authorized existing towns within Indian Territory, Tulsa was finally platted.

While Tulsa’s early economy was dependent on ranching and agriculture, arrival of the Frisco Railroad encouraged some early commerce based on local resources. One business felled walnut timber along the Arkansas River and employed many sawyers who prepared lumber for shipping. Mules were raised locally and then shipped east, and the railroad built a wire corral as a holding pen for livestock enroute to St. Louis. By the early 1900s, the community had

31 Debo, Tulsa: from Creek Town to Oil Capital, 3.
32 Archer Street ran north and south instead of east and west; Boston Avenue was called Lindley, and Cheyenne was called Spring Street. Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps, Tulsa (Tulsa County) 1894, 1896, 1898, 1901.
33 Debo, Tulsa: from Creek Town to Oil Capital, 78-79. The plat is skewed to match the Frisco Railroad tracks.
34 Hall, Beginnings of Tulsa, 43.
developed other small industries which mined coal and river sand. In 1901, the first Commercial Club was formed to help promote the community.35

**Tulsa During the Oil Boom**

There was probably no more important event in Tulsa’s history than the discovery of oil in 1901. At the turn of the century, the town had only about 1,390 residents. The first oil well, located in Red Fork, was just across the Arkansas River from Tulsa, and its location put the town in the center of an oil boom.36 The 1905 Glenpool strike added to Tulsa’s value as the centralized business location where one could get leases, obtain bank loans, hire drillers and find equipment for the oil fields. The Frisco was still the only railroad serving Tulsa, but demands for service from the oil business (and financial incentives) soon brought the KATY (1902), Midland Valley (1903), and Santa Fe Railroads (1905) to town.

As Tulsa’s economy transitioned to petroleum, the city’s population exploded as newcomers wishing to partake of the riches flooded the city. When the oil companies prospered, the city did as well.37 Tulsa grew wildly during the next ten years, and even by 1904, the town had outgrown its original plan. Population figures reflect the growth: the town grew from 1,390 residents in 1900 to 18,182 residents by 1910. By 1920, the population reached 72,075; and by 1930, it had nearly doubled again reaching 141,258.38


36 Entrepreneurs also constructed a bridge across the Arkansas River, which made transportation possible between the oil fields and Tulsa.


38 Debo, *Tulsa: from Creek Town to Oil Capital*, 84, 87.
Passenger trains came filled with new residents, and the demand for goods going to the oil fields sky-rocketed. New commercial establishments sprang up by the tracks, as did hotels and rooming houses which addressed housing needs of newcomers. With Tulsa’s staggering increases in population and transportation needs, the small simple Frisco passenger/freight station gave way in 1906 to a large new station which blocked Boston Avenue as a thoroughfare.

By 1905, the area around Main Street and the Frisco tracks was one of feverish activity. With the arrival of thirty-five steam trains a day, the area was beset by constant noise, smoke and coal grime. The area east of North Main Street was originally a residential enclave of mostly African Americans, who had little choice about where they lived; residential areas available to them were generally those unattractive to white residents.

Railroads defined the patterns of use around their tracks. The Frisco ran northeast/southwest through town, while North and South Main Street was the primary commercial artery. The KATY paralleled the Frisco only three and one-half blocks to its north. The Midland Valley and Santa Fe ran north and south, five blocks east of Main Street. As these other railroads established their presence in Tulsa, businesses that demanded access to transportation moved near to their tracks. Just ten years after Glenpool, track areas especially near the Frisco had a large concentration of oil-related industries, along with support shops and small businesses that kept these industries functioning. Where the Santa Fe and Midland Valley tracks joined the Frisco, spur lines, connections, and sidings among these three railroads cut through large swaths of land on the east side of town. The comings and goings of trains supplied the oil economy, and freight deliveries meant that storage yards were close to tracks. Even with the arrival of the automobile, the railroads remained the most important form of transportation in Tulsa until after World War II.
During World War I, city troops went to the fronts, but mostly Tulsa prospered as oil money washed over the city from supplying the war effort. The high financial returns in oil-related businesses were reinvested in larger oil companies and expanded refineries. As oil money continued to flow, Tulsans were buying at a record pace as furniture filled rail-side warehouses and piled up on sidings. Historian Danney Goble noted that it took a permit system to prove to the railroads that there was storage for all the incoming merchandise.39

In the 1920s, as the demand for industrial and warehousing space continued to grow around the railroads, additional shops, businesses and warehouses encroached upon neighborhoods. Working-class residential areas were generally near railroad tracks, while middle and upper income residents lived south and west of the commercial area, away from the tracks. A trolley system allowed those without cars to circumnavigate the city, and connected South and North Main Streets. Its service peaked in 1923 and then was replaced by buses.40

The 1920s decade was an extraordinary time in Tulsa. Tulsa was on the cusp of transforming itself from a pioneer city along South Main Street to a new city of skyscrapers on South Boston Avenue. Oil money built the first skyscrapers, and their construction displaced residential areas to the south. As the commercial area expanded, early churches moved south of downtown as well. A housing shortage created a continuous demand for new additions and subdivisions during this extraordinary time, and the well-to-do continued to move to the east and south away from the city core.

At the same time, African Americans were now living almost exclusively north of the KATY Railroad tracks near Greenwood Avenue, which was known as the “Black Wall Street” area of Tulsa. In 1921, the city experienced what many historians have deemed the worst race riot in the United States. The Greenwood commercial district burned, as did more than one-thousand houses. Despite the destruction, Greenwood area houses and commercial buildings were almost immediately rebuilt. The Greenwood commercial area came to signify the tenacity of the African American community in Tulsa and has become symbolic of its survival through difficult times.

Businessman Cyrus Avery, known as the "Father of Route 66," began his campaign to create a road linking Chicago to California in the 1920s. He created a Highway 66 Association in Tulsa, earning the city the nickname the "Birthplace of Route 66."\(^41\) Officially designated as a United States Highway in 1926, the road wound through Tulsa, and soon gas stations, food stands and hotels accommodated the road’s travelers. Demand for automobiles increased as residents began to drive rather than walk. The care required for the upkeep of motor vehicles created locations within the downtown survey area with clusters of garages and repair shops.

The 1920s decade was one of great creativity and optimism as architects embraced modern architecture known today as Art Deco. New modern buildings in the downtown mixed with more traditional architecture to create a city of rich visual character. It was a time when the city finally resolved its need for sufficient water with the construction of Spavinaw Dam. The University of Tulsa was chartered in 1921, and Skelly Stadium was constructed. The city built parks, began the International Petroleum Exhibition, and opened a new airport. By 1927, Tulsa was known as the “Oil Capital of the World,” because it was headquarters to fifteen hundred oil-related companies.

Tulsa served as the heart of the Mid-Continent oil field, which produced two-thirds of the nation’s oil, and its refineries produced more gasoline than any other location in the United States and supplied coast-to-coast pipelines.42

Although agricultural production remained a portion of the Tulsa area economy, oil created a specific problem for Tulsa as the city became increasingly dependent on this one industry.43 Despite efforts to broaden the community’s economic base by attracting a variety of industry and manufacturing companies, oil provided the city’s affluence. It was the sole source of wealth for many Tulsans and remained so through the wild 1920s.

During the Great Depression, oversupply depressed the oil market and created difficult times for those whose income was dependent on oil, especially the working-class. Before the Depression ended, Tulsa was like other cities across the United States – struggling economically.

Overproduction had dropped the price of a barrel of oil to nearly nothing, and it took years to recover even one-half its previous 1920s high. Some companies went out of business or merged, but historian Angie Debo noted that the city still had forty-five major oil companies and more than five hundred smaller companies even after the Depression ended.44

The railroads continued to provide the main means of transporting goods in and out of Tulsa, including the oil the nation needed during World War II. Warehouse and wholesale areas along the tracks remained important locations for the transfer and storage of goods, motor freight stations, oil well suppliers and manufacturers, machine shops, lumber yards, paper warehouses, warehouse.

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43 “Industrial Survey of Tulsa” (Tulsa, OK: Chamber of Commerce, 1930), 4. This survey reviews agricultural production within a ninety-mile radius of Tulsa, and gives percentages of the area’s contribution to the agricultural wealth of Oklahoma at 59 percent. The area produced 87 percent of the state’s petroleum in 1930.
44 Debo, *Tulsa: from Creek Town to Oil Capital*, 115.
and storage and moving companies. Wholesalers received goods from trains, and trucks provided local delivery service. The large number of spurs near the main lines allowed access to warehouses and to the businesses dependent on them.  

Tulsa still had a housing shortage when World War II began. This shortage hurt Tulsa when the city competed for lucrative defense contracts because there was not enough housing for an influx of workers. The shortage, however, helped the city make a successful bid to secure wartime housing in 1941, when the federal government agreed to construct hundreds of new dwellings. With houses to shelter new workers, Tulsa was in a better position to solicit war time defense dollars. In 1941, Tulsa was chosen as a site for the Douglas Aircraft Company. Douglas produced bombers, and the Spartan Aircraft Company built trainer aircraft and trained pilots. By 1945, for the first time in Tulsa’s history, large numbers of workers were employed in non-oil related manufacturing.

**TULSA IN THE POST-WORLD WAR II PERIOD**

At the end of the war, Tulsa’s war-based economy successfully shifted into peacetime industries. The Spartan School of Aeronautics trained airplane mechanics in the United States and from other nations; Douglas Aircraft continued building bombers, as well as Nike, Thor, and Minuteman missiles. Douglas merged with McDonnell Aircraft in 1967 and grew even larger. American Airlines began concentrating its maintenance operations in Tulsa in 1950. These production and manufacturing giants, along with the side industries that supported them,

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provided many new jobs for well-educated and upper middle-class residents. By the 1950s, Tulsa was home to more engineers and scientists per capita than any city in America.\textsuperscript{48}

African Americans in Tulsa also benefited from the war. Due to the shortage of labor, they found jobs in defense industries. They spent their income mainly within the Greenwood business district, which helped that commercial area prosper. At the end of the war, Greenwood had 242 African American-owned and operated businesses. The area thrived until the late 1950s when integration diminished the vitality of the Greenwood commercial district. When segregation no longer limited where African Americans could shop, they began to shop in other areas of Tulsa.\textsuperscript{49}

The post-World War II era provided Tulsans many employment opportunities in new industries and businesses, but it also brought changes to the Tulsa downtown. The once important interurban, which took Tulsans to work in the Sand Springs industrial area from 1911 to 1955, ended its service as more and more people drove themselves to work. The automobile increased urban sprawl, which had started in the 1920s as residents moved further and further away from town.

Automobiles and trucks dominated Tulsa’s roads in the 1950s. With improved roads and plenty of gas available after World War II, trucks began to haul goods greater distances, and railroads declined in significance across the United States and in Tulsa. The necessity of building near railroad tracks diminished as railroad influence ebbed. Companies that might have once built

\textsuperscript{48} Ibid., 187.
near rail lines now built in suburbia and trucked their goods wherever needed. To Tulsa’s growth continued outward to the south and east.

To counter the relocation of residents and businesses outside of downtown, city leaders focused their efforts on redefining the downtown, rather than valuing the city’s past. After the war, it was not easy to look back at a city that had evolved in the early part of the twentieth century and appreciate the small commercial buildings and dense nature of the city core. Most cities undertook some form of Urban Renewal after World War II, and Tulsa began an effort of its own.

The first efforts at city planning began in 1953, with the establishment of the Tulsa Metropolitan Area Planning Commission (TMAPC), which state legislation established. It authorized city/county planning, operated independently of elected officials, and hired its own director and staff. In 1959, Oklahoma passed state enabling legislation establishing Urban Renewal Authorities. Tulsa had the first Urban Renewal program in the state, the Tulsa Urban Renewal Authority (TURA). The city and TMAPC quickly wrote Tulsa’s first city plan in 1960 because TURA could not receive federal funds without one.

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51 The town had been essentially cut off to the northwest and northeast. To the northwest, when the city had refused to provide utilities to a proposed development, the owner restricted all development on his land until twenty years after his death, which occurred in 1961. To the northeast, the land acquired for the Spavinaw water works had included the airport, its associated buildings and Mohawk Park. To the west the river was an obstacle to the continuous development of the city.

52 In the late 1950s, about one-third of all retail sales occurred in the downtown; by 1972, this was down to less than 12 percent. See Hammer, Greene, Siler Associates, “Planning Central Tulsa,” 39.

The plan was based on previous proposed plans that re-imaged the downtown with grand plazas, new civic centers and an array of new public buildings. Through the 1960s, TURA used eminent domain to acquire sites that city government defined as “blighted.” As the 1960s witnessed wholesale demolition of almost all residential units within the downtown area, the 1970s focused on public efforts and public/private Urban Renewal construction projects.

Tulsa in the late 1960s still had reason to be optimistic about its future. After all, in 1966 there were still 850 oil companies employing 20,100 workers in Tulsa. Kathryn Nardone has observed that these firms supplied to and marketed for the oil industry of Oklahoma. Tulsa was the petroleum research center of the Midwest, and its commercial associations reached around the world.54

In the 1970s, post-World War II optimism combined with TURA funds and private/public relationships built many new buildings in the downtown area. The face of the city began to change, as buildings with large footprints replaced the density of small buildings. Parking lots were created for commuters living elsewhere around the Tulsa area. The city also had a new plan, Vision 2000, to guide its future.

In the early 1980s, overproduction of oil in other parts of the world affected Tulsa, as did an accompanying national recession. Oil prices declined nearly fifty percent when reduced demand accompanied the continued overproduction of oil. The result was a “bust” in the market between 1982 and 1987.55

55 “Oklahoma Oil and Gas Briefing Newsletter” (Oklahoma Department of Commerce: January 23, 2006), 2,
In the early 1990s, the oil industry consolidated, eliminating jobs. In 1997, the industry began a second consolidation period as many oil companies once based in Tulsa moved to Houston, Texas. Gas and oil well capacity had matured in Oklahoma, and oil companies began to seek new oil reserves in the Gulf of Mexico. They relocated near Houston, a city with a large technical labor force in an industry now much more knowledge-intensive.

As Tulsa began a new century in 2000, the city sat amid a large metropolitan region that encompassed an area from Owasso on the north, to Sand Springs on the west, and a continually spreading area to the south and east, reaching or nearing Broken Arrow, Bixby and Jenks. Areas of use continued to define the city’s core. There was the Brady area north of the Frisco tracks, where transportation and industry dominated; the East Village, with scattered commerce, services, transportation and industry by the Midland Valley and Santa Fe Railroad tracks; the central business district, where banks were centralized; and the west side, where Urban Renewal cleared residential neighborhoods for a large elderly housing unit, the state office complex, buildings associated with Tulsa Regional Hospital, and the Convention Center. To the south of the core, new low and high-rise residences occupied what used to be historic housing areas. The empty blocks created by Urban Renewal, yet to fulfill the promise of new construction, became acres of parking for commuters.

Regardless of its continuing press outward, the city today appears to be stirring with new interest in reviving the city core. Transportation, infrastructure costs and quality of life issues have


helped refocus national interests toward re-urbanization. Tulsans and investors appear ready to support the city’s movement in this direction as well. Residential lofts and hotels are reusing existing buildings in the city core, and the new Cesar Pelli-designed BOK Arena is bringing first-class entertainment to the metropolitan area. The Brady area is planning its future with a new baseball park, and the Greenwood area, culturally significant to the African American community, will soon have the new John Hope Franklin Park. If the city continues to follow national trends, the future of Tulsa’s downtown as a multifaceted and viable residential, commercial and business location appears promising.\(^{57}\)

PROJECT RECOMMENDATIONS

At the conclusion of the survey, each building received a recommendation for National Register status based on its age, integrity, and known associations with the historic contexts. Possible eligibility recommendations included: National Register-Listed; Individually Eligible; Contributing; Vintage; or Non-Contributing. The qualifications for these categories follow below. The survey results suggest that Multiple Property Submissions (MPS) could assist in the preservation and protection of historic resources. In addition to the eighty-eight buildings that appear to be individually eligible, the survey encompasses fourteen possible historic districts.

The recommendations presented in this report should not be viewed the final determinations. When and if individual buildings or historic districts are formally nominated to the National Register, the integrity of each nominated resource must be re-examined. Future alterations may impact integrity to the point that a building becomes ineligible – or eligible – for register listing. Likewise, preparation of a National Register nomination will require additional research of the property history and exploration of areas of significance that exceed those required for this survey. This level of research may verify that additional resources are eligible for register listing.

NATIONAL REGISTER-LISTED AND INDIVIDUALLY ELIGIBLE RESOURCES

Twenty-seven individual buildings in the survey area are currently listed in the National Register. The survey identified eighty-eight additional buildings that appear to meet at least one of the four National Register Criteria for Evaluation and retain sufficient architectural integrity and historical associations to qualify them for similar status. Appendix A provides a list of these buildings.
CONTRIBUTING RESOURCES

Contributing resources do not retain sufficient integrity to individually merit register listing, although it appears that they would be eligible as contributing resources to a historic district. It is possible that additional research, beyond the scope of this project, could identify an area of significance or important historical associations for a Contributing resource that would change its status to Individually Eligible. Similarly, the reversal of unsympathetic alterations might also restore sufficient integrity to an altered resource for it to be considered for individual register listing.

VINTAGE RESOURCES

Vintage Resources are buildings over fifty years of age that possess a level of importance that is distinctly above that of Non-Contributing resources. They may not retain sufficient integrity to be considered Contributing to a historic district and/or they may be physically isolated away from a group of buildings that could form a historic district. Regardless of their surroundings, Vintage resources should not be considered “throw-away” resources. They enhance our understanding of Tulsa’s built environment and give legitimacy to the history of their surroundings. Like Contributing Resources, it is possible that additional research, beyond the scope of this project, could identify an area of significance or important historical associations for some of these resources that would change their status to Contributing, or possibly even Individually Eligible. Similarly, the reversal of unsympathetic alterations might also restore sufficient integrity to an altered resource to consider it for register listing.

NON-CONTRIBUTING RESOURCES

Non-Contributing resources are those that have lost significant integrity and/or are less than fifty years of age and, therefore, do not appear to merit consideration for National Register listing at
this time. Where integrity is an issue, the level of alterations is beyond the point where removal of modifications could restore individual eligibility or make them a contributing property. The eligibility of resources that are less than fifty years of age should be re-evaluated when they reach this National Register threshold. Buildings in this category constructed before 1936 are eligible for the 10-percent federal tax credit for the renovation of non-historic buildings.

MULTIPLE-PROPERTY SUBMISSIONS

A Multiple Property Submission (MPS) is a National Register vehicle that facilitates the nomination of individual properties and historic districts that share a historic context and that represent a common range of property types and architectural styles within a defined period of significance. The Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF) becomes a cover document that describes the shared contexts and property types and that outlines the registration requirements for eligible properties associated with the MPS. At least one individual property or historic district must be nominated at the time the MPDF is filed. This approach has become popular because it streamlines the nomination process for future register nominations that share the same historic context.

The survey results suggest that four potential MPS could be created within downtown Tulsa. They would address resources in the Brady area, resources in the East Village, surviving residential properties, and properties associated with Urban Renewal. Discussion of each specific MPS follows below.

HISTORIC DISTRICTS

A historic district is a grouping of resources that share significant associations of history or architecture. These resources must be located in a concentrated geographical area to create a
unified entity that is clearly distinct from the resources outside the district boundaries. Resources within a historic district can include individually distinctive resources (resources that might also qualify for individual register listing) as well as resources that lack the qualities of design or association to merit individual listing. District boundaries can also encompass resources that lack integrity or association with the historic context and are considered “non-contributing,” although resources of this type must be a minority within the district.

The fourteen potential historic districts in downtown Tulsa represent an array of resource types and present significant associations with the first century of Tulsa’s history. Most are significant under National Register Criteria A and C. Typical areas of significance include Architecture; Commerce; Community Planning and Development; Industry/Processing; and Politics and Government. For each district this report outlines the historic context and the applicable National Register Criteria, areas of significance, and period of significance. The general registration requirements apply to all proposed districts. Any additional registration requirements specific to a particular district are detailed below.

**GENERAL REGISTRATION REQUIREMENTS**

Resources eligible for listing as a contributing property to a historic district shall retain the architectural and structural features that tie the resource to its original function and period of significance. Alterations to primary building facades are acceptable if they do not alter a significant portion of the façade, if the changes are reversible, and if the original appearance of the façade can be restored. Infill of original fenestration openings should not destroy or obscure the original openings and should be fully reversible. The resource should represent a style of architecture or a type, period or method of construction and should retain sufficient integrity of design, materials, and workmanship to represent the style or the property type.
THE BRADY AREA\textsuperscript{58}

Context

In Tulsa’s early days, the Brady area was part of a small Tulsa community in an area belonging to the Creek Nation. When the Frisco arrived in 1882, the train’s daily appearance became an event for the town. It brought news from the outside world, supplied goods to the small community, provided convenient travel, and accessed a broader market for the area’s agricultural products. Almost all economic activity was soon focused along the railroad tracks or along Main Street, where houses were scattered across the townscape. If the railroad was Tulsa’s lifeline to the outside world, Main Street was the primary internal artery for the community. At this time Tulsa had few proper streets and alleys. As in other Western towns, Main Street (laid out by a railroad engineer with an orthogonal orientation to the tracks) soon developed with small commercial establishments lining both sides of the street.

In addition to a smattering of scattered houses, the Brady area had cotton, flour and corn mills, lumber and feed yards, liveries, and businesses selling agricultural equipment. All of these reflected the area’s economic dependence on the Frisco Railroad. The Frisco shipped trail herds from Texas east to Tulsa, where live animals or meat was processed and shipped out again in refrigerated cars cooled by Tulsa ice. Lumber yards were trackside so they could easily unload construction materials received by rail. For businesses that relied on railroad transportation, access to the tracks decided where they would locate.

\textsuperscript{58} Brady area was named after Tate Brady, one of Tulsa’s early entrepreneurs and city promoters. He especially promoted the area north of the Frisco tracks where he owned property; the Brady Heights housing area is also named for him.
The KATY railroad ran tracks to Tulsa after the 1901 Red Fork oil strike. Soon trains were arriving regularly filled with new residents and with oil field goods moving to and from Tulsa suppliers. The volume of people and supplies travelling to Tulsa by rail only increased after the 1905 Glenn Pool strike. Grocers, confectioners, plumbers, drug stores, printing shops, barbers, and cobblers came to North Main Street. Hotels and rooming houses sprang up quickly to address housing needs. It is difficult to imagine how busy the Brady area was, as hurriedly erected tents provided street-side meals. Eventually more substantial buildings appeared along North Main Street as the Brady area became dense with rail-related businesses.  

Just ten years after Glen Pool, the Brady area had a large concentration of oil-related industries. The comings and goings of trains supplied the oil-economy, and freight deliveries meant that pipe and equipment storage yards preferred locations near the tracks. In the 1920s commercial and industrial buildings displaced many early residences.

By the 1940s, wholesale warehouses flourished in Brady as the area transitioned from railroad to trucking. While the railroads still brought goods to town, fleets of trucks distributed the goods locally. The number of wholesale buildings and warehouses multiplied. During the 1950s, as construction of interstate highways made trucking a more convenient system by which to haul goods, railroads experienced a national decline in significance. The Brady area measured this change by an increased in transfer, storage and trucking depots.

Brady still retained many oil-related companies and small shops, but the area declined in value to Tulsans in tandem with the railroads decline in value. Companies that once might have built near

59 Peter Mayo (owner of the Brady Theater), personal communication with Cathy Ambler, February 10, 2009;  David Sharp (property owner in the Brady area), personal communication with Cathy Ambler, February 4, 2009
rail lines now built in suburbia where it was easier for their trucks to access highways. The center of Tulsa had moved south and east, but the Brady area remained associated, physically and mentally, with the city’s industrial railroad past.

From the 1960s through the 1980s the Brady area waited for a renaissance in use. The KATY railroad tracks and most spurs were torn out in 1964 when construction of the Keystone Dam cut off railroad access to the west. Bargain basement, resale and rummage shops mixed with the remaining industrial buildings. From the city’s planning perspective, the area was to remain a wholesale and distribution center.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, there was renewed interest in Brady, as investors bought old buildings and closed the liquor stores. The clientele that had been using the Brady area began to leave when the arts community, including theater and music groups, began to move in.

Today, the renaissance of the Brady area is underway as property owners rehabilitate warehouses and commercial structures for new uses. Interest in housing close to downtown has prompted developers to see Brady as a prime area for residential investments. State and federal tax credit programs provide incentives to rehabilitate the area’s historic buildings too. The Brady area is known today as an arts district with a distinct historic character in one of the city’s oldest areas.

Additional Registration Requirements

There are three potential historic districts within the Brady area that share a context and development patterns that reflect the evolution and importance of transportation systems in Tulsa’s history. Each of these areas contains a unique collection of commercial and/or industrial property types that are transportation-related. The districts are eligible under Criteria A and C
and have significance in the areas of Architecture, Commerce, Entertainment, Industry, Community Planning and Development, Transportation, and Social History.

The 1962 *Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps* document that vacant space (parking and empty lots) in the Brady districts is sometimes historic. The vacant space provided truck parking, access to warehouses, etc. District nominations should take into consideration the historic open space that contributes to their significance.

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**Figure 7: Map of Brady Historic District**

**Brady Historic District**

- District Resources: 36 buildings; 1 National Register listed; 7 Individually Eligible; 20 Contributing; 8 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1906-1965
• Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19\textsuperscript{th} and Early 20\textsuperscript{th} Century Revival Styles (Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival, Classical Revival); Late 19\textsuperscript{th} and Early 20\textsuperscript{th} Century American Movements (Commercial Style); Modern Movement (Art Deco, Moderne); Other (No Distinctive Style); One-part Commercial Block; Two-part Commercial Block; Two-part Vertical Block; Temple Front; Warehouse/Light Industrial

North Brady Historic District

• District Resources: 11 buildings; 1 National Register listed; 6 Individually Eligible; 3 Contributing; 1 Non-Contributing

• Period of Significance: 1910-1962

• Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19\textsuperscript{th} and Early 20\textsuperscript{th} Century American Movement (Commercial Style), Modern Movement (Moderne, Art Deco); Other (no distinctive style); One-part Commercial Block; Two-part Commercial Block; Warehouse/Light Industrial

![Figure 8: Map of North Brady Historic District](image-url)
South Brady Historic District

- District Resources: 12 buildings and 2 structures; 1 Individually Eligible; 8 Contributing; 5 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1920-1962
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival), Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movement (Commercial Style); Modern Movement (Moderne); Other (no distinctive style); One-part Commercial Block; Two-part Commercial Block; Warehouse/Light Industrial.

Figure 9: Map of South Brady Historic District
**EAST VILLAGE**

**Context**

The history of the East Village is similar to that of the Brady area, but its development reflects the additional influence of three railroads and Route 66. The arrival of the Frisco Railroad brought many types of businesses needing ready access to transportation to the East Village. By 1905, one could find grain elevators, planing mills, lumber yards, and wholesale produce and grocery buildings near the Frisco tracks, as well as many restaurants and hotels that served rail passengers and travelling salesmen.

The discovery of oil brought the Midland Valley and Santa Fe Railroads to Tulsa shortly thereafter (1903 and 1905, respectively). Their tracks ran north/south and also encouraged the construction of nearby businesses. These railroads created a vast number of connections among themselves as they arched through the East Village. Right-of-ways, layers of multiple tracks, and industry spurs and sidings created great areas of open space.

The East Village has some unique landscape features that reflect the alignments of the interconnected tracks, which ran counter to the city’s skewed street grid in many places. The Midland Valley and Santa Fe tracks first angled across Lansing, Greenwood, and Frankfort Avenues before aligning with the street grid along Seventh Street. The tracks left the city street grid again at approximately Twelfth Street and returned to a more direct, southerly direction.

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60 This district retains a passenger station, a freight station, and a freight house: the Midland Valley Railroad Freight Depot (520 East Third), Atchison Topeka and Santa Fe Freight Station (111 S. Elgin), and the Frisco Freight House (4 South Elgin). While the Midland Valley freight depot looks marooned today, the Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps show the area east of this depot full of railroad tracks. The sidings that directly accessed this freight station were along its west side.

61 See historic context for a description of the number of rails, spurs, etc., in Tulsa by the mid-1950s. Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps are also useful for grasping the extent of the track networks.

62 In the Brady area, city blocks align with the skewed city street grid.
The East Village also contains the intersection of the original skewed street grid with a later grid that extends east from downtown, the latter being true to the cardinal points. Street intersections from the two grids do not join well, resulting in curved and angled street connections to accommodate the disparities. These abutting grids also affected building layout. This is particularly evident along Kenosha Avenue where buildings on the west side of the street have angled facades while those on the east do not.

In 1907, a grain company, a garment factory and numerous lumber companies were located along the railroad tracks in the East Village. Only a few years later, another garment factory was in production, as were iron works, a millwork company, and additional planing mills. The number of hotels and lunch locations also grew in response to the increased demand for their services. By 1915, oil-related businesses had developed a presence in the East Village, but the area retained a decidedly mixed-use character into the 1920s. Many companies found the track side lots attractive, but there were also residences and the city constructed several public buildings in the area.

The railroads were not the only transportation route to shape the East Village. Route 66, designated a federal highway in 1926, entered Tulsa from the east on East Second Street and turned south on Detroit Avenue. This influenced auto-related development in the East Village.

As noted in the 1995 National Register Multiple Property Documentation Form for “Route 66 and Associated Historic Resources in Oklahoma,” “hundreds of businesses appeared along its path through Oklahoma to meet the needs of the traveling public.” It was probably the most heavily

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63 Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps, Tulsa (Tulsa County) 1907, 1911.
64 The area bounded by Frankfort Street, Detroit Street, South Fifth Street, and South Eighth Street was largely residential. At South Elgin Avenue and East Fourth Street there was a municipal court, city jail and police station.
traveled east-west highway in the country between 1924 and 1941.\textsuperscript{65} For example, in 1927 at least eighteen hotels in the 200-400 blocks of East Second to Fourth Streets were available to automobile or rail travelers.\textsuperscript{66} By the mid-1930s, tire shops and other automotive services assisting Route 66 travelers and local automobile owners were concentrated along East Second Street (Route 66).\textsuperscript{67}

Through the end of World War II, refinery and oil supply houses, wire rope storage, lumber yards, builders’ storage, a large creamery, and auto service buildings bordered the railroad tracks. A variety of other commercial businesses were sprinkled throughout the East Village and among the apartment buildings and single family houses. Many Tulsa seniors today remember the Coliseum, a large well-used community building that located in the East Village.\textsuperscript{68}

Throughout its history and into the early 1960s, the East Village retained its distinct mixed-use character. It was filled with small commercial buildings, warehouses, manufacturers, storage buildings, oil- and automobile-related businesses, hotels, and residences. There was a commercial strip along East First Street. The area had blocks of parking, and an abundance of railroad tracks and spurs laced the area.\textsuperscript{69}

The importance of the East Village ebbed as the railroads declined. By 1933 the official route of Route 66 also moved south to Eleventh Street, reducing the influence of this highway on this area. Many of the existing oil-related industries survived until the oil “bust’’ in the 1980s, after

\textsuperscript{65} Meacham, “Route 66 and Associated Historic Resources in Oklahoma,” E-8.
\textsuperscript{66} Polk’s Tulsa City Directory, (Kansas City, MO and Tulsa, OK: R.L. Polk & Co, 1927), 813-814.
\textsuperscript{67} The businesses along East Second Street (Route 66) were mostly tire shops. The 1927 city directory shows fifteen auto-related repair or supply businesses located along the 200 to 400 blocks of East Second and Fourth Streets. Polk’s Tulsa City Directory, 1927, 786-787.
\textsuperscript{68} This large building occupied one-half block along Elgin Avenue between South Fifth and Sixth Streets.
which various buildings were abandoned or their use changed. This was also the decade when the rails, spurs and sidings were removed, although the open spaces that held the tracks are still very evident. Urban Renewal led to the demolition of many small buildings in the East Village and created additional empty space for parking. Despite these losses, the East Village retains a significant collection of buildings that document the history of the area.

Additional Registration Requirements

Three historic districts in the East Village, one large and two small, share a historic context related to the evolution of transportation and industry. Each of these areas contains a unique collection of commercial and industrial property types that are transportation-related. The districts appear eligible for listing in the National Register under Criteria A and C and have significance in the areas of Architecture, Commerce, Communication, Community Planning and Development, Industry, Military, Social History, and Transportation.

The 1962 Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps show that some vacant space in the East Village area is historic. Historic vacant space is associated with now-absent railroad tracks and with historic automobile parking. District nominations should take into consideration the historic open space that contributes to their significance.

East Village Historic District

- District Resources: 71 buildings; 6 Individually Eligible; 38 Contributing; 27 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1905-1962
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Mission/Spanish Revival); Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Commercial Style); Modern Movement (International Style, Moderne, Art Deco); Other (No
Distinctive Style); One-part Commercial Block; Two-part Commercial Block; Arcade Front; Free-standing Commercial Block; Two-part Vertical Block; Warehouse/Light Industrial.

Figure 10: Map of East Village Historic District
South Lansing Historic District

- District Resources: 3 buildings; 3 Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1920-1930
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Commercial Style); Other (no distinctive style); One-part Commercial Block; Two-part Commercial Block; Warehouse/Light Industrial.

![Map of South Lansing and South Kenosha Historic Districts]

South Kenosha Historic District

- District Resources: 3 buildings; 1 Individually Eligible; 2 Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1925-1936
- Property Architectural Styles and Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Commercial Style); Other (no distinctive style); One-part Commercial Block; Two-part Commercial Block; Warehouse/Light Industrial

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Tulsa Intensive Level IDL Survey
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GREENWOOD HISTORIC COMMERCIAL DISTRICT

Context

African Americans came to Oklahoma during territorial days as slaves to whites or Native Americans.\(^7\) After the Civil War, African Americans who had either been freed by their white or Native American owners, or had freed themselves, settled in the Tulsa area.

Many settled in rural regions of what would become the State of Oklahoma. These pioneers established all-black towns such as Red Bird, Tullahassee, Boley, Rentiesville and Taft.\(^7\) Many who settled in these communities were economically successful and self-sufficient as business entrepreneurs and managed their community’s affairs.\(^2\) A continuing quest to better their lives led many to Tulsa, especially after oil was discovered. When the Cushing oil field opened in 1912, unheard of riches created economic opportunities for both African Americans and whites. Some African Americans who came to Tulsa were long-time residents of the state, and they brought to the community their experience in self-sufficiency and self-government and their deep pride in the vitality of African American community life.\(^3\)

Many African Americans first settled near the railroad tracks in Tulsa’s Brady area, a location considered undesirable by many whites. By 1906, the Greenwood neighborhood and commercial

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\(^7\) National Park Service, “Final 1921 Tulsa Race Riot Reconnaissance Survey” (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, November 2005), 15, says there were fifty all-black towns. However, this number varies among authors.

\(^2\) Alison Zarrow, Wish You Were Here: Oklahoma's All Black Towns 100 Years after Statehood (n.p.: Alison Zarrow, 2007), 9. Zarrow suggests there were over sixty all-black towns in Tulsa.

area spread north from the corner of Greenwood Avenue and Archer Street. The commercial
district was known as "Deep Greenwood".74

Like any other community, Greenwood had a mixed profile of residents. Residents included
those who were well-off, middle class, and poor. Many poorer residents worked for whites as
house servants in residential areas south of the downtown. Greenwood was also home to a large
number of African American professionals and businessmen – doctors, lawyers, ministers,
dentists, real estate agents, newspaper editors, and merchants. Greenwood merchants provided
services and access to goods that residents could not get in other parts of the city where
segregation excluded them, and Tulsa African Americans spent their money in Greenwood where
they were welcome. The area developed a life and reputation distinct from the rest of the city.
By 1921, Greenwood had a population of approximately 11,000.75 Residents later remembered
that Greenwood sustained a strong sense of African American culture; it was a place of security
and safety in the unsafe world in which they lived.76

In 1921, Tulsa experienced a devastating race riot, believed by some historians to be the worst in
the United States. There was little left of Greenwood as houses, churches, commercial buildings,
homes, hotels, and boarding houses were burned. Despite the losses, residents of Greenwood
began rebuilding almost immediately. Within a year, new buildings replaced many that had been
destroyed. Burned-out building shells were torn down and new buildings were constructed.77

Historian Scott Ellsworth has observed that "the rebuilding of African American Tulsa....,

74 Ibid. Also see James S. Hirsch, Riot and Remembrance: The Tulsa Race War and Its Legacy (New York:
Houghton Mifflin Company, 2002), 30-31. Hirsch says the street was named for Greenwood,
Mississippi.
76 Eddie Faye Gates, They Came Searching: How African Americans Sought the Promised Land in Tulsa
(Austin, Texas: Eakin Press, 1997). This is a book of testimonials, most of which describe the
Greenwood community.
77 Hannibal B. Johnson, Black Wall Street: From Riot to Renaissance in Tulsa’s Historic Greenwood
particularly that of ‘Deep Greenwood,’ is a story [of] almost as great importance as the riot itself.” 78

The new buildings in Greenwood were similar in size, style, and materials as the pre-riot originals. Many even followed the footprints of burned out buildings. Figure 16 uses information from the 2005 National Park Service 1921 Race Riot Report and Tulsa city directories to show how quickly the Greenwood business area was reconstructed.79

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<th>1920</th>
<th>1921</th>
<th>1922</th>
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<tr>
<td>Business Establishments</td>
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<tr>
<td>Skilled Crafts Persons</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Workers</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Greenwood quickly returned to a thriving business and entertainment center, although the separation between African American and white communities persisted until well after World War II.80 In 1941-42, nearly 20,000 African Americans resided in Greenwood, and the Greenwood business district had 242 African American-owned and operated businesses.81

Greenwood has changed significantly since World War II. Many residential and commercial properties were lost in the late 1950s during construction of the IDL. Urban Renewal later demolished vast numbers of houses. With the end of segregation in the 1960s, many African American-owned businesses moved out of Greenwood, but a small commercial district with one-

two-, and three-story brick commercial buildings survives along a short block of Greenwood Avenue between Archer Street and the IDL.  

The Greenwood Commercial District was slated for removal by the Tulsa Development Authority (successor to TURA) in the 1970s but the local African American community fought to keep this important area that is so strongly associated with their cultural history and with the riot. While the buildings stood vacant for nearly two decades, the African American community worked closely with Tulsa Development Authority to rehabilitate these buildings during the 1980s.

The Greenwood commercial district has, according to the National Park Service, the “highest degree of integrity and contains the largest concentration of extant resources associated with the [1921 Tulsa race] riot.” To the African American community, it retains a high degree of significance as a cultural landscape. The National Park Service definition of a cultural landscape is significant; it is a geographic area associated with a historic event that exhibits cultural values, such as an ethnographic landscape. Ethnographic landscape is further defined by the National Park Service as a landscape containing cultural resources that associated people define as a heritage resource. No other landscape in Tulsa signifies to the city’s African American population the tenacity of their community after an attempt to destroy it; it is symbolic of the community’s survival and a cultural landscape of African American identity.

Additional Registration Requirements

82 Ibid., 45.
83 The 1980s rehabilitation included removal of some of the rear portions of the Greenwood Avenue buildings. Facades remain intact, although they received new windows and in some cases, ground level storefronts.
The Greenwood Historic District reflects significant cultural associations with Tulsa’s African American community. The district appears eligible for listing in the National Register under Criterion A for the areas of Ethnic Heritage and Community Planning and Development.

- District Resources: 10 buildings; 9 Contributing; 1 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1922-1960
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Commercial Style); Other (no distinctive style; and One- and Two-Part Commercial Blocks.

![Figure 13: Map of the Greenwood Historic District](image)
DOWNTOWN COMMERCIAL HISTORIC DISTRICT

Context

Tulsa’s Main Street was aptly named in 1901, because it was the most important commercial street in the city. It was lined with one- and two-story general stores, barbers, jewelers, bakers and meat markets -- commercial establishments that provided services for the basic needs of the small community.

When the oil boom began, it did not take long to affect downtown buildings. In 1905, the First National Bank constructed the town’s first five-story building. As the city experienced an escalating demand for all types of new buildings and residences, commercial buildings were under construction along, and at an increasingly growing distance from, Main Street. Oil companies, large and small, established headquarters in Tulsa, and hotels, housing both long-term residents and temporary visitors, were constructed to meet the needs of the now oil-focused town.

City directories show the dramatic growth in new office space. In 1910 Tulsa had just sixteen office buildings. That number grew to seventy in 1913, and to ninety-three by 1916.86

According to the WPA Guide to the 1930s Oklahoma, an estimated 540 oil companies still made Tulsa their home at the end of the Depression.87

One of the most important areas for new construction just after World War I was along Boston Avenue. While Main Street between First and Third Streets was the original focal point of the

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nascent city, Boston Avenue south of Third Street still had vacant land. The downtown buildings that had emerged on Main Street were generally one to three stories tall. If an entrepreneur wished to build a new office tower, there was generally insufficient vacant property along Main Street. In 1915, Boston Avenue was the location of the city’s high school, and was almost entirely residential south of Fifth Street. The move to displace houses with skyscrapers was inevitable. Wealthy oilmen wanted to build visual testaments to their wealth. Fourth and Boston was topographically one of the highest points in downtown Tulsa, which only enhanced the significance of the buildings lining its route.

Boston Avenue became the most important location in downtown Tulsa. Skyscrapers lined the avenue, including the Cosden Building, the Atlas Life Building, the Thompson Building, and the Philtower. These and numerous other office buildings were associated either with the oil-rich men who built them, served as headquarters for oil companies, or supported a host of companies and employees meeting the financial and legal needs of the oil industry. Banks that started on Main Street also relocated to Boston Avenue.

Twenty-three new buildings rose in downtown Tulsa between 1920 and 1929. The start of the Great Depression depressed the oil market, and the drop in oil prices stopped building in Tulsa almost completely. Only seven new buildings were constructed during the depression, and during the war years of the early 1940s, there were no new buildings.

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88 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map, Tulsa (Tulsa County), 1915.
89 The National Bank of Tulsa occupied the entire west side of Boston Avenue between Third and Forth Streets.
90 These buildings were under construction before the depression’s affects were felt: Union Station, Philcade and Pan Am Building. Also erected during this period were the Amerada Hess Building (Community Care), the First National Bank, and the Service Pipeline Building (Arco).
When construction funds and materials became available again after World War II, the Downtown Commercial Historic District strengthened its position as the city’s commercial heart. Oil companies, banks, savings and loans, communication companies and the Chamber of Commerce built within the heart of Tulsa’s downtown, sometimes replacing existing buildings to be in this location. Urban Renewal in the late 1960s and 1970s made many of these new buildings possible through public/private partnerships.

The continued emphasis on downtown as “the” place for commerce in Tulsa worsened the parking situation. The surging popularity of automobiles in the years leading up to World War I (enhanced by Tulsa’s role in the oil industry) made parking downtown increasingly difficult. After World War II rapid suburban expansion moved workers further and further out from the city core. Planned Urban Renewal projects necessitated the removal of almost all housing within the IDL by the late 1960s. The loss of downtown residents only exacerbated traffic and parking demands.

A variety of solutions were employed to meet parking needs. Empty lots where houses once stood were used for surface parking; sometimes older buildings were gutted to provide indoor parking; or buildings were demolished to create surface parking lots. Small parking garages appeared in the 1920s, but in 1955, the first large parking garage was constructed at East Fourth Street and South Cincinnati Avenue.91

The Downtown Commercial Historic District distinguishes itself from other parts of the survey area because it maintains a density of commercial buildings that other areas within the city core

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91 The K. C. Auto Hotel on South Cincinnati was constructed in 1928 and is only extant small parking garage. Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps, Tulsa (Tulsa County) 1962.
lack. Is important to consider, however, that parking lots and garages can be historic; many are significant sites and buildings that were developed to accommodate the automobile, which was critical to so much of Tulsa’s history.

New buildings constructed in the city core during the post-World War II era reflect the architectural trends of the time – glass and steel mixed with traditional masonry; Art Deco and Modern Movement designs mixed with Beaux Arts classicism; high rises mixed with sprawling horizontal modern forms. Local and national architecture firms were hired to create iconic designs that conveyed stability, confidence and modernity. The Downtown Commercial Historic District captures the evolutionary nature of this commercial area. Whether old or new, the district maintained importance as the city’s business center until the oil depression of the 1980s.

**Additional Registration Requirements**

There are two possible scenarios for nominating a Downtown Commercial Historic District to the National Register. Both district configurations appear to meet National Park Service requirements. They vary in the number of properties encompassed and in their period of significance. Both include a number of buildings that also appear to be individually eligible for register listing. The decision about which approach to follow may reflect available funding, property owner interest, and a general willingness to include Urban Renewal buildings. Either district would be eligible under National Register Criteria A and C with significance in the areas of: Architecture, Commerce, Communication, Community Planning and Development, Communication, Education, Politics/Government, Social History, Religion and Transportation.

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92 Some parking was a result of Urban Renewal, and these lots await new construction; some are private parking lots for specific building or business use.
Downtown Commercial Historic District – Option 1

The first Downtown Commercial Historic District option would recognize a small cluster of buildings roughly located along Third and Fourth Streets, between South Main Street and South Cincinnati Avenue. The boundary is drawn tightly around ten buildings, and excludes many nearby buildings that are already listed on the National Register or that appear to be individually eligible. If this district option were pursued, it is assumed that property owners would independently nominate the other individually eligible downtown commercial properties. This approach also emphasizes the oldest buildings remaining in the downtown area and excludes Urban Renewal buildings.

- District Resources: 10 buildings; 2 Individually Eligible; 5 Contributing; 3 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1910-1960
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Mid-19th Century (Gothic Revival); Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Classical Revival and Beaux Arts); Modern Movement (Moderne, Art Deco); Two-and Three-part Vertical Blocks; Stepped Vertical Block; and Two-part Commercial Blocks.

Downtown Commercial Historic District – Option 2

The second possible configuration for the Downtown Commercial Historic District is larger in size than the first, encompassing an area approximately from Third to Seventh Streets and from South Boulder to South Cincinnati Avenues. This larger district would include seventy-two resources, including buildings already listed on the National Register and Urban Renewal properties.

Urban Renewal properties that are less than fifty years old can be integral parts of a historic district when there is sufficient perspective to consider their historic significance. This is accomplished by demonstrating that: (a) the district's period of significance is justified as a discrete period with a defined beginning and end; (b) the character of the district's historic
resources is clearly defined and assessed; (c) specific resources in the district are demonstrated to date from that discrete era; and, (d) the majority of district properties are over fifty years old. In these instances it is not necessary to prove exceptional importance of either the district itself or of the less-than-fifty-year-old properties.\(^93\) It appears that this proposed district would meet these four conditions.

- **District Resources:** 69 buildings 2 sites and 1 object; 14 National Register listed; 20 Individually Eligible; 23 Contributing; 15 Non-Contributing
- **Period of Significance:** 1910-1974

\(^93\) National Park Service, “National Register Bulletin 15.”
• Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Mid-19th Century (Greek Revival, Gothic Revival); Late Victorian (Italianate); Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Classical Revival and Beaux Arts); Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Commercial Style, Craftsman), Modern Movement (Moderne, Art Deco); Arcade Front; Free-standing Commercial Block; Free-Standing Tower; Stepped Vertical Block; Two- and Three-part Vertical Blocks; One- and Two-part Commercial Block; Warehouse/Light Industrial

CIVIC CENTER HISTORIC DISTRICT

Context

After World War II, most cities in the United States faced multiple problems, including the natural decline of early commercial buildings, many of which were not well-maintained during the lean years of the Great Depression. Cities like Tulsa had evolved with traditional approaches to development, concentrating commercial activity along specific streets. City government was often scattered in various buildings, placed where convenient at the time and expanded when increased services were required.

Growth began to expand outside downtown Tulsa during the 1920s, as the automobile changed how people used space. In an effort to plan a different city and to enhance its value to residents as a place to do business and shop, redesigning downtown was appealing, especially with a city or civic center that would concentrate public services in one location.

One of the first civic center plans for Tulsa was drafted in 1924. It reflects its era, with a large new train station as its hub. A large plaza with a library, county building, federal building, municipal building and auditorium, and hall of records all faced the train station. As soon as the
late 1920s, Tulsa’s mayor and a city engineer planned the first version of what would become the Inner Dispersal Loop, eventually approved by voters in 1957.94

In 1943, a citizen’s committee proposed the next version of a city-county-civic center. It included an office tower, an auditorium, buildings for county courts and city courts, convention rooms, a jail, and a helicopter pad. 95 It also aimed to reverse downtown decline by creating a governmental use focal point.96

The public voted to purchase six blocks of land for a Civic Center complex in 1954.97 A progression of architectural plans for the Center began with architects Murray McCune in 1954 and the Architectural League of Tulsa in 1955.98 These plans helped the city develop a wish list of desired buildings and functions for this complex. They included a city hall, a courts and police building, an auditorium, an exhibition hall, a small assembly and meeting location, a theater, a new building for the Gilcrease Museum, an art library, a national oil museum, federal offices and courts buildings, and state offices.99

Only the County Court House was constructed by the end of 1955, but its presence sparked the interest of local architects in completing the Civic Center. In 1959, the Tulsa firm Murray Jones

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94 Goble, Tulsa: Biography of an American City, 248, 254.
95 “Post-war Planners Recommend Huge City-County-Civic Center,” Tulsa Tribune, December 8, 1943.
96 Derek Lee, “Three Failed Attempts Undertaken by the City of Tulsa to Revitalize Downtown Tulsa,” document prepared for Lee’s master’s thesis, provided to the authors by Mr. Lee March 25, 2009, 7.
97 Two more blocks were then added and included many early Tulsans’ homes.
98 This plan received international acclaim from S. Giedion, an internationally recognized architectural critic in his book, Architektur Und Gemeinschaft: Tagebuch einer Entwicklung. See Oklahoma Today, Fall 1958, Vol. 8, #4, 10.
Murray teamed with New York Architect Edward Durell Stone and presented their plan to complete the Civic Center.\footnote{100}

That same year, architects Harold Wise, Larry Smith, Richard Neutra and Robert Alexander (WSNA) also presented their “Plan for Central Tulsa” to the city.\footnote{101} Based on Modernist planning and architectural ideas, WSNA’s plan recommended building more than just a city-county civic center; it included a traffic-free mall on South Main Street, a courthouse, an oil mart, a transportation center, a civic center with coliseum, a library, a city hall, and a new federal building. The plan actually included all of the ideas the Architectural League had previously presented, but added recommendations for making major streets one-way and suggested how major streets should connect to the planned IDL.\footnote{102}

The WSNA plan went even further beyond the civic realm of earlier plans. It included high-rise apartments and the development of Cathedral Square near the grouping of historic churches south of the commercial district (near South Boulder Avenue and Tenth Street).\footnote{103} Their 1959 plan addressed other parts of Tulsa as well and suggested, for example, that the Brady area and the East Village should retain their light industrial status.\footnote{104} The WSNA laid the foundation for most of the Urban Renewal projects that would change downtown. City leaders incorporated their suggested projects into the City’s first official plan in 1960.\footnote{105}

\footnote{100} David Murray (retired, of the architectural firm Murray Jones Murray), personal communication with Cathy Ambler, May 7, 2009. Also see Lee, “Three Failed Attempts,” 9-13.
\footnote{102} The IDL was finally completed in the late 1980s, five years behind the projected date, and encircling the core. The long term effects of creating a downtown island had yet to be understood.
\footnote{103} The apartment buildings that WSNA proposed were completed during Urban Renewal in an area between Main Street and Cheyenne Avenue, from Ninth to Thirteenth Streets.
\footnote{105} “Famed Architect Stone, Center Planners Confer,” \textit{Tulsa World}, June 27, 1959. This article confirms that WSNA did “much of the work on the central business district plan.”
When it came time to complete the Civic Center, it was a group of Tulsa architects, overseen by Robert Lawton Jones, who fleshed out the final designs. Construction of the Civic Center buildings happened over a relatively short period of time with financial help from TURA to complete the project.

The Civic Center today remains a significant governmental site in Tulsa. While most city offices have moved to a new building at One Technology Center, the Civic Center retains its original plan and has a strong identity as a governmental center for city and county activities. The Civic Center is an important designed space and was listed as one of the world’s top twenty-three architectural achievements during the twentieth century by a German publication (1955), *Architektur Und Geminschaft: Tagebuch einer Entwicklung*, by Siegfried Giedion.

**Additional Registration Requirements**

This complex has exceptional significance to the City of Tulsa. Plans for the development began in the 1920s and were finally fully executed in 1975. The Center received international recognition and fulfilled the city’s desire to create a unified governmental center, intended to inspire Tulsa residents to use the downtown. This district is best understood within the framework of Tulsa’s civic history; there are no other districts with similar properties in Tulsa that portray the same values or associations with the historical long-term development and success of the Civic Center. The Civic Center Historic District appears to meet the requirements for National Register eligibility under Criteria A and C as well as the requirements of Criteria Consideration G. It has significance in the areas of Architecture, Landscape Architecture, City Planning and Development, and Politics/Government.

106 The Board of Design included: Donald McCormick (chairman), Frederick Vance Kershner, Joseph Koberling, Murray M. McCune, David G. Murray, Leon B. Senter, Sr., R. E. West, and Robert Jones (project manager).

107 Since the Civic Center was not complete at the time, Giedion was praising the plan.
• District Resources: 8 buildings and one site (landscaped plaza); 8 Individually Eligible; 1 Non-Contributing
• Period of Significance: 1955 – 1975
• Associated Architectural Styles: Modern Movement; Other (No Distinct Style)

Figure 15: Map of the Civic Center Historic District
CATHEDRAL SQUARE HISTORIC DISTRICT\textsuperscript{108}

Context

As noted in the WSNA “Plan for Central Tulsa,” at the intersection of West Tenth/Eleventh Streets and South Boulder Avenue there is a cluster of early-twentieth century churches representing Catholic, Christian, First United Methodist and Christian Science denominations. The WSNA plan viewed these buildings as symbols of Tulsa’s rich religious heritage and of religious tolerance and cooperation. WSNA proposed landscape plans that would provide the churches with a much more park-like setting. The Tulsa Metropolitan Area Planning Commission embraced the proposal in 1959, as did the religious leaders from the four churches.\textsuperscript{109}

WSNA offered the Cathedral Square improvements as a means of addressing the awkwardness of Tulsa’s street grid. At Boulder Avenue and Tenth and Eleventh Streets, the skewed street grid of downtown intersects with a grid oriented to the cardinal points.\textsuperscript{110} At Tenth Street (also Route 66) Boulder Avenue travelers going west made a sharp left to return to Eleventh Street. Odd projections of land and nearby buildings made this transition difficult to navigate either quickly or easily. The WSNA plan recommended improving an extended area “between Main Street and Cheyenne Avenue and Ninth and Thirteenth Streets,” and included removing houses within this area to create large off-street parking lots for the churches. The plan suggested that landscaping would enhance the expanding Boulder Avenue office building district just to the south as well as the central business district to the north.

\textsuperscript{108} “Tulsa Historic Preservation Resource Document,” Tulsa Preservation Commission and the City of Tulsa’s Urban Development Department, September 1997, 68-70. This document identifies this district as eligible for register listing.


\textsuperscript{110} In 1939, a house jutted into the street as it aligned with the original skewed plat.
Like many aspects of the WSNA plan, the City eventually carried out the recommendations for Cathedral Square. Houses were removed for parking, and the intersections of Boulder Avenue with Tenth and Eleventh Streets were realigned c. 1972. In 1976 Charles E. Thornton, Director of the Reading and Bates Oil Company, funded Tulsa architect Gene Starr to draw plans for a small city park in the vacant triangle of land just north of the First Methodist Church. The park was completed that same year.\(^{111}\)

Additional Registration Requirements

The five churches that comprise Cathedral Square appear to form a historic district that is eligible for listing in the National Register under Criteria A and C. For its association with the WSNA plan, the park would be a contributing site under Criteria Consideration G. The five main church buildings date from 1912 to 1928. All face Boulder Avenue and are similar in mass, scale, setbacks and height. Each is individually eligible for listing in the National Register; Holy Family Catholic Church is already a listed property. The landscape surrounding the buildings reflects the planning recommendations prepared by a leading team of architects in 1959. Although aspects of the plan were not executed until the 1970s, the churches as a group have a distinct visual cohesiveness enhanced by the landscaped park, a contributing site. The intersection, park and churches create a distinctive corner that completes WSNA’s vision for improving this area and emphasizes the significance of the churches. The district has significance in the areas of Architecture, Community Planning and Development, and Landscape Architecture.

- District Resources: 13 buildings; 3 National Register listed; 2 Individually Eligible; 3 Contributing; 5 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1912 -- 1976

\(^{111}\) Gene Starr, AIA, personal communication with Cathy Ambler, May 18, 2009 and May 19, 2009. Mr. Starr has original drawings of the park. The reconfiguration of this intersection likely occurred when an approach to the IDL was required. The southern portion of the IDL was under construction in 1970. The First Methodist Church maintains this park for the city.
• Associated Architectural Styles: Mid-19th Century (Gothic Revival, Greek Revival); Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Late Gothic Revival, Classical Revival); and Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Craftsman).

![Figure 16: Map of the Cathedral Square Historic District](image)

**URBAN RENEWAL**

**Context**

Urban Renewal was perhaps one of the most significant periods in Tulsa’s building history. As Richard Longstreth has noted, Urban Renewal was “the creation of downtown property owners and business interests who, beginning in the 1930s, sought to stem what they saw as a steadily
advancing tide of abandonment and decline….“112 With the availability of federal funds for redevelopment and oil companies, banks, and the city looking for modern images, Urban Renewal was welcomed in Tulsa. Tulsa projects funded by this federal program redefined the built environment within the IDL. The Tulsa Urban Renewal Agency (TURA) eliminated almost all single-family residences and most multi-family residences, small hotels and early commercial buildings, wanting to replace them with much larger and more-complex office, governmental and institutional structures.

To achieve this new city vision, TURA used federal money beginning in the 1960s to demolish early twentieth-century buildings, completely level and clear multiple city blocks, and build new mid-century architecture on the empty spaces.113 Public/private partnerships developed, for example, the Holiday Inn (now Downtown Plaza), the Petroleum Building and the Fourth National Bank Tower (BOA) complex.

TURA funds helped facilitate the completion of the in-progress Civic Center, clear land for the Williams Center, erect state office buildings, build housing for the elderly, and construct the Main Street Mall. Multiple building projects began as banks and oil companies in public/private cooperation built new downtown skyscrapers. As larger office buildings began to rise, in some cases parking garages accompanied their construction for commuting workers. Two high-rise apartment buildings were also constructed.

From parking garages to credit union buildings, TURA funds also helped develop Tulsa Community College between Boston and Cincinnati Avenues and Ninth and Tenth Streets, integrating old and new buildings into a campus block. Tulsa’s Urban Renewal projects were generally successful, especially when compared to other cities whose projects were less so.

During the years 1972-1978, Mayor Robert LaFortune led Tulsa in the development of a new city plan, Vision 2000. The plan tried to address the city’s pattern of unbalanced growth to the south and east by encouraging more development to the west and north and in the central city. It also encouraged more cluster development in various urban centers and in existing suburbs.\textsuperscript{114}

A blow to Vision 2000’s goal of a growth management plan (similar to one adopted in Portland, Oregon) came in the mid-1970s when the idea lost political support. City leaders feared the loss of development within the community if builders saw restrictions on where they could build. Along with an end to some hope of controlled growth, planning efforts moved to the city/county entity, Indian Nations Council of Governments (INCOG), which was established in 1967 when the federal government wanted more coordination of funding for its model cities program, water treatment facilities, and roads, bridges and highway funds.\textsuperscript{115}

Urban Renewal in Tulsa was more successful than in other cities, but over the long term its effect in reviving the city core fell short of expectations. The Civic Center Complex, the Main Mall and Urban Renewal were linked attempts to renew downtown as a retail, entertainment and business center.

center and were only partially successful.\textsuperscript{116} When the city’s dominant oil economy ended in the 1980s, and as major oil companies left for Houston, downtown building vacancy rates rose. The Main Street Mall, between Fourth and Sixth Streets, proposed in 1959 and constructed in 1976, was removed in 2006.

TURA’s funding mechanism changed in 1974, when the federal government switched funding from direct grants to community block grants. In 1987, TURA became the Tulsa Development Authority. This agency exists today and continues to promote development in Tulsa, many times on land that was cleared during Urban Renewal.

**Additional Registration Requirements**

Preparation of an MPS would create a cohesive approach to identifying, recognizing and protecting the resources in downtown Tulsa funded by TURA using monies from the federal Urban Renewal program. These resources are spread over large areas within the IDL, and could be nominated either in small districts or individually in association with the Multiple Property context. One large, potential historic district that shares this context is discussed below. When the buildings or the TURA planning documents for the project reach fifty years of age, the individual buildings or district appear to be eligible for listing in the National Register under Criteria A and C with significance in the areas of Architecture, Community Planning and Development, Landscape Architecture, and Social History. Because Urban Renewal projects have not yet reached fifty years of age, it is possible that some of these resources may also meet the requirements of Criteria Consideration G.\textsuperscript{117}

\textsuperscript{116} Lee, “Three Failed Attempts.”

\textsuperscript{117} As noted in the methodology, every project funded by the Tulsa Urban Development Authority has not been identified. The authority’s records should provide a more complete list.
The Williams Center Historic District

Context

One of the most significant and important projects built in downtown Tulsa was the Williams Center.\textsuperscript{118} It aimed to address the need for balanced development described in the Vision 2000 plan. TURA originally coalesced downtown commercial properties through eminent domain for a planned Metro Center. Demolition of early Tulsa buildings between Second and Third Streets and Cheyenne and Cincinnati Avenues was well underway by early 1968.\textsuperscript{119} These were a northern fringe of older, smaller, mostly two- to three-story masonry buildings that lined the streets near the Frisco tracks. When the Williams Company and Harnett-Shaw Development of Chicago unveiled plans for the Williams Center on November 20, 1971, they had TURA and city approval to replace the planned Metro Center.\textsuperscript{120} With available TURA land, the Williams Company then used private funds to erect the new office buildings and to make landscape and site improvements. The Williams Center represents the single largest investment of this type made in downtown Tulsa during the 1970s to early 1980s.\textsuperscript{121}

The 1971 Williams Plan\textsuperscript{122} shows the proposed elements of the project, including the Performing Arts Center, Williams Green, Westin Hotel, large office building, Bank of Oklahoma Tower,

\textsuperscript{118} Tulsa’s mayor at the time, Robert LaFortune, noted that the Williams Center “saved downtown from becoming a ghost town in the 1970s.” “Williams @ 100,” http://www.tulsapeople-digital.com/tulsapeople/200807?pg=36&search_term=william&search_term=william#pg36, (referenced September 11, 2009), 37.


\textsuperscript{120} Jane Erwin, “Happy 10\textsuperscript{th} Birthday to You,” \textit{Tulsa World}, December 21, 1986.

\textsuperscript{121} Jerry Sutton, director of TURA at the time, noted that it was probably the largest private/public development west of the Mississippi. See \textit{TDA History of Tulsa Development}, videocassette (Tulsa, OK: Phipps and Company and Tulsa Development Authority, April 19, 1996). The video was provided to the authors by Tulsa Foundation for Architecture.

\textsuperscript{122} Williams Center, Williams Companies Brochure, Tulsa Public Library, Call Number: 711.40976696 W67, [1975]. The library estimated the publication date for this undated brochure. Plans for the Williams Center were completed in 1971, but the brochure may be a later Williams Company publication.
shopping center with ice rink, and parking garages.\footnote{Only one parking garage south of the complex was constructed; there is also underground parking below the complex.} The William Center plan was executed between 1973 and 1982. Today, this area includes the above buildings and landscaped areas (less one parking garage) plus an additional office tower. It is also perhaps one of the most architecturally-significant concentrations of buildings in the survey area. Nationally and internationally prominent architects and landscape architects designed the buildings and grounds of the Williams Center.

![Williams Center Plan from the Williams Companies Brochure](image)

\textbf{Figure 17: Williams Center Plan from the Williams Companies Brochure}

The Bank of Oklahoma Tower and the Performing Arts Center were designed by Minoru Yamasaki from Troy, Michigan, architect of the New York World Trade Center towers. Ground was broken for the buildings in 1973.\footnote{“Williams @ 100.”} Yamasaki worked for prominent architectural firms in
New York until 1949, and then organized his own company. In 1951 he designed the Lambert-St. Louis Municipal Air Terminal. He also designed the United States Consulate in Kobe, Japan, among other buildings.

Sasaki Associates, of Watertown, Massachusetts, developed the landscape plan for the Williams Green. Hideo Sasaki founded the firm that would evolve into Sasaki Associates in 1953, the same year he joined the faculty at Harvard University. From 1958 to 1968, Sasaki was chairman of Harvard's Landscape Architecture Department. He is credited with helping modernize the study of landscape architecture, uniting it with larger issues of city planning.

The parking garage was designed by C. F. Murphy Associates of Chicago, a firm that designed McCormick Place, Chicago, 1971, and the Richard Daley Center, Chicago, 1965.

Other architectural firms affiliated with the project were Neuhaus and Taylor, Houston, architects for the 1976 hotel, and 3D International, also of Houston, designers of the 1981-82 Triangles office towers (Neuhaus & Taylor merged with MEP to become 3D International).125

The Boston Street Park, which connects Williams Center to the Brady area, is also part of this district. The landscaping was completed by Urban Design Group of Tulsa.

Additional Registration Requirements

The Williams Center Historic District appears eligible for listing in the National Register for its associations with Urban Renewal when the Williams Center plan reaches fifty years of age in 2021. It is a locally significant planned development that had a tremendous impact on the

125 Modifications to the Forum were made by the architecture firms 3DI in 1995 and Page Zebrowski in 2000.
environment of downtown Tulsa and it represents a unique and very large public/private development within the IDL. It is also notable as the work of a series of extremely prominent architects and landscape architects from its period of construction.

Figure 18: Map of the Williams Center Historic District
• District Resources: 8 buildings and 2 sites (landscaped plazas); 0 National Register listed; 8 Individually Eligible; 2 Non-Contributing

• Period of Significance: 1975-1982

• Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Modern Movement; Free-Standing Tower

RESIDENTIAL DISTRICTS

Context

The area within Tulsa’s IDL was once filled with single and multi-family housing, including residential hotels. Typical of most urban areas at the turn of the twentieth century, most people lived near where they worked, and it was common to find these three types of housing mixed in a single neighborhood. As Tulsa grew, however, residential areas expanded outward from the city core. The new developments took on a more suburban character, often platted specifically for single-family houses.

There were two significant periods of housing construction in Tulsa. The first occurred after the initial oil boom. As the population exploded, the demand for housing spread development out from the city core to the north, northwest and to the east. Both population figures and city directories reflect this trend. At the turn of the century, the town had about 1,390 residents; by 1910, the population was 18,182. A 1909 city directory shows the original town site expanded by forty-four new housing additions. In 1910, the number increased to fifty-five; just one year later, sixty-four additions were listed. During this period working-class housing was constructed near Central Park and close to railroad tracks, while new housing additions for the upper-class were built south and west (outside) of the IDL.126

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126 Cynthia Savage, National Register Nomination for “Stonebraker Heights Historic District,” [2007], 8:38.
As oil prices remained high through the 1920s, Tulsa continued to experience a huge population influx. The city’s population grew over 300 percent to reach 72,075 in 1920; by 1930, it nearly doubled again to 141,258. During this second period of growth, the city continued to expand well beyond the core.\footnote{Cathy Ambler, National Register Nomination for “Sixth Street Commercial/Residential Historic District,” 2009, 8:7.} Trolley lines were laid around the city to improve transportation access to downtown business and shops for residents commuting from the developing suburban areas.

By 1915, almost all of the area within the IDL was dense with commercial buildings and housing, though very little housing remains today. While several solitary houses or apartment buildings remain scattered within the IDL, almost all of the residential neighborhoods were demolished in the late 1960s during the development of the Civic Center and for anticipated Urban Renewal projects.\footnote{In 1959, there were some 2400 multi-family units. See “Plan for Central Tulsa,” 7. The 2009 survey indicates thirty-one single family residences, but most of these are in the Elm Park Addition (Gunboat area). There are twenty-six multiple family residences.}

**Additional Registration Requirements**

Three residential areas survive within the IDL that share a historic context reflecting the development of housing in downtown Tulsa. Each of these areas is a rare surviving collection of residential development that was largely removed during the 1960s and 1970s. They each represent the large number of single and multi-family residences that were once a distinct part of the city’s core. The districts appear eligible for listing in the National Register under Criteria A and C. They have significance in the areas of Architecture, Community Planning and Development, and Social History.
12th and Carson Historic District
The 12th and Carson Historic District was developed as part of the Kirkwood Addition, platted in 1907.
- District Resources: 6 buildings; 4 Contributing; 2 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1909-1935
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Classical Revival, Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival); Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Craftsman); Other (No Distinctive Style, Mixed)

Gunboat Historic District
One of the last residential neighborhoods that developed within the IDL was Elm Park, known today as the Gunboat neighborhood. At one time the tracks of the Midland Valley Railroad bounded this area on the east. The neighborhood is known for its extended oval (gunboat) shape,
the curved alignment of Elgin and Frankfort Streets, and the two triangular parks which stand at the north and south ends of the district. Platted in 1917, Elm Park remains the only neighborhood within the IDL which retains nearly all of its original housing stock intact. Resources in Elm Park were constructed from World War I through the 1930s. The plat, the sense of neighborhood, and the mixture of commercial buildings and single and multi-family housing endow the area with a unique identity that represents the historic housing patterns in Tulsa.

- District Resources: 26 buildings, 2 sites and 1 structure; 4 Individually Eligible; 16 Contributing; 9 Non-Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1917 to 1930
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late Victorian (Italianate), Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival, Colonial Revival); Late 19th and 20th Century American Movements (Craftsman); Modern Movement (Art Deco); Other (No Distinctive Style), Two-Part Vertical Block and Warehouse/Light Industrial.

10th and Elgin Historic District

The third district of residential buildings is a mixed-use node in the 300 block of East Eleventh Street. The 10th and Elgin Historic District includes single family residences and apartments as well as several commercial buildings at the corner of 10th and Elgin Streets. While the east side of the district was part of the Elm Park plat, the buildings in this block clearly have a stronger relationship to the other buildings along East Eleventh Street than to the Gunboat neighborhood. The district also includes a small section of the original town plat. Multi-family apartments from the early 1920s dominate the district.

- District Resources: 7 buildings; 2 Individually Eligible; 5 Contributing
- Period of Significance: 1920-1947
- Associated Architectural Styles and Property Types: Late 19th and Early 20th Century Revivals (Mission/Spanish Colonial Revival); Late 19th and Early 20th Century American Movements (Craftsman); Modern Movement (Art Deco); Other (No Distinctive Style), and One-Part Commercial Block
OTHER POTENTIAL NOMINATIONS

Art Deco

The survey findings suggest that another possible preservation strategy would involve preparing a multiple property nomination for Art Deco buildings. Tulsa is widely regarded as a capital of Art Deco architecture. It is home to buildings that express an array of Art Deco motifs – zigzag, 1920s geometric, Depression Era, PWA, and Streamline buildings are part of Tulsa’s architectural landscape. The survey identified forty-three Art Deco buildings within the IDL. A few, such as the Philcade Building and the Boston Avenue Methodist Church, are already listed.
in the National Register of Historic Places. There are seventeen other buildings that also appear to have sufficient architectural integrity to be listed as individual resources associated with the multiple property context. An Art Deco Multiple Property nomination offers the additional benefit of being able to support the nomination of Art Deco buildings in Tulsa located outside the IDL (and outside the scope of this survey).

A statement of significance for previously listed Art Deco buildings in Tulsa notes,

> these buildings are significant historically because they reflect the tremendous growth of Tulsa…. The Art Deco Style was perfectly suited to the taste of this energetic and progressive city and the African American gold flowing from nearby oil and gas fields provided the money for construction of these outstanding buildings. They continue to be a viable part of downtown Tulsa and provide a visible and tangible link to an important period of [the city’s] past.\(^{129}\)

Art Deco buildings that retain sufficient integrity would be eligible under Criteria C for the area of Architecture. Eligible buildings should be an excellent example of one of the various forms of Art Deco design and retain integrity in materials, design, workmanship and the architectural elements that define the style.

**Other**

The survey identified one contributing resource located at 605 South Elgin Street, a roadside stand associated with the original alignment of Route 66 through Tulsa. It can be added to the inventory of buildings in the “Final Survey Report for the Oklahoma Route 66 Historic Resources Survey, 1926-1970,” Oklahoma State Historic Preservation Office and Michael Cassity, Historical Consultant on Route 66, September 2002.\(^{130}\)

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\(^{129}\) Mary Ann Landers, Ph.D., National Register Nomination for “Zig-Zag Art Deco Style Public Utility Buildings TR,” 3.

\(^{130}\) Although Detroit Avenue was the designated alignment of Route 66 through Tulsa before 1933, Elgin Avenue was well traveled too. The Vickery Phillips 66 Station is located on Elgin Avenue, for example, and is listed in the National Register for its associations with Route 66.
CONCLUSION

Tulsa has a rich and varied history dating back to its early hardscrabble settlement period. Affected strongly by the arrival of the railroads, the wealth brought by the oil boom, periods of rampant population growth, and two world wars, the town became an intensely-used and oil-centered business community and a focal point for manufacturing, industry and warehousing. Its downtown and pedestrian-oriented streets were well used by residents, business men and women, workers and laborers. The advent of the automobile age allowed the city to spread beyond its tight core. Beyond the city center were new suburban areas with residential, shopping, business and commercial developments. These threatened the stability of the downtown by drawing away people and resources.

Tulsa experienced many of its most extreme changes after World War II, when the city attempted to recreate the image of downtown in an effort to maintain this area as the community’s business and governmental center. This occurred at a time when Tulsa’s older buildings were entering a natural cycle of decline. In this light, Urban Renewal monies were an attractive means to pay for a new city of modern buildings; buildings that drew attention to the city’s present and future, not to its past. The city’s rich architectural texture reflects the visual mix of early-twentieth century buildings and mid-twentieth century Modern Movement and International styles.

Perhaps one of the most important findings of the Downtown Tulsa Survey is the number of architecturally significant buildings in downtown Tulsa from the period 1950 – 1974, which encompasses the years of development that followed World War II as well as the period of Urban Renewal funding. It is not always easy to appreciate buildings from the recent past however; they seem too new; they seem to represent the culture of today, not past generations; and they are easy to overlook as being “not historic.” But Tulsa’s downtown marks the evolution of its history, not
only in its oldest buildings, but in its newer ones. They tell a story of decisions, personalities, plans and policies regarding city issues that eventually emerged as choices for downtown building. Some recent-past buildings are now threatened because of under use, but they should not be assumed to be unimportant. Rather they, along with buildings from earlier decades, should be carefully considered as documents of this community’s history and evaluated before being carelessly destroyed.

This document describes the historic and architectural qualities that define the built environment of downtown Tulsa and that communicate the shared history of Tulsa residents. Over the years, architectural surveys have been a successful educational tool for encouraging citizens to focus new investment in historic town centers. The Downtown Tulsa Survey can be used in this manner to help promote the economic and aesthetic values already embodied in Tulsa’s downtown buildings. A variety of active groups, such as the Tulsa and Greenwood Chambers of Commerce, Downtown Tulsa Unlimited, the Tulsa Foundation for Architecture, the city’s historical societies, and the Tulsa Development Authority, can be effective partners in communicating information about the potential for rehabilitation and revitalization.

Today the city is beginning to reassess the significance of its past. This understanding can provide authenticity in a world that has become increasingly standardized and uniform. Planning is happening on several fronts. The Tulsa Preservation Commission (TPC) is in the process of updating the city’s preservation plan. Survey results from the Downtown Tulsa Survey should be synthesized into the preservation plan as the TPC develops priorities for the protection of historic resources. The survey findings and analysis can provide a valuable resource for many preservation decisions, including the nomination of buildings and districts eligible for the National Register of Historic Places and evaluating the impacts of government actions on historic
resources. As a planning tool, the National Register encourages preservation without public control over private property interests. Listing a property does not impose responsibilities upon the private property owner for maintenance or restoration, but can provide owners with access to financial incentives. Survey results can also help the TPC better protect Tulsa’s historic resources by raising awareness among the public of the significance of the city’s building inventory and by boosting interest in private investment in the rehabilitation of historic buildings for new uses.

The city is also preparing a new comprehensive plan, PlaniTulsa, slated for completion in 2010. It will replace the current city plan, which was written in the 1970s for a very different city during a very different time. The two-year long planning process has sought guidance and input from Tulsa residents. The Tulsa World recently reported that the majority of Tulsans surveyed for PlaniTulsa preferred a “Centered City” planning approach; an approach that would focus on and encourage expanded downtown development options. The World observed, “Downtown [Tulsa] rivals other great cities in nightlife, unique neighborhoods and quality of life.” Tulsa’s built environment contributes tremendously to that unique sense of place; it makes Tulsa like no other city. When the survey results were released, Mayor Kathy Taylor stated that

“Tulsans do want a change in direction. They want a city where we can keep our young residents. We want a city that really attracts more than its share of good jobs and new industries and a vibrant downtown and transportation alternatives.”

Tulsa appears to be on the cusp of a new and exciting period in its history as residents view the future of the downtown positively and expect it to be the residential, business and entertainment center for the broader community.

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As critical as buildings are to creating community through a shared sense of history, older buildings need a purpose in order to remain economically viable. Dated building infrastructure can be expensive to maintain and to upgrade, and a building’s original function does not always remain pertinent in the dynamic of a modern city. In order to achieve the goals for a dynamic mixed-use downtown emerging from PlaniTulsa, property owners need access to a very important financial tool – rehabilitation tax credits.

Rehabilitation tax credits financially reward owners who adapt buildings to new uses and modern code requirements while protecting the historic character of the resource, and by extension the unique character of the city as a whole. The credits are available to buildings listed in the National Register, either as individual landmarks or as contributing resources to a historic district. This report identifies a wide array of buildings and districts in downtown Tulsa that appear to be register eligible. Once listed on the National Register, these buildings can take advantage of the twenty-percent (each) state and federal rehabilitation tax credits. Many property owners are already using this incentive to transform downtown buildings into the condominiums, apartments, residential lofts and commercial spaces that PlaniTulsa recommends and that Tulsa’s citizens desire.

In the past, older buildings in downtown Tulsa have been demolished to create additional open space for parking and in anticipation of redevelopment. Some of these projects came to fruition and some did not. The result has been large tracts of open space within the downtown core. Demolitions of this nature can have an extreme and detrimental effect on our understanding of downtown Tulsa, its evolution and our shared history. While the availability of rehabilitation tax credits has renewed interest in the city’s historic building stock, the demolition trend has slowed, but it has not ended.
As Ambler and Rosin completed a final drive through to confirm field survey results, a major register-eligible building that filled an entire city block in the East Village was being demolished with no plans for new construction in its place. To prevent further instances of this event, the city should consider means to discourage the demolition of historic buildings for vacant land or surface parking. One method to stave off unnecessary demolition might be passage of an ordinance that requires a construction permit be issued before a demolition permit. This would create a process whereby the integrity and density of the city’s historic districts could be carefully considered along with the potential reuse of the property. It would also help the city maintain buildings on land, rather than stockpiling empty space that has no planned development purpose.

The survey also revealed that some open space in downtown Tulsa is historic in character. Particularly in the East Village and the Brady area, empty lots and parking lots occupy land that formerly held railroad tracks, sidings, and spurs or that was used for storing or staging the transfer of goods. Similarly, areas of surface parking that support the churches in Cathedral Square were created in response to the 1959 WSNA plan. These voids in the built environment would be historically significant and should be carefully considered in the future if a historic district is nominated.

The PlaniTulsa survey demonstrates that Tulsans recognize the uniqueness of Tulsa’s built environment. The downtown buildings constructed over the course of a century have created a sense of place that differentiates Tulsa from other communities. Almost all highly successful cities have a tangible, readily identifiable character. It appears that Tulsans already are striving to develop and maintain this trait in their downtown. As Tulsa continues to evolve, the qualities that set it apart from other places will undoubtedly endow the community with a high quality of life.
2001 East Village Survey, Tulsa, Oklahoma. A E C O M and DMHMH+N, funded by TDA.

The report was intended as a land use planning tool for the East Village Area. Some aspects of the report were useful for determining changes in the East Village area between 2001 and 2009.


The map shows garage and surface parking in Tulsa and is helpful in understanding where blocks of buildings remain.


This nomination records neighborhood development patterns just outside the urban core.

Ball, Rex, FAIA, AICP. Personal communication with Cathy Ambler. March 8 and 18, 2009.

Mr. Ball provided many details about Urban Renewal in Tulsa during the 1970s. He also is familiar with many of the architectural firms in the city that did Urban Renewal projects.


Resource Protection Planning Report prepared by the Department of History, Oklahoma State University.

Beryl Ford Collection/Rotary Club of Tulsa, Tulsa City-County Library and Tulsa Historical Society.

An essential tool for any Tulsa historian, the collection is an on-line archive of historical photos collected by Beryl Ford over many years. Historic photos of many Tulsa downtown buildings document them before renovation or demolition.


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132 Titles in bold indicate no author.

This reference has an excellent map of public transportation routes in Tulsa, and a history of the city’s trolley lines, what areas they served and their period of use.

City Directories. *Burkhart’s Tulsa City Directory and Polk Tulsa City Directories.* Tulsa City County Library Collection. Depending on the year, these were published in Tulsa, Kansas City and Dallas, by Burkhart Printing and Stationery, Polk-Hoffhine and R. L. Polk and Company.

The Tulsa City/County library has an excellent collection of directories from the city’s earliest directories (on microfilm), and later reference copies. City directories help document construction dates for buildings (year usually before first directory listing), and information about Tulsa downtown businesses and their locations.


This report lists many of the projects funded by Urban Renewal monies. While the list is not complete in this report, it provides TURA’s philosophical framework for the validity of Urban Renewal. Copies of this handbook can be found at the Preservation Planning office.


Debo provides a history of the Creeks in the East, their removal west and settlement patterns in early Tulsa. Her history of early Tulsa provides background for its development prior to the discovery of oil.


Volume 1 of Douglas’s histories of Tulsa provides helpful descriptions of buildings in Tulsa c. 1920s. The volume describes Tulsa during World War I, as well as the significant businesses in the city, listing many of them by name and how many of certain types of businesses there were. It helps the reader understand the extent of economic development in the Tulsa downtown area, and the abundance of small businesses that once existed in the city.


This article confirms that the city plan incorporated the ideas of the 1959 “Plan for Central Tulsa,” by Wise, Smith, Neutra and Alexander.


Historian Scott Ellsworth argues that the rebuilding of African American Tulsa, particularly that of "Deep Greenwood, is a story of almost as great importance as the riot itself.

It will be important for the future designation of the Williams Center district to identify the inception of the plan. This article identifies the formers of the plan together and the date it was unveiled.


Ms. Everly-Douze documents the “going up” and “coming down” of multiple buildings during Urban Renewal. The book contains many photos of buildings that no longer extant.


The website provided information about the number of cars and trucks on the road in the 1920s, and how the automobile industry was promoting the building of highways and the use of automobiles was beginning to have an affect on railroads.


This article confirms that Harold Wise, Larry Smith and Richard Neutra and Robert Alexander (WSNA) did much of the work on the central business district plan which helped define the city’s choice of Urban Renewal projects.


The website has a history of Cyrus Avery and Route 66.


Gates’s book has testimonials, most of which describe the Greenwood community. It also provides a number for all-African American towns that flourished in Oklahoma.


Goble’s book is one of the two of the most recent histories of Tulsa. While the book is a broadly written city history, it is an essential reference. Well-researched, the book has an excellent bibliography for more in-depth studies on specific topics.


Hall provides a history of early Tulsa and a drawing of the tent community that existed in the very early days. He provides a background on how Tulsa developed physically, its early economic foundation, many “firsts” in organizations, events, etc., the significance of the railroad, and the development of the city’s early infrastructure.

This report provided an overview of the city geographically, when TMAPC was established, an analysis of retail sales in the downtown and how they had changed by 1971, the importance of the Civic Center which helped hold the downtown together while the IDL was completed, and helped lead to super block development in Tulsa.


Hirsch provides another source for information on the riot and its aftermath.


This website provided a history of automobile use in Oklahoma.


This survey covers agricultural and oil production within a ninety mile radius of Tulsa, and gives percentages of the area’s contribution to the wealth of Oklahoma.


Johnson documents the rebuilding efforts in Greenwood after the Riot.


Jones noted in this speech that in 1965, over 300 acres of downtown, or about a third of the area within the Inner Dispersal Loop, became part of the Downtown-Northwest Urban Renewal Project including the Center Plaza, the Doubletree Hotel, the Tulsa Regional Medical Center, state and federal offices and the Williams Center.

Landers, Mary Ann, Ph.D. National Register Nomination for “Zig-Zag Art Deco Style Public Utility Buildings TR.” [1984].

This thematic nomination provides some background and context for the development of Art Deco in Tulsa.

Lee analyzed plans to revitalize downtown and why there were only somewhat successful. His analysis was useful in providing insight into development and political forces that affected these projects.


Liebs chronicles the use of the automobile as ownership increased. Exploring by car became a form of mass entertainment and the automobile was a cultural icon to auto owners. By the 1920s thousands of businesses sprang up along highways, both inside and outside towns. This helps document the rise of businesses associated with the automobile in Tulsa.


This is a standard guide to commercial architecture.


Longstreth discusses the lingering pejorative opinions associated with the Urban Renewal period in urban development patterns and reviews its history as a federal and local movement. Since Tulsa’s downtown within the Inner Dispersal Loop was almost entirely defined by Urban Renewal projects, the article is essential to understanding local motives and economic forces that made the movement appealing.

Loye, Dave. *Oklahoma Today*, Fall 1958, 8, no. 4.

Loye is an editor of *Oklahoma Today*, and much of this issue is dedicated to Modern Movement architecture. Loye specifically mentions the significance of the Tulsa Civic Center, which was noted as one of twenty-three top architectural achievements in the world during the past century in the 1955 book, *Architektur Und Gemeinschaft: Tagebuch einer Entwicklung* by S. Giedion. This helps confirm the significance of the Civic Center, which was cooperatively planned by the Tulsa Architectural League. The Board of Design for the project included: Donald McCormick (chairman), Frederick Vance Kershner, Joseph Koberling, Murray M. McCune, David G. Murray, Leon B. Senter, Sr., R. E. West, and Robert Jones (project manager).


Peter Mayo has owned property in the Brady area since the late 1970s and was able to provide a contemporary perspective on the area.

This is a standard field guide to residential architecture.

Meacham, Maryjo. National Register Multiple Property Documentation Form for “Route 66 and Associated Historic Resources in Oklahoma.” 1995.

This document provides an overview history for Route 66 both nationally and in Oklahoma. It also provides the property types associated with the nomination, as well as the criteria that qualify resources for listing in association with the multiple property documentation.


The article confirms support for the 1959 “Plan for Central Tulsa,” by Wise, Smith, Neutra and Alexander which proposed Urban Renewal and the Cathedral Square plan.

Murray, David, AIA retired. Personal communication with Cathy Ambler. May 7, 2009.

Mr. Murray was a member of the architectural firm Murray Jones Murray. Murray confirmed many details of the Civic Plan, and details about several of the firm’s projects.


Nardone documents Tulsa’s oil economy in the late 1960s, its position as the petroleum research center of the Midwest, and its commercial associations around the world.


Statistics are showing that demographics, high gas prices and longer commutes on congested roads are generating more interest in urban settings in metro centers. Tulsa is likely to experience this trend since it tends to follow already established national patterns.


This report is fundamental reading for understanding the 1921 Tulsa Race Riot. It is a thorough study of the circumstances surrounding the riot, and it is full of maps which trace the path of the riot and where events took place. It provides an analysis of the integrity of remaining riot-associated sites in 2005.


This document provides an important definition of what a cultural landscape is and as it is used in this report; that it can be a geographic area associated with a historic event and that it can exhibit cultural values such as an ethnographic landscape. Ethnographic landscape is
further defined as a landscape containing cultural resources that associated people define as heritage resources.


This document provides guidance in making determinations concerning the significance of buildings less than fifty years old. It notes that "exceptional importance" does not require that the property be of national significance. Rather, it is a measure of a property's importance within the appropriate historic context, whether the scale of that context is local, state, or national. Also properties less than fifty years old may be integral parts of a historic district when there is sufficient perspective to consider the properties as historic.


The newsletter provides a description of the oil boom and bust period between 1982 and 1987, and provides insight into the loss of major oil companies in Tulsa to Houston.

“Post-war Planners Recommend Huge City-County-Civic Center.” Tulsa Tribune. December 8, 1943.

This article covers a continuing impetus toward building a civic center. While early plans for such began in the 1920s, they continue to expand until the civic center is finally constructed.


The article discusses the planned Metro Center, and provides a drawing of the proposed look of the buildings.


The article documents when demolitions were underway in the area of the Williams Center. The demolitions were intended, however, for a proposed Metro Center at the time they were started.


Rifkind’s book is a standard reference to the periods, styles and form and function of historical buildings.

This is one of the few recent histories of Tulsa. Along with Danney Goble’s Tulsa history, the two complement and provide the most complete overview of the city’s history.


Ross confirms that Tenth Street was used for Route 66 between Elgin and Boulder Avenues instead of Eleventh Street. Tulsa’s skewed grid in the downtown core creates this change in the route.


Sadler documents the influence of the railroads as the most important form of transportation until after World War II. His report has data on their mileage, street intersections, their acres of property ownership, and the number of spurs and sidings that served industrial sites in the Tulsa metropolitan area.


Sanborn maps are essential to understanding areas within Tulsa’s downtown core, how they developed, the nature of businesses within those areas, and transitions during periods of change. The maps provide some building construction dates and help determine construction dates for other buildings. They show railroad tracks, now gone; how the railroads affected nearby development; and how the city evolved around the railroads, a development quality that remains evident today.


This nomination shows development patterns just to the south of the urban core.


Resource Protection Planning Report prepared by the Department of History, Oklahoma State University.


David Sharp has been a property owner in the Brady area since 1980 and helped facilitate the revival of the area after its long decline.
Starr, Gene, AIA. Personal communication with Cathy Ambler. May 18, 2009 and May 19, 2009.

Mr. Starr prepared the original drawings for the Cathedral Park at the intersection of Boulder Avenue and Eleventh Street. He confirmed that the construction occurred when an approach to the IDL was required. The southern portion of the IDL was under construction in 1970.


Stuart confirms the significance of Houston as a major location for oil companies, many of whom were once in Tulsa.


The video is produced by Tulsa Development Authority which was originally TURA. It discusses the different project undertaken by TURA in Tulsa.


Thiele provides an overview of what the Greenwood community was like after the Riot.


Her work ties the complex cultural history of Tulsa to Riot events.


The presentation provides details of the history of planning in Tulsa.


This is one of the best references for Art Deco architecture in Tulsa.


The resource document gives recommendations for areas that are potentially eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. It is also useful for the research completed on the history of Tulsa.
Tulsa Preservation Commission Website.
http://www.tulsapreservationcommission.org/history/transportation, 1850 to 1945.
(referenced March 17, 2009, but also referenced multiple times during the duration of the survey and writing the report.)

The website is a resource for previous research, including a history of transportation in Tulsa.

Williams Center. Williams Companies brochure. Tulsa Public Library, Call Number:
711.40976696 W67. [1975].

This brochure was produced to illustrate the site plan for the proposed Williams Center. They all exist today, with the addition of a second triangle building, constructed in 1982.

Williams @ 100. http://www.tulsapeople-digital.com/tulsapeople/200807?pg=36&search_term=william&search_term=william#pg36,
(referenced September 11, 2009).

The website has an overview of the Williams Company’s history from 1908 to 1998. This site documents the year the BOK tower construction began.


This plan provides a basis for many of the Urban Renewal projects in Tulsa. It defines areas within the city and specifies what should happen within them. Co-authors for the plan were Larry Smith, Richard Neutra and Robert Alexander.


Compiled by the Writer’s Program of the Works Progress Administration, it contains a section on Tulsa, pages 204-215, which is a useful reference for the downtown core.

Zarrow, Alison. Wish You Were Here: Oklahoma's All African American Towns 100 Years after Statehood. N.p.: Allison Zarrow. 2007.

Another source for the number of African American communities in Oklahoma, Zarrow suggests there were over sixty all-African American towns in Oklahoma. This small publication of mostly photos was a result of a Zarrow's fellowship from the Stanford University Haas Center for Public Service.

NOTES ON OTHER TULSA RESOURCES
The Tulsa City/County library has invaluable vertical files with newspaper clippings which have been collected since the 1920s. These vertical files contain essential research documents and newspaper articles on Tulsa buildings, businesses, growth patterns, city planning documents, building renovations, Urban Renewal projects, etc. These files provided dates and background for the survey and report. No project or analysis of Tulsa’s history would be complete without a thorough review of these files.

The McFarlin Library at the University of Tulsa also has a unique set of research resources that are not found elsewhere. Special collections include manuscripts and maps, and the general library collection contains many of Tulsa’s old reports and planning documents.
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<td>SUNCO BUILDING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111 S ELGIN AV E</td>
<td>SANTA FE FREIGHT DEPOT</td>
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<tr>
<td>401 S ELGIN AV E</td>
<td>GEORGE FULLER CHEVROLET DEALERSHIP</td>
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<tr>
<td>601 S ELGIN AV E</td>
<td>ST ELIZABETH LODGE (MELROSE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>605 S ELGIN AV E</td>
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<tr>
<td>920 S ELGIN AV W</td>
<td>PARKING GARAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1012 S ELGIN AV W</td>
<td>DAY AND NITE CLEANERS</td>
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<tr>
<td>1125 S ELGIN AV E</td>
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<tr>
<td>1214 S ELGIN AV W</td>
<td>HARRIS APARTMENTS</td>
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<td>1218 S ELGIN AV W</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 N ELWOOD AV W</td>
<td>W.C. NORRIS SITE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>606 S ELWOOD AV W</td>
<td>BLAIR APARTMENTS</td>
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<tr>
<td>614 S ELWOOD AV W</td>
<td>FIRST CLASS FINANCIAL/CELLAR DWELLER</td>
</tr>
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<td>Address</td>
<td>Property Name</td>
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<td>1216 S FRANKFORT AV W</td>
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<td>212 S KENOSHA AV W</td>
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<td>314 S KENOSHA AV W</td>
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<td>537 S KENOSHA AV E</td>
<td>NORDAM MAINTENANCE</td>
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<td>504 E ARCHER ST S</td>
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<td>220 W ARCHER ST S</td>
<td>A.H. NEILSON MFG</td>
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<td>13-15 E BRADY ST N</td>
<td>MAIN APARTMENTS</td>
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<td>17-19 E BRADY ST N</td>
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<td>21-23 E BRADY ST N</td>
<td>BOSTON APARTMENTS</td>
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<td>215 W BRADY ST N</td>
<td>BORDEN CREMERY</td>
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<td>201 N MAIN ST E</td>
<td>E.L. FOX BLDG</td>
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<td>FOX BLOCK BLDG</td>
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<td>410 N MAIN ST W</td>
<td>CONTINENTAL SUPPLY COMPANY</td>
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<td>415-417 N MAIN ST E</td>
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<tr>
<td>101 CIVIC CENTER PLAZA W</td>
<td>CIVIC CENTER PLAZA PARK</td>
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<td>TULSA CITY HALL</td>
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<td>300 CIVIC CENTER PLAZA W</td>
<td>FRANCIS F. CAMPBELL COUNCIL CHAMBERS</td>
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<td>400 CIVIC CENTER PLAZA W</td>
<td>TULSA CITY/COUNTY PUBLIC LIBRARY</td>
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<td>500 CIVIC CENTER PLAZA W</td>
<td>TULSA COUNTY COURTS AND OFFICES</td>
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<td>600 CIVIC CENTER PLAZA W</td>
<td>POLICE COURTS BLDG</td>
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<td>TULSA CONVENTION CENTER</td>
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