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THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I BACKGROUND AND LEGISLATIVE HISTORY OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS 1

by

Anna Lou Riesch

CHAPTER II ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONING OF THE C.C.C. 33

CHAPTER III WORK DONE OF THE C.C.C. 73

CHAPTER IV HISTORY OF THE C.C.C. 103

A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Master of Philosophy

CHAPTER V MILITARY CONTROVERSY 130

CHAPTER VI FUTURE OF THE C.C.C. 164

CHAPTER VII CONCLUSIONS 157

BIBLIOGRAPHY 164

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND LEGISLATIVE HISTORY OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), established in March, 1933, as one of Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal measures was a part of the United States government's program during the thirties and forties. The primary purpose of the CCC was to offer employment to unemployed American youth. This was to be accomplished by employing them on nation-wide conservation projects, thusly building up their faith physically and morally as well as conserving and expanding our natural resources.

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONING OF THE C.C.C.

CHAPTER III

THE WORK OF THE C.C.C. ENROLLEES

CHAPTER IV

CRITICISMS OF THE C.C.C.

CHAPTER V

MILITARY CONTROVERSY

CHAPTER VI

FUTURE OF THE C.C.C.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The dates of establishment of the C.C.C. and its changes are stated in the annual reports of the Director of the Conservation Corps; articles in periodicals such as the Monthly Labor Review, 36:1339 (May, 1936), Congressional Digest, 16:2 (January, 1937), et cetera; government publications of leaflet and bulletin form; Floyd Anderson, "Unemployment and the U.C.C.," American, March 16, 1937, reprinted in Congressional Record, 74th Congress, 1st session (1935), 3620.
CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND LEGISLATIVE HISTORY OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

The Civilian Conservation Corps established in March, 1933, as one of Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal measures was a part of the United States' conservation program during the thirties and forties. The primary purpose of the C.C.C. was to offer immediate relief to the unemployed youth of the nation. This was to be accomplished by employing them on nation-wide conservation projects, thereby building up these men physically and morally as well as conserving and expanding our natural resources. ¹

The background of the American youth work camps can be traced to the conservation movement in America, to examples of foreign countries, to economic conditions within United States, and to the writings of publicists. ²

¹ The date of establishment of the C.C.C. and its purposes are stated in the annual reports of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps; articles in periodicals such as the Monthly Labor Review, 36:1039 (May, 1936), Congressional Digest, 16:2 (January, 1937), et cetera; government publications of leaflet and bulletin form; Floyd Anderson, "Unemployment and the C.C.C.," America, March 16, 1935, reprinted in Congressional Record, 74 Congress, 1 session (1935), 3620.

² These general books contain conservation background material.
Conservation, properly defined as the wise use, protection and perpetuation of our natural resources, perhaps found its beginning in the soil fertility practices of the North American Indians. In colonial times William Penn showed an awareness of the necessity of lumber conservation by instigating the practice of preserving one out of every five acres of woodland. The present day conservation program, however, is usually credited to Theodore Roosevelt, who gave it impetus during his administration as President of the United States. On May 13, 1908, he called together a group composed of leading scientists, state governors, members of Congress, and many others for a White House Conference which was designed to awaken the public to the great need for wise conservation. Ultimately national and state conservation programs were established. The Federal government withdrew public lands from private entry in order to study and determine their wisest utilization. State commissions were established and many corporations interested in natural resources undertook conservation of those under their control. Conferences, publications, and legislation led to the public realization of the need for conservation which has been continued to the present day.  

The actual practice of conservation requires manual labor and a number of authorities became aware of the desirability of using youth in conservation work. Their publications did not always urge promotion of conservation work, but the important fact is that they conceived the idea of young men being employed for this purpose.

William James, who has been called the spiritual father of the C.C.C., advocated using youth in a fight against Nature. In the year 1910 he wrote an essay "Moral Equivalents of War" wherein he expressed the thought that it would be just a matter of time until public opinion would demand the organization of the nation's youth to combat the ravages of Nature. William James believed in peace, but he felt that there were certain moral values or attributes of war that should not be lost in a peace time economy. He believed that the disciplinary results of war were of value, and in order to develop character without war, he suggested:

"... instead of military conscription a conscription of the whole youthful population to form for a certain number of years a part of the army enlisted against Nature, the injustice would tend to be evened out, and numerous other goods to the commonwealth would follow... To coal and iron mines, to freight trains, to fishing fleets in December, to dishwashing, to road building and tunnel making, to founderies and stoke holes, and to the frames of skyscrapers would our gilded youth be drafted off, according to works..."

3 H. Rowland, "Can the C.C.C. Blaze a New Trail?" Survey Graphic, 26:325 (June, 1937).
to their choice, to get the childishness knocked out of them, and to come back into society with healthier sympathies and soberer ideas."


The Patriotism of Peace, in 1915 expanded James's idea into a practical form. He urged an organization of "National Construction Corps" to build bridges, bring water to the deserts, et cetera, which was all in the interest of making the country more self sufficient as a measure of national defense. 6

Thomas Carlyle and John Ruskin, two English authors, suggested labor camps in various passages of their writings. Carlyle believed that the unemployment problem of his day should have been met by the state's organizing paupers, idlers, and the unemployed. It was his idea that they should be provided by the state with work and in return receive food, clothing, and shelter. He suggested "Industrial Regiments . . . to fight the Bogs and Wilderness." 7

John Ruskin's idea was to have the regular army employed in works of peace with civilians during periods of peace. He also expressed the idea that there was time wasted in athletics and that individuals could train their muscles while performing physical labor for worth-while returns. 8

8 Holland, Youth in European Labor Camps, 3.
In 1912 three different proposals for the establishment of labor service organizations appeared in print in Austria, United States, and Germany. An Austrian engineer urged his country to introduce compulsory labor service in order to insure a minimum subsistence to all citizens. In the same year the aforementioned essay by James was appearing in print and about that time a movement for youth camps was sponsored by a group of professors in Germany. None of these proposals, however, resulted in the establishment of labor services such as we have today, and it took the World War and its aftermath to launch the work camp movement.

After the World War Bulgaria was in need of road repairs, and at the same time the youth of the country needed employment. The result was the passage of a Compulsory Labor Service Law, June, 1920. Youths were required to serve the state for a given period of time without pay. Switzerland initiated the idea of Voluntary Labor Service for the unemployed in 1924; and in 1925 Germany started her first work camp for youth. The world wide depression that followed the World War turned many other nations, Austria, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and the Scandinavian Countries, to use their unemployed youths.

9 Holland, Youth in European Labor Camps, 4.
10 Ibid., 7.
11 Ibid., 39-40.
13 Ibid., 160:714; Holland, Youth in European Labor Camps, 7, 130, 147, 181, 234.
The purposes of the first camps in Austria, Switzerland, France, and England were to give work aid and provide outdoor employment that would build the youths physically.\textsuperscript{14} The work camps developed in Europe between 1920 and 1931 were largely under private auspices. Except in Bulgaria, the projects were usually conducted for short periods and received little government support. After the beginning of the depression the government offered more financial aid and in some cases took over the work camps and developed them for unemployed people. Later as war appeared on the horizon in Europe some of the camps were militarized.\textsuperscript{15}

In the United States the immediate cause for the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps was the depression that gripped the country in the spring of 1932.\textsuperscript{16} Millions of American citizens were faced with unemployment, poverty, hardship, and enforced idleness.\textsuperscript{17} Within the group were hundreds of thousands of unemployed young men who could find no market for their labor.\textsuperscript{18} They were not needed in


\textsuperscript{15} Holland, Youth in European Labor Camps, x.

\textsuperscript{16} The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged. A bulletin reprinted from American Conservation (Ovid Butler, Washington), 1941.

\textsuperscript{17} James F. Kiesley, C.C.C. (United States Department of the Interior, processed, Washington, 1938), 1. A great amount of the basic material in the booklet was supplied by the Office of the Director of the C.C.C. and the various Departments cooperating in the work of the Corps.

\textsuperscript{18} The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
industry at that time; and, if or when business did improve materially, they would have been handicapped by lack of work experience. In short, America foresaw the danger of her youth becoming hostile and bitter toward society. A movement of drifters looking for work was leading to a large number of wanderers in the country. Youth was losing confidence in itself. Immediate action was vital. Thus, the C.C.C. was born of the most severe unemployment emergency in the Nation's history—it was an emergency measure. President Franklin D. Roosevelt is considered the virtual father of the C.C.C., because it was due to his initiative and action that the agency was actually established. Raymond Moley says the basis for or plan of the C.C.C. may have been transmitted by the late William James whose lectures at Harvard were heard by Roosevelt and his classmates on the morals of war. Nevertheless, the idea of the C.C.C. was conservation. On one occasion he said that he believed our forests

19 Holland, Youth in European Labor Camps, ix. health and
20 Kiele, C.C.C., 2.
21 The C.C.C.: A Youth Program (Washington, 1938), not
paged. A folder published by the Civilian Conservation Corps.
22 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1,
1938 – June 30, 1939 (Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington,
1940), 6.
23 Statement is based on evidence in various periodical
articles and government publications. A typical article is
found in Collier's, 99:13 (May 22, 1937), which states that the
C.C.C. is Roosevelt's project and he must be regarded its father.
24 Alfred C. Oliver Jr., and Harold M. Dudley, eds.,
This New America: The Spirit of the Civilian Conservation Corps
(New York, 1937), 20. Much of the material for this book was
taken from Happy Days, the C.C.C. weekly newspaper, and
assembled data in government files made available to the editors.
Robert Moley is an ex-Brain Truster.
President Roosevelt's own. His experience in conservation and forestry enabled him to envisage youth camps employed on conservation projects, rather than for agricultural purposes.

Since 1915 President Roosevelt had been actively engaged in practicing forestry on his home estate at Hyde Park. He had handled his timber on a "selection basis", producing saw logs, piling cross ties and fuel woods, and had experimented with reforestation. His interest in trees was more than sentimental since he was practical minded and realized that woodlands must be handled like other natural resources. He also had practiced soil-erosion control by leaving timber uncut along the steepest slopes of the Hudson River. His interest in conservation was not only centered at Hyde Park. During his Southern vacations he acquired sundry abandoned farms in southern localities and planted them to pines and organized local protective associations to further conservation. On one occasion he said that he believed our forests, waters, and wildlife were essential to the health and economic welfare of the people, that the nation's forests should be protected, and that the present conservation area should be

25 J. A. Lapp, First Chapter of New Deal (Chicago, 1933), xv. J. A. Lapp says the C.C.C., an original idea of the greatest importance, was wholly and solely the President's; Life 8:77-83 (April 15, 1940), states it is the President's idea.
27 Ibid., March 31, 1933.
28 Ibid., April 30, 1933.
enlarged for the better protection of the water-sheds and for the profitable use of large areas of lands that are better suited to growing forest crops than for agricultural purposes.  

He had been correctly called forestry-minded, and his work had given him more than a rough idea of the required number of men in camps, the type of work to be done, and the comparative value of forestry methods. The work he had done at Hyde Park can be compared on a miniature scale with what he attempted to have the C.C.C. camps do in the national forests. As the chief executive of the United States he was in a position to apply on a wider scale the lessons he had learned in his forestry work at Hyde Park. He had already made a practice of promoting conservation while in public office. While a New York legislator Roosevelt boosted conservation and as governor of New York he gave his support to measures which increased forest areas and put 10,000 unemployed on conservation projects.

In accepting the Democratic nomination for President on July 2, 1932, at Chicago, Roosevelt again showed the public his interest in conservation by revealing a plan, then taking shape in his mind, to help relieve distress among the unemployed

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31 Ibid., April 30, 1933.
32 Opinion of N. C. Brown, Professor of Forest Utilization, New York State College of Forestry at Syracuse. New York Times, April 30, 1933.
33 Time, 33:10 (February 6, 1939).
through a great public works project of forest and land restoration. He said that the people should use common and business sense in solving the problem of unemployment and he offered, as a hopeful and immediate means of relief for the unemployed and agriculture, a plan to convert millions of acres of marginal and unused land into timberland through reforestation and other conservation practices. This undertaking Roosevelt said, "...can give work to one million men." He told the people he had a very definite program for providing employment by the above stated means. He pointed to his former success in utilizing his conservation scheme for the relief of the unemployed and told the people he was doing it (at the time of his acceptance speech) in the State of New York. He concluded by saying, "I know the Democratic Party can do it successfully in the nation."\(^{35}\)

In line with his acceptance pledge to take drastic action to relieve unemployment and preserve the country's natural resources, Roosevelt, in his inaugural address in March, 1933, said that his greatest task was to put people to work. He stated that this could be accomplished in part by recruiting to these officials, and asked their advice of his plan. They

\(^{34}\) The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.

government itself, treating the task as an emergency, but at the same time, "through this unemployment, accomplishing greatly needed projects to stimulate and reorganize the use of our natural resources." 36

Evidently these thoughts were in the President's mind as he entered the White House. Before his first day in the presidential office had ended he had, with pencil and paper, roughly blocked out the skeleton of an organization for the enrollment of young men in a program of work which would provide the youth of the nation with employment as well as aid the conservation program. The plan he drafted, which was the Civilian Conservation Corps, was to exist as a separate agency and operate in cooperation with and under the Federal Departments of War, Labor, Agriculture, and the Interior. 37

In the afternoon of March 9, 1933, the President requested six men to come to the White House. These men were the Secretaries of War, Interior, and Agriculture, the Director of the Budget, the Solicitor of the Department of the Interior, and the Judge Advocate General of the Army. The President presented his plan of employing youths on conservation projects to these officials, and asked their opinion of his plan. They wholeheartedly agreed with him that it was practical and

36 Congressional Record, 73 Congress, special session March, 1933, 5.
37 Kieley, C.C.C., 3.
adaptable to the country's needs. In answer to the President's inquiry they said the plan could be put into effect immediately. Having the support and approval of fellow office holders the President on March 21, 1933, just seventeen days after his inauguration, sent a message to Congress urging legislation to carry out his plan. He said:

"I propose to create a civilian conservation corps to be used in simple work, not interfering with normal employment, and confining itself to forestry, the prevention of soil erosion, flood control and similar projects. I call your attention to the fact that this type of work is of definite, practical value, not only through the prevention of great present financial loss but also as a means of creating future national wealth ... .

Control and direction of such work can be carried on by existing machinery of the Departments of Labor, Agriculture, War and Interior. I estimate that 250,000 men can be given temporary employment by early summer if you give me authority to proceed within the next two weeks. I ask no new funds at this time. The use of unobligated funds, now appropriated for public works, will be sufficient for several months. This enterprise ... will conserve our precious natural resources. It will pay dividends to the present and future generations ... .

More important, however, than the material gains will be the moral and spiritual value of such work ... . We can take a vast army of these unemployed out into healthful surroundings. We can eliminate to some extent at least the threat that enforced idleness brings to spiritual and moral stability. It is not a panacea for all unemployment, but it is an essential step in this emergency. I ask its adoption."39.

38 Oliver and Dudley, This New America, 20.
39 Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 1 session (1933), 650.
A bill was prepared which incorporated the President's suggestions and Congress passed the recovery measure officially known as "An Act for the relief of unemployment through the performance of useful public works and for other purposes," which was approved by the President March 31, 1933. 40 This act usually referred to as the Emergency Conservation Work Act 41 gave the President blanket authority to use the nation's domain at his discretion to help relieve the unemployment situation of the country and thereby improve the economic and social conditions of the country.42

Section one of the statute stated its purpose with clarity: to relieve the acute condition of unemployment, to provide for the restoration of the nation's depleted natural resources, and to advance an orderly program of useful public works. In order to carry all this into effect the President was authorized "under such rules and regulations as he may prescribe" to provide for the employing of unemployed United States citizens, 43 regardless of "race, color or creed,"44 in carrying on works of a public nature in connection with forestation; the prevention of forest fires, floods; and soil

40 Oliver and Dudley, This New America, 21.
41 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
42 United States Statutes at Large, 46:22.
43 Ibid., 48:22.
44 Ibid., 48:23.
erosion; plant pest and disease control; the construction, maintenance, or repair of fire-lanes, trails, and paths in the national forests and national parks; and such other work as he deemed desirable. At his discretion the President could extend the provisions of the act to county, municipal, and private lands, but only for the purpose of controlling floods, forest fires, and attack of forest-tree pests and diseases. The President was further authorized to provide housing for employed citizens and, for furnishing them with clothing, medical attention, hospitalization, cash allowances, and transportation to and from places of employment. Section two of the act gave the President power to enter into such contracts or agreements with states necessary to the utilization of state administrative agencies in carrying out the purposes of the act. Section three made the Federal Employee Compensation Act of 1916 applicable to the enrollees. Section four directed that the expenditures for carrying out the act should be under the President's direction and authorized for the purpose the use of unobligated funds that had been appropriated for public works. The authority of the President was to continue for a period of two years after the date of enactment, March 31, 1933. 4.7

4.9 Executive Order No. 6101, April 5, 1933, "Relief of Unemployment through the Performance of Useful Public Work," in Executive Orders No. 6077–6299, Washington, 1933.

4.5 United States Statutes at Large, 48:22.

4.6 Ibid., 48:23.

4.7 Ibid., 48:23. The popular name of C.C.C. was officially adopted as the legal designation of the organization by an act approved June 28, 1937.
Acting promptly upon the authority vested in him the President gave effectiveness to the Emergency Conservation Work Act of March 31, 1933, by issuing Executive Order, Number 6101, April 5, 1933, which appointed Robert Fechner as Director of Emergency Conservation Work and provided for an advisory council consisting of representatives of each of the following: the Secretary of War, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of the Interior, and the Secretary of Labor. A fund of $10,000,000 was established in the treasury which was transferred from the unobligated balances of the appropriation for emergency construction of public buildings contained in an act of July 21, 1932. This fund was subject to requisition by the Director on the approval of the President. Under the direction of the President supplies and materials were to be furnished for Corps use upon the requisition of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work (Civilian Conservation Corps).

The head of the C.C.C. was the Director, Robert Fechner, of Boston, Massachusetts, a general vice-president of the International Association of Machinists. Those appointed to the

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49 Executive Order (No. 6101), April 5, 1933, "Relief of Unemployment Through the Performance of Useful Public Work," in Executive Orders No. 6071-6299, Washington, 1933.

The C.C.C. was established as the Emergency Conservation Work organization or E.C.W., however, at its very beginning it was popularly known as the Civilian Conservation Corps (C.C.C.). The popular name of C.C.C. was officially adopted as the legal designation of the organization by an act approved June 28, 1937.
Advisory Council were: W. Frank Persons, Director of the United States Employment Service, selected by the Secretary of Labor; Colonel Duncan K. Major, selected by the Secretary of War; Major R. Y. Stuart, Chief Forester of the United States Forest Service, selected by the Secretary of Agriculture; and Horace M. Albright, Director of the National Park Service, selected by the Secretary of Interior. These men were to cooperate with the Director of the Emergency Conservation Work Organization and upon his request confer with him and aid in carrying out the C.C.C. program.

The entire Departments of War, Interior, Agriculture, and Labor were also directed to cooperate with the Director of the C.C.C. The Department of Labor was charged with selection of junior enrollees in the C.C.C. The major functions of the War Department were to enroll, transport, feed, clothe, house, and care for the men selected. The Departments of the Interior and Agriculture were in charge of the work operations of the enrollees.

When President Roosevelt signed the bill authorizing the Civilian Conservation program he said, "I want the work to begin ever, the Labor Department's official representative, W. Frank

50 Kieley, C.C.C., 6-7.
52 Junior enrollees refers to the bulk of the enrollees in C.C.C. camps, the other enrollees being war veterans, Indians, and territorial enrollees each in their respective camps.
53 The C.C.C.: A Youth Program (Washington, 1938), not paged.
in two weeks. 54 After the appointment of Robert Fechner as
Director, effective April 5, the program went into immediate
action. Before Mr. Fechner had been in Washington twenty-four
hours he and his council were invited to the White House. The
President wanted to know when the first C.C.C. camp would be
established and Mr. Fechner informed him it would probably take
a month. Mr. Roosevelt repeated his statement, when he signed
the bill approving the C.C.C., by requesting that the first
camp be set up within two weeks. 55

This request called for hasty action and the immediate
need for formulating workable plans of mobilization and
organization. 56 The Emergency Conservation Work program was a
new venture and there were no directly comparable precedents
to guide its creation and administration. It proposed a peace-
time organization made up of 200 man companies to conserve the
natural resources of the country and to preserve the well being
of unemployed young men enrolling in the Corps. 56

The initial task, the selection of men, had been delegated
to the United States Department of Labor by the aforementioned
Executive Order issued April 5, 1933. 57 As early as April 3, how-
ever, the Labor Department's official representative, W. Frank

54 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), 10
55 Xieley, C.C.C., 8.
56 Summary Report of the Director of Emergency Conservation
Work: For the Period Extending From April 1933, to June 30,
Persons, was at work. Due to President Roosevelt's request that the first C.C.C. unit be set up in two weeks the Department of Labor invited representatives from seventeen of the largest cities in the United States to meet in Washington, D. C., for a conference on Wednesday evening, April 5. Here the "rapidly evolving plans and policies for selection" were announced and arrangements were made to send forward the enrollments were made on April 7, 1933.  

The advisory council for the Emergency Conservation Work organization held its first meeting April 3, even before the official appointment of its members had been announced. Each of the four government departments was represented and each began to outline its specific assignment.  

As heretofore indicated, it rested with the Labor Department to determine the general policies under which the selections were to be made. The Department of Labor decided to use the state unemployment machinery to aid in selection of enrollees; and it decided that the selection should be limited to physically fit unmarried men, between the ages of 18 to 25 years who were then unemployed and citizens of United States. Priority was given to those who wished to allot to their needy

relatives the major portion of their monthly allowance. Of these eligible young men, those to be selected first were from lists of families receiving public aid.59

The War Department prepared a draft of regulations to govern and administer the C.C.C. before the legislation of March 31 was enacted. During the period from March 24 until the final approval of the Emergency Conservation Work Act the War Department regulations were modified and Executive approval of the regulations was given on April 5. The first men accepted by the Army were certified to the War Department by the Department of Labor on April 7.60

The Agricultural and Interior Departments worked out their project plans in cooperation with the other departments and the Director.61

Thus, the C.C.C. organization was operating seven days after it was given legal sanction by Congress and the first camp was established on April 17 in the George Washington National Forest, near Luray, Virginia.62 The men in this first C.C.C. camp were mainly from large cities. They were transported to its location in motor trucks. The camp at first was housed in army tents, but later permanent barracks were built and the camp was enlarged with the construction of headquarters.

60 Ibid., 21-22.
61 The C.C.C.: A Youth Program (Washington, 1938), not paged.
62 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
recreation, and mess buildings.63

The total quota of the first enrollment had been set at 250,000 and by May 13 a total of 57,067 had been selected and enrolled. On May 20 this figure had increased to 101,859 and by May 27 the army had accepted 151,720 men for enrollment. The figure reached 204,577 on June 3 and by June 10 a total of 240,860 had been enrolled and sent forward by the Labor Department and within a few days thereafter the entire national quota was in conditioning camps or at work in forests and parks.64

In addition to the 250,000 enrollees, the President approved the selection of 25,000 local experienced men on the dual basis of need for experienced help and availability of men in the vicinity of work projects. The President also approved the selection of 25,000 war veteran enrollees and enrollees on Indian reservations65 and in the territories.66 Thus by June 7, 253,200 men had been enrolled and by July 1 the enrollment of local men had increased this figure to 296,700. Of these, after deducting losses from all causes,
270,000 enrollees occupied 1,330 work camps (in the forests of the nation) by June 29.  

A comparison with the First World War accomplishment is interesting. During the corresponding first three months of participation in the World War the United States War Department mobilized a total of 181,000 men and sent 16,000 to France. 

By September 30, 1933 the total expenditures for the C.C.C. amounted to 83 million and the unpaid obligations amounted to 37 million. The cost of the C.C.C. totaled 121 million. At the close of the first year there had not been less than two camps in any state. Thus the nation witnessed the most rapid mobilization of men in the country’s history and an organization that was represented in every state in the Union. 

When President Roosevelt addressed Congress January 4, 1935, he spoke of the economic problems of the day and cited the ways the nation had attempted to meet the problems and the success or futility of the work of the Civilian Conservation Corps in the early days. 

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69 First Report of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work: April 5 to September 30, 1933, 8. The figures cited are given in round numbers. 
71 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not pagged.
objectives that were kept in mind. He said the administration had been studying the "practicability of new forms of employment" ever since the adjournment of the Seventy-third Congress. He went on to say that the work itself would cover a wide field, including clearance of slums, rural housing, reforestation, program of soil erosion, and "in the extension and enlargement of the successful work of the Civilian Conservation Corps."72

The law under which the C.C.C. was created expired March 31, 1935, and in the hearings held before the Sub Committee of the House Committee on Appropriations decided that there were sufficient funds available to continue the Emergency Conservation work to that date. However, in view of the effectiveness of the conservation relief program and the desire of the administration to continue its existence and on an enlarged scale, it was decided to use the unobligated balances of the N.I.R.A., Public Works, and other relief projects.73

On March 31, 1935 the President asked Congress to extend the Civilian Conservation Corps for another two years. An act "Making appropriations for relief purposes" was passed by Congress and approved April 6, 1935. This Emergency Relief

72 Congressional Record, 74 Congress, 1 session (1935), 94-97.

Appropriations Act extended the life of the C.C.C. for two additional years and provided funds for the expanded Corps. 74 President Roosevelt called for expansion of the C.C.C. in April, 1935 in order to enable a larger number of the unemployed to benefit from the work. On April 25, 1935 an announcement was made saying that the President approved an increase in the Civilian Conservation Corps to a total strength of 600,000, including juniors, local experienced men, and veterans. The expansion process was to be accomplished between the dates of June 15 and August 31, 1935. He also approved a change in the upper age limit for juniors, setting the new age limit at 18-28 years. Preparatory to the increase in total strength an announcement was made May 27 requiring that all selections for enrollment beginning June 15, 1935 had to be from families on the public relief rolls. 75 In September 1935 two further changes in eligibility were made, both of which were designed to extend the opportunity of enrollment to a larger group of available applicants. The change of significance was the reduction in age minimum from 18 to 17 years. This caused a great increase in the number of applications submitted for enrollment in the Corps. The other change was the rescinding of regulations which had prevented

74 C.C.C. Workers Spent 1,801,907 Man-Days in the Control of Forest Fires: The Civilian Conservation Corps Program During The First Two Years (Washington, 1936), not paged. A folder published by Emergency Conservation Work.

enrollees with more than thirteen months previous service from being reselected and which had denied the privilege of enrollment at the camps to enrollees who had served eighteen months or more. 76 

The provision restricting enrollment to boys from relief families, war veterans, and local experienced men, coupled with a general improvement in business conditions which offered employment to young men, made it inexpedient to enroll the full quota of 600,000 that had been set up and the figure was reduced to 500,000. The number of camps to be placed in operation, which had been originally set at 2,916 was reduced to 2,652. 77 

The expansion of 1935 was carried out with the same efficient speed which marked the original organization of the C.C.C. The enrolled strength on April 10 was 235,732 78 and on August 31 the C.C.C. reached nearly 506,000 men. 79 

Nearing the close of the fiscal year 1937 a new enabling act, Civilian Conservation Corps Act, was approved June 28, 1937, which formally changed the name of Emergency Conservation Work to "enrolled and in need of employment,"

77 Kieley, C.C.C., 14. 
78 Ibid., 14. 
79 C.C.C. Workers Spent 1,801,907 Man-Days in the Control of Forest Fires (Washington, 1936), not paged.
Work to the Civilian Conservation Corps. 80 Section one of the Civilian Conservation Corps Act permitted the extension of the C.C.C. until July 1, 1940 and provided that at least ten hours each week "may be devoted to general educational and vocational training." Section two authorized the President to appoint a Director with the advice and consent of the Senate at a salary of $10,000 per annum. In Section three of the Act the Director was authorized to provide employment for the Corps on works of public interest and utility. 81 The statute set the maximum of enrolled men at 300,000, of which not more than 30,000 could be war veterans and in addition camps could be established for Indian enrollees not to exceed 10,000 and 5,000 additional territorial and insular enrollees. 82

The law modified standards of eligibility by providing that applicant enrollees could not be excluded because families were not dependent on public relief or welfare aid. 83 Section eight stated that the qualifications of enrollees "shall be unmarried male citizens of the United States between the ages of seventeen and twenty three years ... and shall at the time of enrollment be unemployed and in need of employment."

81 United States Statutes at Large, 50:319.
82 Ibid., 50:320.
The enrollment period was for six months and reenrollment periods (with the exception of five positions) were not to exceed two years.\textsuperscript{34}

The compensation of enrollees was to be in accordance with schedules approved by the President and it was not to exceed $30 per month and assistant leaders, limited in number, were not to receive more than $36 per month. Enrollees with dependent members in their families were required to make allotments of their pay to dependents according to regulations prescribed by the Director.\textsuperscript{35} In addition to their monthly rates of pay the enrollees received food, clothing shelter, hospitalization, medical attention, and such transportation as the Director deemed necessary.\textsuperscript{36}

The President was authorized by Section twelve to utilize the services and facilities of government departments or agencies that he considered essential to carrying out the provisions of the Act. The Director had the power to authorize expenditures as he deemed necessary for supplies, material, and equipment for enrollees.\textsuperscript{37}

All of the foregoing provisions of the Civilian Conservation Corps Act of June 28, 1937, took effect July 1, 1937.\textsuperscript{38} The act set up the C.C.C. as an agency without reference to

\textsuperscript{34} United States Statutes at Large, 50:320.
\textsuperscript{35} Ibid., 50:320.
\textsuperscript{36} Ibid., 50:321.
\textsuperscript{37} Ibid., 50:321.
\textsuperscript{38} Ibid., 50:322.
other agencies or activities in emergency relief legislation.

One of the major changes during the fiscal year 1938 was that the year advanced the Corps in the direction of an integrated youth employment program under the Civilian Conservation Corps Act of June 28, 1937, which removed the status of the C.C.C. as an emergency stop gap. This was effected by giving the organization a three-year life as a regular organization of the Federal Government.

The Civilian Conservation Corps Act was amended May 12, 1938, to provide that any enrollee could be "discharged for the convenience of the Government within thirty days prior to the expiration of his period of enrollment." The amendment also provided, in Section eight, for five project assistants.

The amendment of June 25, 1938, affected Section nine of the Civilian Conservation Corps Act by stating that enrollees in group in a Federal Service Agency whose Territories and insular possessions of the United States were called upon to promote social and economic welfare to be exempt from the regulations prescribed by the Director in regard to monthly payments to dependents.

On May 15, 1939, the President, by Executive Order, transferred the cooperative function of the Department of Labor to the office of the Director of the C.C.C. The function of the Service Corps was one of selecting junior applicants for enrollment in the Corps. 4

Kieley, C.C.C., 15.
91 United States Statutes at Large, 52:349.
92 Ibid., 52:1198.
Corps. Another change during the year 1939 was the decision to change the color of the uniform of the C.C.C. enrollees from a drab olive color to a dark spruce green. It was believed that by this action the distinctive uniform of green would improve the morale of the enrollees and "increase esprit de corps."94

A step that led to an important change in the Civilian Conservation Corps was initiated in 1939 and became operative in 1940 when President Roosevelt approved an act "To provide for reorganizing agencies of the Government, and for other purposes" on April 3, 1939. Under the provisions of this act, commonly known as the Reorganization Act of 1939, the President submitted to Congress a message dated April 25, 1939, and Reorganization Plan No. 1, dated April 25, 1939. He said:

"I find it necessary and desirable to group in a Federal Security Agency those agencies of the Government, the major purposes of which are to promote social and economic security, educational opportunity, and the health of the citizens of the Nation. The agencies to be grouped are the Social Security Board . . . and the Civilian Conservation Corps now an independent agency."


95 Ibid., 5; United States Statutes at Large, 53:561-565.
... the Civilian Conservation Corps, now an independent establishment, is placed under the Federal Security Agency because of the fact that its major purpose is to promote the welfare and further the training of the individuals who make up the corps, important as may be the construction work which they have carried on so successfully. The Civilian Conservation Corps is a small coordinating agency which supervises work carried on with the cooperation of several regular departments and independent units of the Government. This transfer would not interfere with the plan of work heretofore carried on but it would enable the Civilian Conservation Corps to coordinate its policies, as well as its operations, with those other agencies of the Government concerned with the educational and health activities and with human security.  

By legislation which provided that the reorganization plan numbered I. and II. should take effect July 1, 1939 the Civilian Conservation Corps was made a part of the Federal Security Agency. Other agencies included in the Federal Security Agency were the Social Security Board, Office of Education, Public Health Service, and the National Youth Administration.

On August 7, 1939, President Roosevelt approved an act of Congress which made the last proviso of section one of the Civilian Conservation Act read "Provided, That the provisions shall apply to the President in all cases where the interest of economy, efficiency, and national defense require the consolidation of functions and facilities of the several Federal departments and agencies, and of the essential Federal Expenditures, headed by Senator Byrd of Virginia, recommended to the President various steps whereby ..."
of this act shall continue ***July 1, 1943.***

The legislation bearing on the Civilian Conservation Corps activity in the national defense program was recognized by Congress when it approved an amendment that authorized the President to direct the C.C.C. enrollees to be trained in skills vital to military operation.

During the first week in November, 1941, President Roosevelt took steps to consolidate the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. under the Federal Security Agency. He directed Paul McNutt, Federal Security Chief, and Harold H. Smith, Director of the Budget, to draft merger plans. On December 9, 1941, Representative Lyndon B. Johnson, Democrat of Texas, introduced a bill to consolidate the N.Y.A. and C.C.C. administration in the interest of economy, efficiency, and national defense. This bill was endorsed by President Roosevelt. During the same month, however, the Joint Committee on Reduction of Non-essential Federal Expenditures, headed by Senator Byrd of Virginia, recommended to the President various steps whereby

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100 United States Statutes At Large, 54:625-626.

101 N.Y.A. is the letter title of the National Youth Administration.


103 Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 1 session (December 8, 1941 to January 2, 1942), 9847, A5835; New York Times, December 10, 1941.
savings for use of the war program could be effected and among the recommendations was the abolition of the C.C.C. A bill providing for the termination of the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. was introduced in the Senate February 23, 1942, by Senator Kenneth McKellar. No final legislative action was taken on either the consolidation of the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. or the abolition of the C.C.C. by the spring of 1942. Therefore, the C.C.C. by the legislative action of August 7, 1939, would continue to function to July 1, 1943.


2. Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 2 session (1942), 1555.


The President of the United States took an active role in the Civilian Conservation Corps from the time of its establishment in 1933. He was granted authoritative power in the Emergency Conservation Work Act of 1933, and this power was continued in amended legislation. The power was one of

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTIONING

OF THE C.C.C.

In its administrative organization in 1941 the Civilian Conservation Corps was a part of the Federal Security Agency which had been established in 1939. President Roosevelt, by his authoritative power, had shaped the C.C.C. organization as an independent government agency employing the combined skills of existing government agencies in carrying out the C.C.C. program. By his reorganization plan, however, the C.C.C. became a part of the Federal Security Agency and as such it continued to use existing government agencies in carrying out its work program.

The President of the United States took an active role in the Civilian Conservation Corps from the time of its establishment in 1933. He was granted authoritative power in the Emergency Conservation Work Act of 1933, and this power was continued in succeeding legislation. The power was one of supervision at the annual meeting of the Woodlands section, Canadian pulp and paper association, January 25, 1933, by Professor Edward C. Brown, New York State College of Forestry.

1 United States Statutes at Large, 48:22-24; Annual Report of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work: June 30, 1936, 1; Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 5; Executive Order (No. 6101), April 5, 1933.
prescribing rules and regulations for the C.C.C. which gave
him general supervisory control over the organization. The
immediate work of the Civilian Conservation Corps was placed in
the hands of the Director of the C.C.C. Under the basic law
of March 31, 1933, and by Executive Orders the President
appointed by and with the consent of the Senate the Director
who was assigned the charge of the C.C.C. program. The
director had complete and final authority of the Corps.

In its final organization the Director had the authority
to coordinate and direct all C.C.C. operation. He was assisted
by three government departments (War Department, Department of
the Interior, and the Department of Agriculture) and an agency
(Veterans' Administration), each of which cooperated with him
in the enrollment of men, the administration of the camps, and
the advancement of the work programs. The Director approved
quotes fixing the number of men to be enrolled from each state,
all locations for C.C.C. camps, and all regulations issued in
connection with the administration and operation of the Corps.
The Office of the Director was also responsible for the

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2 United States Statutes at Large, 48:22-24; Nelson C.
Brown, *The Civilian Conservation Corps Program In the United
States (Washington, 1934)*, 1. A bulletin which is a copy of a
paper given at the annual meeting of the Woodlands section
Canadian pulp and paper association, January 25, 1933, by
Professor Nelson C. Brown, New York State College of Forestry.
3 Annual Report of the Director of Emergency Conservation
Work: June 30, 1936, 1.
4 *The Civilian Conservation Corps: What It Is and What It
Does* (Washington, 1941), 2; Annual Report of the Director of the
Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1938, 4.
selection of the enrollees. In general, the Director initiated or approved all major plans or policies for the Civilian Conservation Corps through investigations and reports and sought to ascertain that all approved plans and policies were properly carried out. It was here that Robert Fechner and Franklin D. Roosevelt selected Robert Fechner, a man experienced in labor organization and relationships, to act as Director of the C.C.C. Mr. Fechner had quit school at the age of sixteen to become a machinist apprentice. He learned his trade in the Georgia Railway Shops and then took to the road and worked in Central America, South America, Mexico, and the United States. From this beginning he worked his way to national labor leadership. He started his career as a labor organizer in Savannah when he was elected secretary of the local machinists' craft union. In 1913, in Massachusetts, his own craft organization advanced him to membership in the general executive board of the International Association of Machinists and with the coming of the First World War he was elected vice-president of that group.

6 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1938, 5
7 "C.C.C. Least Criticized New Deal Unit." Literary Digest, 121:48 (April 18, 1936); "The Labor Army Takes the Field." Literary Digest, 115:6 (April 15, 1933).
8 "Poor Young Men," Time, 33:11 (February 6, 1939).
10 Oliver and Dudley, This New America, 173.
During the war Franklin D. Roosevelt, as Assistant Secretary of the Navy, acted as arbiter in Uncle Sam's relation with the workers in federal and private shipyards. The metal trades sent Robert Fechner to Washington, D. C. to act as their spokesman. It was here that Robert Fechner and Franklin D. Roosevelt began an acquaintance that later led to Mr. Fechner's selection as Director of the C.C.C. Because of Robert Fechner's experience as a labor union leader and as an organizer, President Roosevelt decided that he was the best man for the job of organizing and directing the Civilian Conservation Corps. In this capacity, Fechner served from April 31, 1933, until his death, December 31, 1939. James J. McEntee, who had been a fellow unionist of Fechner's and who had helped him organize the conservation camps and coordinate the departmental agencies, took the oath of office as Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps March 5, 1940. James J. McEntee had been the former assistant director.
Formerly, as previously stated, the selection of junior enrollees had been the responsibility of the Department of Labor, but by Executive Order of May 15, 1939, the national administration of selection was transferred to the office of the Director.\textsuperscript{17} There was no fundamental change of selection policy, procedure, or staff, when the transfer became effective. Neither was there a change in the existing state-wide organizations of selecting agencies. The selection machinery set up in 1933 continued to operate in substantially the same form. Experience, however, did result in improved methods and procedure.\textsuperscript{18}

The Director of the C.C.C. was the authoritative head of the selection of enrollees, and a special assistant to the Director had immediate supervision over the activities of state selecting agencies. It was through these agencies, which were the established public welfare agencies, that the selection of junior enrollees was carried on in each state.\textsuperscript{19} That is, each of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia departments of public welfare provided facilities and personnel as C.C.C. selecting agencies. These agencies served the C.C.C. on a voluntary basis and were not paid for from the funds of and it was subject to amendment at any time during that year.

\begin{footnotes}
\item[17] Executive Order (No. 8133), May 15, 1939.
\end{footnotes}
Uniform national standards of eligibility, approved by the Director, provided the basis upon which all selections were made. It was these eligibility requirements that state selection agencies were required to follow. \(^{21}\) Before any state agencies could act as C.C.C. selecting agencies they had to secure formal appointment from the Director's Office. All states were required to present a documented plan to the Director's Office describing the organization and procedures proposed to be followed by the state selecting agency. This was done in order to obtain assurances from the states that they had full understanding of the purpose, policies, and the requirements of the C.C.C., and that they were in a position to carry forward responsibilities assigned to state selecting agencies. When the state plan had been received by the Director's Office it was reviewed and analyzed. Formal appointment was issued to the state agency after the Director's Office had been satisfied that the state provided adequate statewide selecting agency facilities and accepted the uniform minimum standards which were essential to assure effective selection. \(^{22}\) The plan was effective during the fiscal year and it was subject to amendment at any time during that year.

\(^{20}\) Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 10.


\(^{22}\) Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 11.
upon the agreement of the state selecting agency and the Director.\(^{23}\) The state selecting agency was authorized to delegate responsibility for receiving applications and making individual selections to its local welfare offices. In the fiscal year 1941 over 4,500 local C.C.C. agents selected eligible youths in their respective communities for enrollment in the corps. The local agents, just as the state agencies, served on a voluntary basis without being paid from C.C.C. funds.\(^{24}\) In order that local selecting agents might be fitted to do their C.C.C. job well they received constant training. The same general program was followed in each state. The state office furnished local selecting agents with numbered series of formal letters of instruction; with a suitable manual of selection procedure which supplemented the national distribution of bulletins that set forth uniform eligibility standards; with supervision by field contacts, and, in most instances, with the opportunity for group meetings and conferences.\(^{25}\) The selection of members of the War Veterans' contingent of the corps was accomplished through the regional and local facilities of the Veterans' Administration.\(^{26}\)

\(^{23}\) Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 12.


\(^{25}\) Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 12.

The Director, when approving quotas of enrollment, set up it was limited by law as to the maximum enrollment. The national quota was broken down into state quotas by each state being assigned its proportionate share of the national quota based upon population figures.

The Federal Departments of War, Agriculture, the Interior, and the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs assisted the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps as a joint body, by each respective department and the agency appointing a representative that formed an Advisory Council. The members of this council, upon the request of the Director, conferred with him and under his direction aided him in carrying out the C.C.C. program.

The members of the Advisory Council in 1941 were: J. A. Ulio, Brigadier General, Assistant to the Adjutant General; War Department; Conrad L. Wirth, Department of the Interior; Fred Morrell, Department of Agriculture; and C. W. Bailey, Administrator's Office of the Veterans' Administration.

In addition to having a representative on the Advisory Council, each department had further specific duties and activities in the Civilian Conservation Corps. The War Department was responsible for the physical examination.
enrollment, equipping, and conditioning of the enrollees. It provided the transportation of the enrollees to camp and to their homes or place of enrollment after their term in camp was ended. It was also responsible for administering the C.C.C. camps. This included providing food, clothing, housing, medical and dental care, education for the enrollees, and the payment of the enrollees' monthly salary. All these activities necessitated administrative organization wherein the War Department agencies concerned were: The Adjutant General, The Quartermaster General, The Surgeon General, The Chief of Finance, The Chief of Chaplains, and The Chief Signal Officer; all were under the supervision of the War Department representative on the Advisory Council. The United States Office of Education acted as an adviser to the War Department on educational matters, employed educational personnel, and prepared the educational program. The Adjutant General's Office was the administrative office and the office of record of the War Department. Through it passed all the correspondence pertaining to the War Department administration and in it were kept the records of all enrollees sent to it and consolidated therein. The Chief of Finance

31 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
War Department transactions. The army administration was centralized in the office of the Adjutant General and matters which fell under established policies were dealt with and disposed of in this office; those which were not, were sent to the proper office for preliminary study before final disposition was made. The Adjutant General was charged with the administration of all welfare and educational activities in the Civilian Conservation Corps. Funds for such purposes were allotted to him and then in turn suballotted to the field agencies. Provision was made for magazines, libraries, and supplies for patients in hospitals. Each camp had space provided for recreational purposes. During the fiscal year 1941, as in the years immediately succeeding the establishment of the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Quartermaster General was charged with providing food, clothing, equipment, shelter, and transportation for the C.C.C. organization. The chief duties of the other administrative personnel were as follows: The Surgeon General was charged with responsibility for the health of Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees. Weekly reports from camps were sent to him and he consolidated them.

34 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 18.
of the United States Army was the Fiscal Agent of the C.C.C., amounts included in the expenditure program were allotted by the Fiscal Agent to the Federal Security Agency, the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps, and to the Departments of War, Agriculture, and the Interior. The Finance Department made payments for the corps in the United States, Hawaii, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. These payments included those for personal services, supplies required for the corps, the monthly cash allowances to enrollees, and allotments of pay to dependents of the enrollees. 37 The Chief of Chaplains supervised religious ministrations in the Civilian Conservation Corps. 38 The responsibility or function of The Chief Signal Officer was to provide necessary communication facilities for the Civilian Conservation Corps. The office of The Chief Signal Officer had assisted and supervised corps area activities through its supply depots and engineering staff. 39

The administration of the corps in the field was decentralized to the commanders of the nine Army Corps areas into which the United States was divided, each of whom was responsible to the War Department for the operation of the

37 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
38 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 18.
39 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 32.
C.C.C. in his area. The next step in decentralization was the district areas of the C.C.C. The district commanders were responsible to the corps area commander in the exercise of their duties in the operation of the corps in the district. The next division in the area was the actual companies or camps themselves. Each camp had a C.C.C. company commander who had an assistant designated as a subaltern, and a civilian educational adviser assigned to his company. The company commander exercised the normal functions of the company commander in the army with the exception of actual military training. He commanded the camp; and he had final decision in all matters relating to health, sanitation, discipline, company administration, supply, education, and welfare within the camp. He was responsible for enrollees at all times except when they were at work.

Each camp had a superintendent who was an employee of one of the agencies or bureaus of the Department of Agriculture or the Department of the Interior carrying out the conservation

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40 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
41 Civilian Conservation Corps Regulations (War Department, Washington, 1937), 2.
42 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
44 The C.C.C. At Work: A Story of 2,500,000 Young Men (Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington, 1941), 10.
50 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
work of the respective camp. He was responsible for the men while they were engaged in work.\textsuperscript{45}

In addition to the company commander, subaltern, educational adviser,\textsuperscript{46} and superintendent, each camp had a doctor, the services of a chaplain, as well as the services of officers, technicians, or experienced men if they were desired or needed.\textsuperscript{47} There also were enrollees in each camp who were aided in the administrative and conservation work program. They were: a mess steward, cooks, project assistants, a leader, and assistant leaders.\textsuperscript{48} The bulk or body of the camp was two hundred enrollees which made up one company.\textsuperscript{49}

During the fiscal year 1941 there were on duty with the C.C.C. 777 Regular Army Officers, 3,189 members of the Reserve Corps on a civilian status, including 24 Naval Reserve Officers, 12 Marine Corps Officers, and 1 Coast Guard Warrant Officer.\textsuperscript{50}

Previous to December 31, 1939, the officers of the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps Reserve in command of C.C.C. camps were

\textsuperscript{45} The C.C.C. At Work: A Story of 2,500,000 Young Men (Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington, 1941), 10.
\textsuperscript{46} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
\textsuperscript{48} United States Statutes at Large 50:320; United States Statutes at Large 52:349.
\textsuperscript{49} The Civilian Conservation Corps: What It Is and What It Does (Washington, 1941), 17.
\textsuperscript{50} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
on an active duty status.\textsuperscript{51} Each commanding officer had a
junior officer who also was on active duty. On June 16, 1939,
pursuant to an order of the President, instructions were issued
to the effect that no additional Reserve officers would be
called to active duty with the C.C.C. and that all such officers
would be replaced by civilian employees by December 31, 1939.\textsuperscript{52}
Individuals were placed on a civilian status as their active
duty tours expired subsequent to July 1, and the transitions
were completed by December 31, 1939.\textsuperscript{53}
Medical care for enrollees was provided by full-time
the doctors either in a classified status or on contract
supplemented by some part-time contract doctors.\textsuperscript{54} Previous
to the aforementioned order of the President and the issuance
of instructions that no additional Reserve officers be called
to active duty, the medical care had been provided by reserve
medical officers on active duty or by civilian physicians
under contract.\textsuperscript{55}
Full-time Reserve chaplains in a civilian status or part-

\textsuperscript{51} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 17.
\textsuperscript{52} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 25.
\textsuperscript{53} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 17.
\textsuperscript{54} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
\textsuperscript{55} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 25.

\textsuperscript{56} Biological Survey revisions to the fiscal year 1941 and the National Agricultural Research Center had been known as Beltsville Research Center previously to the fiscal year 1941.
time civilian clergymen under contract served the religious needs of the enrollees assisted by volunteer clergymen.\textsuperscript{56} (As was the case with the medical officers, the chaplains formerly had been on an active duty status).\textsuperscript{57}

The Department of the Interior and the Department of Agriculture were responsible for the designation, planning, and supervision of the work projects carried out under the supervision of experienced technicians of the various agencies and bureaus of the two Departments.\textsuperscript{58} These agencies and bureaus varied somewhat in different fiscal years due to the types of work projects undertaken.\textsuperscript{59} From July 1, 1940, through June 30, 1941, the cooperating agencies and bureaus of the Department of the Interior were: National Park Service, Grazing Service, Bureau of Reclamation, Fish and Wildlife Service, General Land Office, and Office of Indian Affairs. The cooperating agencies and bureaus of the Department of Agriculture were: Forest Service, Soil Conservation Service, Bureau of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, Bureau of Plant Industry, and Not Less Than 17 Years Old nor More than 23\textsuperscript{1}/2 Years of Age.

\textsuperscript{56} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 17.
\textsuperscript{57} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 25.
\textsuperscript{58} The Civilian Conservation Corps: What It Is and What It Does (Washington, 1941), 3.
\textsuperscript{59} The annual reports by the Director of the C.C.C. noted changes in the agencies and bureaus cooperating with the Departments of Agriculture and the Interior. The Fish and Wildlife Service had been known as Biological Survey previous to the fiscal year 1941 and the National Agricultural Research Center had been known as Beltsville Research Center previous to the fiscal year 1941.
Bureau of Animal Industry, and the National Agricultural Research Center. 60

The Veterans' Administration cooperated with the Director of the C.C.C. in carrying out the Civilian Conservation Corps program. The Veterans' Administration had charge of its own enrollees and maintained Veterans' Civilian Conservation Corps camps. 61 Likewise, the Indian Civilian Conservation Corps camps had their own administrative body which was the Office of Indian Affairs. 62 In addition to junior enrollee camps, war veterans' camps, and Indian camps, there were C.C.C. camps in Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands. 63

The diagram on page forty-eight illustrates the basic administrative organization of the C.C.C. as it existed in the fiscal year 1941.

The standards of eligibility as given for junior enrollees in September, 1941, were as follows: In order to be eligible for selection (or reselection) for enrollment in the C.C.C. the applicant had to be a male citizen of United States, unmarried, and not less than 17 years of age nor more than 23½ years of age on the day of enrollment. A further qualification was that the

60 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 76.
61 Ibid., 48.
63 Ibid., 3; Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 46.
applicant had to be unemployed and in need of employment and not in regular attendance at school. An applicant had to be willing to allot a part of his monthly cash allowance to his dependents, and deposit a part of his allowance with the Chief of Finance, War Department. An applicant with no dependents was also required to deposit a portion of his monthly cash allowance. Other qualifications were good physical condition, good character, and willingness to accept enrollment in any camp. A former junior enrollee could be reselected if he had been honorably discharged, if he had not been an enlisted member of the C.C.C. for the immediately preceding three months, and if his total previous service in the corps since July 1, 1937, did not exceed 18 months. These reselection requirements of length of service did not apply to the ten exempted men of each company. The individuals who were not eligible for selection or reselection were those under probation or parole due to crime.

Those youths who met the aforementioned requirements, and who were interested in the C.C.C., could secure information and make an application to enroll at a local C.C.C. recruiting agency at any time. Actual selections and enrollments were made quarterly (January, April, July, October).

65 Standards of Eligibility for Junior Enrollees (Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington, September, 1941), 1-4.
66 Ibid., 4.
67 Work Experience that Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged. A folder published by the Civilian Conservation Corps.
in numbers to fill vacancies in the camps. During the fiscal year 1941, however, authorization was given for "intermediate" enrollment to supplement the regular quarterly enrollment. These "intermediate" enrollments of replacements for given camps began in February, 1941, and were scheduled during the final ten days of the month following regular quarterly enrollment periods. The vacancies in camps occurred when enrollees completed their enrollment period or were honorably discharged before their enrollment period had been completed because they had secured employment. Sometimes, vacancies existed due to a change in the national maximum quota of enrollment which was affected by C.C.C. legislation and Executive Orders.

An individual enrolled in the C.C.C. for a period of six months and the maximum length of service was a two year term with the exception of ten enrollee positions in each camp. The ten enrollee positions exempted by law from the length of service limitation were five enrollees chosen by the technical service in the camp as project assistants who worked as subforemen or specialists in the conservation work project. The five others were the ones assigned to the camp administrative office.

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staff—two cooks, a storekeeper, a mess steward, and senior leader.  

The C.C.C. enrollees were paid in two ways—real wages and cash or check wages. Regular C.C.C. enrollees were paid $30 a month. Of this amount, as previously stated in the eligibility requirements, all enrollees with dependents were required by law to make a monthly allotment of a portion of their cash allowances to dependents. By a decision of the Director of the C.C.C., on and after January 1, 1941, the amount of this required allotment was to be $15 in all cases. Each enrollee had to save $7 per month and had to deposit it with the Chief of Finance of the War Department. An enrollee who did not have any dependents was required to deposit $22 per month. These accumulated deposits were repaid to the enrollees upon the completion of their enrollment or release from enrollment due to an emergency or employment.  

The distribution of cash of most enrollees was as follows:  

To enrollees in cash . . . . . . . . . . . . . . $8 per month  
To dependents . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . $15 per month  
To savings account . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . $7 per month

The $8 which was paid to each enrollee in cash at camp was...

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73 Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.  
74 Standards of Eligibility for Junior Enrollees (Washington, 1941), 5.  
75 Ibid., 6-7.
enough to pay for his personal expenses including some
amusements.\textsuperscript{76} Some enrollees were able to earn $36 per month by being
promoted to the position of assistant leader. If an enrollee
succeeded in becoming a leader he received $45 per month.\textsuperscript{77} These men could receive more than $8 in cash per month.\textsuperscript{78} Not
more than ten percent of the enrollees could be appointed
assistant leaders and not more than six percent could be
appointed leaders.\textsuperscript{79}

It cost $500 to maintain an enrollee in a C.C.C. camp for
six months. Of this amount $320 went to operate the corps
and maintain the enrollee in camp, and $90 was sent to aid the
enrollee's dependents. During this period each enrollee
received $48 in cash, and $42 was given to him when he left
the corps as the lump sum of his saving of $7 a month.\textsuperscript{80}

While in camp the enrollees were offered educational and
training opportunities. The educational program was very in-
formal in nature in its initial efforts. In each camp there
generally was a small group of enrollees who were interested
in asking questions about their work or the work which was
and unemployed teachers where available under the emergency
relief men.\textsuperscript{82}

\textsuperscript{76} Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
\textsuperscript{77} Ibid., not paged.
\textsuperscript{78} The Civilian Conservation Corps: What It Is and What
It Does (Washington, 1941), 7.
\textsuperscript{79} United States Statutes At Large 50:320.
\textsuperscript{80} "Eight Years of C.C.C. Operations, 1933-1941," Monthly
Labor Review, 52:1409 (June, 1941); The Civilian Conservation
being completed on conservation projects. Usually the army officers, or work supervisory personnel, or all of them, would try to answer the questions of the group and in some instances made a series of informal lectures on many subjects. In some of the camps illiterate enrollees were taught to read and write by interested officers or personnel. A number of the corps area commanders laid out provisional courses of instruction which camp commanders were requested to present to the enrollees. 81

The entire educational program of the C.C.C. was largely one of voluntary participation on the part of enrollees as well as administrators. A more permanently organized and amplified program, however, was approved by President Roosevelt December 7, 1933. An educational director was appointed by the Commissioner of Education and it was his task to draw up a general educational program and arrange for the assignment of approximately 1,000 camp educational advisers. The educational program provided that teachers for the camps were to be selected from among the men, the officers, the camp technical staff, voluntary teachers from local education institutions, and unemployed teachers where available under the emergency relief program. 82 The program also provided for the appointment of an educational adviser in each corps area who was to 81 Second Report of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work: April 5, 1933 to March 31, 1934, 7.

82 Ibid., 7.
advise the corps area commander in initiating and developing the educational program for the respective corps areas. It was the army's responsibility to put the program into effect and administer it. This was done during the winter 1933-34.

A further development in administrative organization of the education program appeared in June, 1935, when district educational advisers were assigned to district commanders to render services similar to those of the corps area educational advisers. The work of the educational personnel, but also with the assistance of the district educational advisers, was accomplished through the efforts of the United States Commissioner of Education and the Adjutant General's Office, assisted by an Advisory Committee made up of representatives of the Director of the C.C.C. and each of the departments of War, Agriculture, and the Interior. The technical details of the program were handled by the Office of C.C.C. Camp Education which functioned as a division of the Office of Education for the year 1935-1940, one hundred and fifty-nine schools and colleges.


85 Ibid., 2.
Education. From here administration and guidance filtered down through the field administration where corps area commanders were responsible for the administration of the educational program. Each such commander had an educational adviser assigned to him. The district commanders administered the program within their respective districts and they, too, had educational advisers assigned to them.  

The educational program did not function solely through the efforts and work of the educational personnel, but also with the aid and cooperation of the coordinating Federal Departments of War, Agriculture, and Interior which had been responsible, to a considerable extent, for the success and progress of the educational program. In addition to the cooperation within the corps itself, there had been an increased interest in C.C.C. education on the part of local and private educational organizations throughout the country. This was shown by the action of forty-seven states and the District of Columbia which issued regulations in regard to the accreditation of C.C.C. camp classes. Local and private interest in C.C.C. education was further shown by the fact that during the school year 1939-1940, one hundred and fifty-nine schools and colleges

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87 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 35.
granted five hundred and sixty-four scholarships to C.C.C. enrollees. In each camp the educational program was under the administration of the company commander. He was charged with administering in his camp a balanced educational program that was so organized and conducted as to supplement and take full advantage of the work project of his camp. He was advised by a camp educational committee, which, in addition to himself, was composed of the project superintendent and the camp educational adviser. It was through this camp committee that the educational activities of the camp were coordinated. They worked out the problem of correlating instruction on the job with training so related; also the methods of teaching and the types of instructional material to be used were decided upon. The instructors were secured from camp personnel (army, technical service, and enrolled), from nearby schools, and from various agencies engaged in promoting the welfare of youth. The average camp had sixteen instructors.

From its informal beginning the instructional phase of the educational program in the C.C.C. had been expanded and altered to meet the needs of the country and the enrollees. During the first few years of the operation of the program the elimination of illiteracy and the advancement of academic

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89 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 35.
90 Ibid., 35-36.
education was stressed. There were, however, always practical objectives in the instruction that enrollees received in order to fit them for future employment. While academic education had a definite place in the scheme of C.C.C. education, even as early as 1936, a trend toward what was termed by educational advisers as more practical or vocational training was apparent. The trend gained greater momentum from the fact that the underlying purpose of C.C.C. education was that of making each enrollee more employable as well as a better citizen. By 1938 "self-support" for the enrollee was the goal of the educational program and practicability was the keynote of instruction. General education and the elementary curriculum including literary training, grammar, penmanship, reading, spelling, arithmetic, civics, geography, and history continued to be a definite part of educational instruction. Vocational training, however, was considered one of the major objectives of the program and it saw great expansion by 1940 and 1941. As a part of vocational instruction, job training became an important part of the educational program. Job training referred to the work the enrollee and the instruction he could secure. It was the experience and knowledge that counted in the entrance examination for enrollees.

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the enrollee gained while in the corps which was to fit him for "job" employment in society after he had completed his enrollment period.  

There were two kinds of job training for the C.C.C. enrollees: training "on the job" and training "off the job." Training "on the job" consisted of instruction by the foremen during the workday. The foremen showed the enrollees how to do a job and then let them do it. Thus, the enrollees secure practice while on the job. Training "off the job" was given to the enrollees by the camp educational instruction program. Its purpose was to teach the enrollee facts that could not be given during the regular workday. An example of job training was ditch digging which afforded primary instruction in surveying, drainage, hydraulics, and sanitation. Additional training to the primary instruction could be secured by the enrollee through the camp's educational program.

Before 1941 enrollees of the C.C.C. partook of the educational program on a purely voluntary basis and class instruction was given in the evening during the enrollee's leisure hours. Beginning in March, 1941, C.C.C. camp commanders were authorized to release enrollees from their job

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95 Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
assignments, for not more than five hours weekly, to attend vocational classes related to defense. This authorization covered classes given under public school auspices as well as classes offered through the C.C.C. educational program. As national efforts were turned towards building national defense and military strength the C.C.C. stressed training and vocational instruction that was related to the country's national defense program. In 1941 an announcement was made of an expanded program of vocational and academic education in the C.C.C. A minimum of vocational training equivalent to one day (8 hours) per week was made compulsory for each enrollee. Fifty-two occupations in C.C.C. camps were identified and analyzed, and training was planned in relation to these occupations with C.C.C. work experience as the laboratory classroom project. A further requirement was that each enrollee had to take examinations in ordinary tool subjects. If the enrollee was "below par," attendance was required at classes in reading, writing, and arithmetic until the enrollee reached "a satisfactory level of competence." This new program was worked out by H. W. Oxley, director of C.C.C. education, and his associates.

98 Civilian Conservation Corps: Contributing to the Defense of the Nation (Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington 1941), not paged.
The increasing emphasis on vocational education in 1941 was made more apparent by the activity in special schools, automotive shops, and the types of work stressed. During 1941 one hundred and twenty-two special C.C.C. schools and fifty-five central repair shops afforded full-time training for selected enrollees in auto mechanics, baking and cooking, radio, and leadership. In them, in 1941, the C.C.C. trained 9,000 enrollees as cooks, bakers, and mess stewards; 1,600 in signal communications, 500 as junior officers, and 5,000 in practical motor repair and maintenance.

In the central motor repair shops, where 45,000 pieces of C.C.C. automotive equipment were overhauled and kept in repair, as many as 500 enrollees were assigned at one time to work beside skilled mechanics. As the fiscal year 1941 ended a program was underway to construct classrooms at each of the shops. Where the distance from the nearest camp was too great for satisfactory transportation of the enrollees from camp to shop each day, side camps were being established on or near the shop grounds. Each camp was to accommodate approximately 50 junior enrollees selected for apprenticeship training at the repair shop. In addition to the necessary facilities for housing, supply, and administration, each camp received a


101 Civilian Conservation Corps: Contributing to the Defense of the Nation (Washington, 1941), not pag.
building containing classroom and workshop space for advanced courses of training in automotive mechanism. The C.C.C. cook and baker schools provided advanced training for the enrollees who "manned" the camp kitchens. In these schools the courses ranged from three weeks to two months, with the schools accommodating 1,100 enrollees at a time. The radio schools trained junior camp officers and the clerk schools furnished trained personnel to handle important positions in camp administration. Building facilities for education were increased by the construction of separate shop buildings, for automotive shop-schools, for educational use at all newly established camps and other camps where educational shop facilities were lacking; this had been in progress since March, 1941. Floor space provided in educational buildings in C.C.C. camps amounted to approximately one-twelfth of the total floor area of a standard camp unit. When the C.C.C. program was established in 1933 no school buildings or shops were provided; a number of camps, however, provided classrooms and shops from company funds. In November, 1937, the Director of the C.C.C. authorized the addition of an educational building to all camps. In most cases a portable building, easily assembled and varied in size

103 Ibid., 11.
to meet local conditions, was added to the standard camp.  

In 1941, in addition to the side camp units and automotive shop activities of that year, contracts were awarded for the purchase of thirty-one special classroom and shop buildings of a portable type. 

The increased facilities for vocational education enabled the Civilian Conservation Corps to carry on a wide field of vocation training. The vocational training in the Corps could be classified as follows:

1. Training received while at work—such as truck and tractor driving, blasting, and road bridge building.

2. Related training—given in camp classrooms, such as radio, photography, theory of surveying, forestry, soil conservation work, public grounds development, etc.

3. Camp shops—where were taught such things as welding, woodworking, motor repair, etc.

4. Nearby schools—these offered various vocational training opportunities for C.C.C. enrollees.

5. C.C.C. central repair shops—a limited number of enrollees who had shown special aptitudes were chosen for training in motor mechanics at these shops throughout the country where the major repair and overhauling


of all C.C.C. motorized equipment was done.\textsuperscript{107}

In addition to the foregoing general vocational training, there was training in specified occupations such as cooks, bakers, clerks, quarry workers, hospital attendants, et cetera.\textsuperscript{108}

In general the education program of the C.C.C. sought to eliminate illiteracy; eliminate deficiencies in school subjects; give instruction in camp work and jobs; give vocational training; give general education; give instruction of a national defense nature; and provide training in health, first aid, and safety.\textsuperscript{109}

One of the aims of the C.C.C., which worked in conjunction with the education program, was to assist the enrollees in finding employment when they left the corps. The assistance was of a direct and indirect nature. Indirectly, the assistance was secured by the average enrollee improving his education while in the corps, learning proper work methods, and learning habits of industry which would be demanded by prospective employers. The enrollees also received instruction in how to apply for work, how to write a letter of application, and how to conduct themselves at an interview.\textsuperscript{110} They received direct assistance in securing employment by the

\textsuperscript{107} "Eight Years of C.C.C. Operations," \textit{Monthly Labor Review}, 52:14:10 (June, 1941).
\textsuperscript{108} Ibid., 52:14:11
Civilian Conservation Corps officials and the State C.C.C. Selecting Agencies cooperating with public employment agencies, Chambers of Commerce, and employment managers of business firms in the placement of the enrollees in permanent jobs. 111

An enrollee was permitted to accept employment if a permanent job was offered to him before his enrollment period had expired. Due to improved business conditions in 1941 and the demand for laborers in industry many thousands of enrollees left the camps to accept jobs. Thousands of others stepped into jobs on expiration of their terms in the corps. 112 The total number of enrollees discharged to accept employment during the fiscal year 1941 totaled 57,581 as compared with 38,225 during the fiscal year of 1941. 113

Employers look for experienced men; and because of training and work the C.C.C. enrollees were enabled to offer services in which they had had experience. This, in part, accounted for the fact that by 1941 there were hundreds of thousands of C.C.C. trained men who held excellent jobs in industry and agriculture. The young men with successful experience were especially in demand by aircraft factories and other national defense industries. 114

111 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 6.
113 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 6.
114 Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
While in camp the C.C.C. enrollee was furnished with supplies, shelter, and transportation. The miscellaneous supplies consisted of a wide variety of articles such as soap, matches, hardware and hand tools, chinaware, mess equipment, office supplies, et cetera. The supplies were ones of personal value to the enrollees and to the maintenance of camps. Each enrollee was given a complete outfit of clothing when he entered the corps. He was given suitable clothing for work and dress. The winter uniform issued to him was spruce green with a woolen olive drab shirt, black necktie, and black shoes. Khaki was worn for dress during the summer. 115

During the early periods of the C.C.C. the shelter of the enrollees was not standardized and it usually consisted of shelter tents being provided where climatic conditions permitted together with a few rigid temporary wooden frame buildings to house the mess, kitchen, and bathing facilities. These tents were later replaced by temporary fixed wooden barracks and additional buildings of the type provided for recreation and classroom educational space until the standard camp, consisting of twenty buildings, was evolved in 1939. 116 The buildings of a camp usually consisted of five barrack buildings, a mess hall, schoolhouse, recreational building, hospital, shops, headquarters, and living quarters for officers. 117

Since work projects usually extended over a one to two year period, it was found to be desirable for economic reasons to build knock-down portable wood constructions which were suited for temporary occupation. These portable, demountable wooden buildings made interchange of camps or sections of a unit possible as well as shipment to other sites of one or more units if expansion or rapid replacement was desired. During the year 1938 the transferring of portable camps became widespread. In view of the demonstrated advantages of the standard portable, demountable type building practically all new C.C.C. construction was of the portable type.

Enrollees were furnished inter-corps transportation during their enrollment in the C.C.C. From May, 1933 to June 30, 1941, there was a complete inter-corps camp and there were also inter-corps area movements of the C.C.C. required by the enrollees. Enrollees were furnished daily medical attention as well as teaching personal hygiene and first aid. Every enrollee was provided with dental service was offered in camps by a qualified dentist who traveled from camp to camp with portable baggage and kitchen supplies en route. This transportation was carried on under special agreements between the Civilian Conservation Corps and the railroads. The agreements provided particularly toward meat and dairy products.

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118 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1939, 16.
119 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 23.
120 Ibid., 22.
121 Ibid., 20.
available to the general public. These low rates were given because the transportation of the C.C.C. was in connection with plans of the United States Government for unemployment relief.¹²¹

The obligations incurred for transportation during the period from April, 1933 to June 30, 1941 was as follows:

Freight traffic ............... $36,302,420.59

Passenger traffic ............ 99,315,476.53

Total 135,617,897.12

Some transportation was furnished by motor vehicles which had been bought by the C.C.C.¹²²

Every enrollee in the C.C.C. was provided with medical care. There was a competent doctor for every camp and there was also an infirmary provided for the care of the enrollees who became ill. The camp doctor furnished daily medical attention as well as teaching personal hygiene and first aid, both of which were necessary to the safety and health of the enrollees.¹²³ Dental service was offered in camps by a qualified dentist who traveled from camp to camp with portable field equipment.¹²⁴ The food that was provided at camps was inspected by the Army Veterinary Corps. The inspection was particularly toward meat and dairy products.¹²⁵

¹²¹ Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 28.
¹²² Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 22
¹²³ Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
¹²⁴ Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), 4.
Many of the enrollees who entered the camps were underweight. Statistical data compiled and tabulated in the office of The Surgeon General of the Army in 1940, showed that a total of 75 percent of C.C.C. enrollees had been below standard weight at the time of acceptance into camp. The data further revealed that at the time of discharge of the enrollees, the percentage of youths who had been substandard in weight was cut from 75 percent to 40 percent. An additional part of the medical and health program was the giving of Tuberculin tests to enrollees and it was found that the incidence rate of tuberculosis in the C.C.C. was one per thousand. When inducted all enrollees were also promptly immunized against typhoid fever and were given smallpox vaccinations.  

Every camp had religious services. Clergymen of the Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish faiths conducted services and offered other religious work that was considered necessary. Attendance at religious services was voluntary and enrollees could attend churches of their faiths in nearby towns if they so desired. At the close of the fiscal year June 30, 1941, one hundred and fifty-four full time C.C.C. chaplains were on duty. There were one hundred and nine clergymen serving as part-time contract clergymen who were paid thirty dollars per
month and received transportation to and from camp. During the same year approximately five hundred volunteer clergymen served without pay except for the providing of transportation to and from camps and board and lodging while in camp.129

Recreation was a part of every camp program. An entire building, called the recreation hall, was set aside for the use of the enrollees during their leisure hours. In most camps these buildings were outfitted with pool tables, ping pong tables, radios, checker boards, and other recreational facilities. Every camp had a library which contained a wide variety of books, magazines, and newspapers. Movies were a part of the regular plan of entertainment in most camps.130

By 1941 more than two-thirds of the camps had motion picture film projectors.131 Almost every camp had some kind of musical group. The musical recreation rested largely upon enrollees who had some musical talent. Some C.C.C. camps had even organized orchestras and singing groups.132 The enrollees also took part in camp newspaper work, hobbies, and arts and crafts. Practically all camps published newspapers which were the product of enrollee press clubs.133


130 Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
132 Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
133 Oxley, "Recreation," School Life, 26:151-152 (February, 1941).
of all the leisure activities were the sports: baseball, basketball, football, swimming, and boxing.\textsuperscript{134}

The enrollees worked five days each week on the work projects. If there was bad weather during the week they had to make up lost time by working on Saturday mornings. There was also work to be done around the campgrounds on Saturdays, but on Saturday afternoons and Sundays there was always time for leisure and recreation.\textsuperscript{135}

A typical daily schedule in a C.C.C. camp was as follows:

- Reveille: 6:00 a.m.
- Physical Training: 6:30 a.m.
- Breakfast: 6:45 a.m.
- Barracks inspection: 7:20 a.m.
- Work call: 8:00 a.m.
- Lunch: 12:00 noon
- Work day over: 4:00 p.m.
- Recreation: 4:00 to 5:00 p.m.
- Marching: 5:00 to 5:15 p.m.
- Retreat: 5:15 p.m.
- Evening Meal: 5:20 p.m.
- Training projects and classes: 6:00 to 9:00 p.m.
- Lights out: 10:00 p.m.
- Taps: 10:15 p.m.

This program was carried out by the two hundred men who lived in a camp.\textsuperscript{136}

On Saturday afternoons and Sundays the C.C.C. boys could use their leisure time, with the permission of the commanding officer, to go home or to visit in nearby communities. The enrollees whose camps were located within one hundred miles of their homes usually were able to go home at least once during

\textsuperscript{134} Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
\textsuperscript{135} Ibid., not paged.
\textsuperscript{136} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 9.
a six month period of enrollment. They paid for their own
blacks, and the departments of agriculture and the interior
travel and had to return to camp at the time agreed upon when
were responsible for the work projects of the civilian
they left. Enrollees located a considerable distance from their
Conservation Corps. The head of the C.C.C. was the Director
homes were not able to go home until the end of the enrollment
who coordinated the activities of all cooperating government
period.137
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organize in the corps, Above him was the President of the United
States. The Civilian Conservation Corps was an agency was a
and by being deprived of privileges otherwise granted. Being
A.W.O.L. was considered a serious matter and if continued an
enrollee was dismissed from the Civilian Conservation Corps
without honor.138

137 Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not paged.
138 Ibid., not paged.
139 Ibid., not paged.

An enrollee signed a C.C.C. oath of enrollment whereby
he promised to stay in camp for six months. Under unusual
circumstances, such as being offered a good job, or someone
of his family becoming seriously ill, he might receive an
honorable discharge before his enrollment was up.139

The C.C.C. enrollee lived in a camp that was a self
contained unit or a community. He was given shelter, supplies,
recreation, education, medical care, religious services,
employment, and a salary. Each camp was administered by a
company commander who in turn, with his camp, made up a part
of the district administration which was a part of the larger
field administration of the nine corps areas of the nation.
The War Department had charge of the administration of the C.C.C.

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camps, and the Departments of Agriculture and the Interior were responsible for the work projects of the Civilian Conservation Corps. The head of the C.C.C. was the Director who coordinated the activities of all cooperating government organs in the corps. Above him was the President of the United States. The Civilian Conservation Corps as an agency was a part of the Federal Security Agency.

Popular thought associated the work of the C.C.C. with the planting of trees, however, that was but a small part of the vast work program. The program of forestry itself was much greater than that of planting trees. At the end of the first two years of the C.C.C., the enrollees were putting in a hundred major types of work and by 1936 in one hundred and fifty major types.1

Since its beginning on April 5, 1933, the Civilian Conservation Corps was a real boon to the conservation of natural resources. It furnished men and money to the bureaus and agencies of the Departments of Agriculture and the Interior carrying on conservation work. These bureaus and agencies drew up plans and specifications for work projects, supervised

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1 C. L. Read, "Auditing the C.C.C. Ledger," Review of Reviews, 39:58 (January, 1936); Woodmanship for the Civilian Conservation Corps (Forestry Division, Washington, 1933), 12; U.S.O. Record Book I and II, "Man-Days in the Control of Forest Fire" (Washington, 1935), not paginated; Eucalyptus and Results of the C.C.C. Program (Washington, 1938), 12; A Miss-Crafted Nation.
CHAPTER III

THE WORK OF THE C.C.C. ENROLLEES

Popular thought associated the work of the C.C.C. with the control and the improvement of areas for recreational use, planting of trees, however, that was but a small part of the vast work program. The program of forestry itself was much greater than that of planting trees. At the end of the first two years of the C.C.C. the enrollees were partaking in a hundred and seventy-seven state, thirty-nine privately-owned forest lands; also, one hundred and directed field work on eighteen P.W.A. camps, in addition to fifty major types. ¹

Since its beginning on April 5, 1933, the Civilian Conservation Corps was a real boon to the conservation of our forests and wildlife. It furnished men and money to the bureaus and agencies of the Departments of Agriculture and the Interior carrying on conservation work. These bureaus and agencies drew up plans and specifications for work projects, supervised of protecting the forests against fire. Each year forest fires spent over some 20,000,000 acres of the nation's timberland.

¹ C. L. Pack, "Auditing the C.C.C. Ledger," Review of Reviews, 89:58 (January, 1936); Woodmanship for the Civilian Conservation Corps (Forestry Divisions, Washington, 1931), 13; C.C.C. Workers Spent 1,824,907 Man-Days in the Control of Forest Fires (Washington, 1936), not paged; Objectives and Results of the C.C.C. Program (Washington, 1938), 12. A mimeographed bulletin.
on the ground the carrying out of the plans, and inspected the works to see if it was up to standard. Some bureaus and agencies did not have C.C.C. camps assigned to them, but they served as technical advisers to those actually directing the field work.² The great bulk of the Corps activities was directed toward the protection of "vast forest areas of the country from fire and tree-attacking diseases and insects; soil erosion control and the improvement of areas for recreational use."³ The C.C.C. did do considerable amount of work in forestry. During the fiscal year of 1940 the Forest Service Bureau had general supervision over one hundred and seventy-seven State forestry camps, ninety-nine privately-owned forest land; also, directed field work on eighteen T.V.A. camps, in addition to the supervision and direction of the work of three hundred and twenty-three camps on National Forests. The work of these camps in turn was under the general supervision of the Department of Agriculture.⁴

² Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1938 - June 30, 1939, 68.
³ The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
⁴ Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 51.
which was an area almost as large as the state of Washington. These forest fires were usually started by man. In fact, approximately 75 percent of the fires were due to man's carelessness in smoking, in handling campfires, or in other ways connected with his use of forests. All of these were preventable. Lightning was responsible for only 7 percent of all forest fires, although this did include some of the largest recorded. The C.C.C.'s activity was to try to prevent fires from starting and to put the fires out just as soon as they were discovered.

The preventive or protection work of the C.C.C. enrollee was of a varied nature. The very presence of the C.C.C. camps in forests vicinities reduced the number of incendiary fires in certain parts of the country. In addition, patrol crews often prevented big blazes starting from campfires built by picnickers and other forest users. The enrollees also did much to educate the public toward the prevention of forest fires. Then, too, the C.C.C. completed physical improvements and precautionary work. The construction by the enrollees of roads and trails, telephone lines, and lookout towers extended the range of efficient forest fire detection, communication, and transportation. Since time was a factor in fire fighting,
this work was of value in speeding communication between units of fire-fighting organizations and in enabling faster transportation of men, supplies, and equipment. During its first eight years of work the C.C.C. constructed over 118,490 miles of new truck trails and roadways for the quick movement of fire fighting units and more than 509,130 miles of old trails, and roadways were improved. It strung more than 84,730 miles of new telephone lines to connect fire lookout stations with points of mobilization of fire fighting units and 243,460 miles were improved. The enrollees also constructed 3,108 new lookout towers and continued the maintenance of 1,767 as well as constructing 1,147 new lookout houses for fire detection and maintaining 859 old lookout houses.

Another protective accomplishment of the C.C.C. enrollees was "fire hazard reduction" or the actual removal and clearance of dead trees, slash, and other highly inflammable material, which will burn like tinder during the dry season. During eight years of work the Corps removed dead trees and underbrush from 2,075,970 acres of land. The roadside and trailside cleanup for fire prevention amounted to 78,140 miles.

10 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not pagged.
12 Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 7.
13 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not pagged.
The construction of firebreaks, which were cleared strips through woodlands designed to halt the spread of fire or which could be used in back-firing,\textsuperscript{14} amounted to 66,215 miles during the first eight years of the Corps fire prevention activity.\textsuperscript{15} An example of firebreak construction was the work done by the California camps in constructing the Ponderosa Way — a firebreak some 600 miles long, which separated the lower brush-covered foothills where fires often start from the valuable timber higher up on the slopes of the North - South chain of forested mountains.\textsuperscript{16}

Two other rather unique contributions of the C.C.C. to a fire control system were accomplished. One was the construction of water storage basins and ponds convenient to roadsides in strategically selected spots throughout the New England Forest areas. Thereby a ready supply of water was available for fire-fighting tanks and pumps. The second was the development of motorized well-digging units manned by C.C.C. enrollees in Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin forest areas for the quick provision of water near potential fire zones.\textsuperscript{17}

Aside from the protective facilities of the C.C.C. one of its most valuable contributions to forest preservation was the actual fire fighting by the enrollees.\textsuperscript{18} During the first

\textsuperscript{14} Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 7, vol., 1938.
\textsuperscript{15} The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
\textsuperscript{16} Ibid., not paged.
\textsuperscript{17} Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 5.
\textsuperscript{18} Kieley, C.C.C., 17.
eight years members of the Corps devoted 6,273,220 man-days to the actual fighting of forest fires. The enrollees fought forest fires in many ways. The basic rule of successful fire fighting, however, was summed up in General Bedford Forrest's rule of warfare: "Git thar firstest with the mostest men." If men and equipment could catch a fire when it was small, a big fire could be prevented. The C.C.C. enrollees used the techniques and methods of fire fighting that were developed over a long period of years by Federal, state and private foresters and protective units. In actual fire fighting they were under direct orders of regular forest and park men.

In serving as forest-fire patrol crews, for example, in the Lake States' forests, the enrollees covered forest routes by truck, on foot, by canoe, and as members of airplane crews. Throughout the nation C.C.C. men were used to a certain extent as lookouts during fire seasons. In areas of great recreational use some enrollees were used as special guards and patrolmen, or as checkers at forest entrances.

On big fires, such as those which were experienced in 1936 in upper Minnesota, Michigan, and Wisconsin, large concentrations of Corps members were rushed to the fires by truck caravans and trains. Fourteen hundred C.C.C. enrollees guarded young seedlings from grasshoppers by

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19 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
20 Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 5.
21 Ibid., 5.
were rushed within a few hours to the fire line during the big Angeles fire in California in 1934, and more than 1,000 to the Olympic fire in Washington in 1938.22

In the fire fighting the enrollee supplied labor with grubhoe, ax, and saw, in order to stop the spread of fire on the ground by removing possible fuel from its path. They operated pumps, bulldozers, tractors, and other heavy equipment and in building fire lanes. Some of the enrollees also operated short-wave radio sets, which was a part of modern forest fire fighting technique.23

As another protective measure the enrollee carried on extensive campaigns against tree diseases and insects, such as the white pine blister rust and gypsy moth. The enrollees aided in the control of the white pine blister rust by grubbing or pulling out by hand currants and other plants that serve as an "alternate host" whereby the blister rust spreads from tree to tree.24 In controlling the gypsy moth, crews of enrollees scouted through the forest to locate egg clusters and destroy them. In some areas, tree stands were thinned of undergrowth and of the particular tree species the gypsy moths preferred as food.25 There were other insect and fungous enemies in the forests that the enrollees combatted. For example, the enrollees guarded young seedlings from grasshoppers by

22 Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 5.
23 Ibid., 6; The C.C.C. At Work: A Story of 2,500,000 Young Men (Washington, 1941), 44.
24 Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 11-12.
25 Ibid., 11; The C.C.C. At Work (Washington, 1941), 44.
spreading poison bait. Trees infected by fungus were destroyed by the enrollees. Roads, trails, telephone lines, and similar work A second phase of the forestry work of the enrollees, the first being protection, was forest improvement. Broadly, this included timber stand improvement by removal of dead, defective, and worthless trees; thinning overcrowded stands; inventories or timber stand estimates; and surveys and forest cover maps. Actual improvement work of the enrollees consisted of cutting out dead, crooked, decadent, and "weed" trees from forest stands. This work cleared the forest space of useless material, which was often a fire menace; it also allowed more growing space for younger and better trees. A total of 3,979,280 acres of forest stand improvement was completed during the first eight years of the C.C.C. The enrollees also conducted timber estimates surveys under the guidance of experienced foresters and timber cruisers and during the first eight years of work they covered 35,000,000 acres. This work consisted of actual measurement of tree sizes and species on a percentage of any typical tract, calculated to determine the amount and kind of timber in a given area.

26 Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 11-12.  
28 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1933 - June 30, 1933, 71.  
29 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.  
30 Reforestation by the C.C.C. (Forestry Division, Washington, 1941), 11-12.
The third phase of C.C.C. forestry work was administrative improvement. The roads, trails, telephone lines, and similar work of the enrollees did not only aid in the protection of forests and fire fighting, but also provided for better forest management. The structural additions made by the C.C.C. warehouses and garages for storage of trucks, tractors, road building machinery, and fire control equipment were also of aid in forest administration. Ranger and guard stations and houses were also built by the C.C.C. Overnight cabins and shelters in various parts of the forest were built where rangers inspecting trails or grazing areas, or on other forest business could remain overnight and be able to keep in touch with supervisors' offices by telephone.\(^{31}\)

Tool houses and boxes were installed throughout forest areas and were located at points to which equipment was hard to transport. They were of value in equipping crews for road and trail repair, in telephone maintenance each spring, and in equipping fire-control crews.\(^{32}\)

Sign shops in C.C.C. camps turned out attractive durable signs which were of aid in the administration and use of forest areas by proper marking of routes of travel and directions. These signs were of use to public officials and the

\(^{31}\) *Forest Improvements by the C.C.C.* (Washington, 1939), 4.

\(^{32}\) *Ibid.*, 4-5.
general public traveling through Federal and state forests and parks.  

Probably the best known phase of forestry work done by the enrollees was the reforestation work (fourth phase).  

From 1933 through 1940 the Civilian Conservation Corps reforested more than two million acres, which required the planting of about two billion trees. In the year 1932, before the C.C.C. was created, approximately 25,000 acres had been planted to trees in national forest areas. "This was pitifully small because of lack of men and money to do more." The establishment of C.C.C. camps was mainly responsible for enabling the Forest Service to raise this total to 70,000 acres in 1933; to 74,000 in 1934; to 140,000 acres in 1935; and to a peak of 238,075 in 1936. From 1937 on, the average annual planting of about 150,000 acres was maintained, largely due to the C.C.C. The planting in 1940 brought the total acreage planted in the national forest to 1,333,000 acres of which about 1,110,000 had been planted since the establishment of the C.C.C. boosted replanting in state forests.  

Crews of C.C.C. enrollees planted seedlings in spring and in fall. The planting crews were usually made up of two-man and three-man crews. Enrollees detailed to seed collection or seed raising operated under the general direction of the Forest Service.  

34 Woodsmen for the Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), 13. Reforestation means to replace a growth of trees on an area once covered with a forest.  
35 Reforestation by the C.C.C. (Washington, 1941), 4.
units. One with a grub hoe or mattock dug the hole and pre-
pared the soil for planting and the other man placed the
seedling in the hole and packed the earth around it. Most of
the planting was done between 1932 and 1941. The
national forest planting was done by the one-man method.  

The tree seedlings for planting were secured from tree
nurseries. Due to the Corps reforestation program the total
nursery production in the United States jumped more than 100 per-
cent between 1932 and 1941. The Corps supplied great quantities
of labor needed to create the twenty-two new forest nurseries
that existed by 1941. Also by their labor, they enabled
established nurseries to increase their production. The United
States Forest Service had twenty-six nurseries in operation
in 1933, in 1938, in New England, the number had increased to sixty-
in 1941 and the States had seventy-six. Two big nurseries were
in large and small bodies of water, in 1934 the Witherspoon
built and operated by the C.C.C. for the production of seed-
forest land. A large portion of the material was white pine
and soil erosion control programs.  

Enrollees from forest camps were used in all phases of
the nursery work. The work consisted of dozens of tasks, in-
cluding the operation of various machines and specialized
planting tools. In addition to the nursery work a part of the
reforestation work done was the collection of hardwood seeds
and nuts and of pine cones. Enrollees detailed to seed
collection by operating special trailers or collecting them by
smoke. After gathering the

36 Reforestation by the C.C.C. (Washington, 1941), 7-9.
37 Ibid., 6; The C.C.C. At Work (Washington, 1941), 46.
seeds they dried them, hulled some, screened them, ran them through a fanmill, threshed and cleaned them, then packed and stored them until they were needed for sowing. In hand with seed collecting by the enrollees was the work of preparing seedbeds, laying pipe for watering seedlings, building lathing shades over seedbeds, the sowing of the seeds, the care of the seedlings, and their transplanting into locations where reforestation was necessary.\footnote{Reforestation by the C.C.C. (Washington, 1941), 7-9.}

Two concrete examples of the forestry work of the enrollees were: the New England Forest Emergency project, and the work the enrollees had been doing in the T.V.A.\footnote{T.V.A. is the abbreviation for the Tennessee Valley Authority.} The hurricane of September, 1938, in New England left wind thrown timber lying in large and small bodies on some fifteen million acres of forest land. A large portion of the material was white pine and in many places inflammable branches and needles were piled to a depth of thirty feet. This fire hazard had to be reduced. On January 1, 1939, a total of forty state and private C.C.C. camps in New England were assigned for administration by the New England Forest Emergency Project; United States Forest Service. Of these camps thirty-two were located within the hurricane area and supplied man power to reduce the fire hazard by opening roads and trails, by clearing debris, and by
reestablishing fire towers and fire communication systems, as well as by supplying labor for fire extinction.40

The C.C.C. supplied labor for the T.V.A. program over a period of years,41 a total of eighteen forestry camps being allotted to them during the fiscal year 1940. The C.C.C. camp worked under the Forest Service which in turn directed the field work under the plans and specifications prepared by the T.V.A. technicians. The three main lines of C.C.C. work were erosion control, reforestation, and forest protection.42

When erosion control or control demonstrations were needed, and when erosion was too heavy for the private landowner alone to handle, the C.C.C. provided the man-power. By the end of the fiscal year of 1940 more than 62,000,000 young trees had been planted by the C.C.C. on 40,000 eroded acres on 8,500 farms within the watershed. The enrollees also assisted with some engineering projects as well as in wildlife and fish propagation and protection of the T.V.A.43

The C.C.C. played an important part in the Federal Government's program to protect the nation's soil by carrying out work of the Soil Conservation Service under the Department of

40 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1938 - June 30, 1939, 75-76.
41 The Annual Reports by the Director of the C.C.C. cite work done by the C.C.C. enrollees on the T.V.A. for the years 1936, 1938, 1939, 1940, and 1941.
42 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 55.
43 Ibid., 55-56.
Agriculture. The first C.C.C. camps were used by the Soil Conservation Service, S.C.S., to set up some large-scale demonstrations throughout the country. The effort was to put soil conservation practices into effect where farmers could see and study them. These first C.C.C. camp demonstration areas were scattered throughout the nation and the results of the first year showed a need for more demonstration areas. The next year more C.C.C. camps were assigned to the Soil Conservation Service and more demonstration activity was carried on. In 1937, several state legislatures passed enabling acts providing for the formation of state conservation districts, and the beginning of 1938 brought the first agreement signed by the S.C.S. and a state district. At first the assistance offered by the S.C.S. to the district was of a supervisory nature. During the fiscal year 1939, however, sixty-four agreements involving C.C.C. labor were signed between state districts and the S.C.S. acting for the Department of Agriculture. These agreements increased in succeeding years.

During the fiscal year 1940, three hundred and ninety-two C.C.C. camps were assigned to the Soil Conservation Service.  

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44 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 56. The Soil Conservation Service was established by the authority of Congress April 27, 1935. The service was designated to operate under the Department of Agriculture.

45 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1938 - June 30, 1939, 77-80.

46 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 56.
Of these camps a large number cooperated with the aforementioned state conservation districts. The state districts were formed voluntarily by farmers, under the state acts, in which erosion was recognized as a community problem. Such districts by entering into understandings with the Department of Agriculture had C.C.C. assistance extended to them through the Soil Conservation Service. The C.C.C. work consisted of enrollees assisting the farmers in soil erosion control measures.47

The demonstration program of the C.C.C. on camp work in areas showed thousands of farmers that uncontrolled erosion was costly both in everyday farming and in steadily decreasing crop yields, and that erosion could be checked effectively. In addition a few of the C.C.C. camps were used almost entirely for special operations, such as the construction of large dams and the protection of planting stock not otherwise available. The major portion of C.C.C. work in erosion control camps involved the installation of soil and water conserving on farm and range lands. This work included such activities as gully control operations, terrace outlet construction and protection, the planting of trees and shrubs, the running of

47 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1942, 56.
for streambank protection.48

At the beginning of the fiscal year 1940, operation of thirty-eight C.C.C. camps engaged in drainage work was transferred from the Bureau of Agricultural Engineering to the Soil Conservation Service.49 These camps, working with drainage organizations existing under state laws, rehabilitated established ditches and drains in order to produce channels of adequate capacity. The camps also built water control structures to prevent erosion and repaired levees and tile drains. The practical results of the work were illustrated in areas where the run-off from heavy rains had been carried without overflow by the ditches rehabilitated by camps, while in adjacent areas where camps had not yet worked, overflows from the same rains resulted in heavy crop losses. In addition, public health was benefited by the improved drainage, especially in areas where malaria was prevalent.50

The C.C.C. camps under the Soil Conservation Service took an active part in the roadside erosion control program of the service. Such work was being given attention by counties,

48 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 56-57. A very good explanation of the erosion control work done by the enrollees, that is methods and types of erosion work, is given in Hands to Save the Soil (Soil Conservation Service, Washington, 1939), not pagod.

49 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1938 - June 30, 1939, 81; Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 57.

50 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1938 - June 30, 1939, 81.
states, and many agencies of the Federal Government. The work of the enrollees in camps assigned to the Soil Conservation Service was of many types. It was demonstrational erosion control work, the completing of actual soil erosion practices, such as gully control, terracing, constructing outlet channels and fences, contour planting, and controlling wind erosion by planting vegetative cover. In their work the enrollees secured engineering and map drafting experience.

The water conservation work of the C.C.C. could be considered a part of the forestry and erosion control work which the enrollees completed in that the work was interrelated. By conserving the forests and protecting them from fires water was conserved. Likewise, the reforestation and planting of vegetative cover held water in the soil and prevented abnormal run-off. The major stream engineering project work of the enrollees was in conjunction with building dams, clearing woods from land to be flooded, and establishing erosion control measures on watersheds. C.C.C. enrollees built levees, diversion channels, and other waterworks.

During the fiscal year of 1940 three C.C.C. camps carried 51 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 57.
52 Ibid., 57.
53 Hands to Save the Soil (Washington, 1936), not paged.
on a wide variety of work under eight bureaus of the Department of Agriculture operating at the Beltsville Research Center. Here the work of the enrollees was varied due to the research nature of the bureaus under which they operated. The enrollees did construction work in building bridges, pipe and power lines, putting up buildings, and laying roads; they did mechanical work by repairing varied equipment. 

Other camps under the various bureaus and agencies of the Department of Agriculture did work of a technical and specialized nature. For instance, one camp under the service of Entomology and Plant Quarantine, in 1940, removed wild cotton in Florida.

The Department of Agriculture had from the beginning in 1933, the larger percentage of C.C.C. camps. The Department had general supervision over national forests, wildlife and big game refuges (until July 1, 1939), soil erosion control projects, the project work of the T.V.A., and, under the Clarke-McNary Forest Cooperation Act, protection and certain other functions on state and private forest lands. On July 1, 1933, the Department of Agriculture had 1,264 camps out of a total of 1,468. The peak came in September, 1935, when it had 1,907 camps out of a total of 2,635. By July 1, 1941, it had 793 camps out of 1,234 as total.

55 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 58.
56 Ibid., 59.
57 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 34.
From July 1, 1940, through June 30, 1941, six agencies in the Department of the Interior, charged with the conservation and development of the country's natural resources, supervised the operation of an average of 492 C.C.C. camps, 71 C.C.C. Indian camps, and 10 groups of enrollees in Hawaii, Alaska, and the Virgin Islands. 58

Under the Department of the Interior projects carried on included: the development of recreational facilities in national, state and local parks, broad conservation of the public domain, cooperation in the development of irrigation and hydro-electric power programs, protection and improvement of Federal grazing lands and Indian reservations, protection and propagation of wildlife, and rehabilitation of the human and natural resources of the islands and territorial possessions. 59

The recreation work of the C.C.C. was carried on by the National Park Service of the Department of the Interior. The work of the enrollees under the Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture also aided the expansion of the nation's recreational program. 60

In the fiscal year 1941 the National Park Service operated in United States an average of three

59 Ibid., 28.
60 The Civilian Conservation Corps and Public Recreation (Washington, 1941), 3; Recreational Developments by the C.C.C. in National and State Forests (Forestry Service Division, Washington, 1939), 7.
hundred and four C.C.C. camps, comprising 50,000 enrollees, on one hundred and ninety camps in state, county, and metropolitan parks and monuments, two on military areas and twenty-two on recreational areas. In the islands and territories, the National Park Service supervised the activities of nine C.C.C. units. 61

A part of the C.C.C. recreational work was historical restoration. An example was the work at Bandelier National Monument in New Mexico for the preservation of the famous ruins of a prehistoric culture. The enrollees also completed jobs in public campground development. At Jenny Lake in Grand Teton National Park, C.C.C. forces made fifty new camp locations available, including parking spaces, fireplaces, and tent sites. A water system and sewer line extension were also completed for this area, as well as table and bench combinations and campground signs. 62 Work of a very similar nature was carried on in the nation’s forests by the enrollees there, they developed picnic camping grounds; built outdoor stoves, roads, bridges, and guard rails; and constructed water supply systems. 63

The state, county, and local park recreational activities

63 Forest Improvement (Washington, 1939), 7.
were developed in very much the same manner as that of the National parks. Picnic and camping facilities were provided as well as swimming and hiking facilities.  

Between 1939 and 1940 a 100 percent increase had taken place in state park acreage. This resulted almost entirely from the encouragement to expansion taken by the states from the availability of C.C.C. man power and funds for development purposes. Several states had no state parks in 1933 and by 1940 these areas were cooperating in the nation-wide program for coordinated recreational planning. Other states added to their existing areas and brought new parks into their systems.

During the fiscal year 1941 the General Land Office of the Department of the Interior operated five camps in Oregon, one in Wyoming, and a fire control project in Alaska. The five camps in Oregon did conservation work on the 2,500,000 acres of revested Oregon-California railroad grant lands. The enrollees were engaged in work planned to protect the commercial timber on this area and further to facilitate its sustained yield management. The Wyoming camp handled the control of out-crop fires and it saved from destruction an inestimable amount

64. Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 44-46.
of the nation's coal resources in the vicinity of Little Thunder Basin, Wyoming. During the fiscal year of 1940, thirteen separate coal bed fires were worked upon. The enrollees fought coal fires that were not too large by digging them out and covering the face of the coal seams with a layer of pulverized earth. Other fires they isolated from the main body of coal by trenching around the affected areas and afterwards filling the trenches with earth, thus blocking the progress of fires. The General Land Office was charged with the administration of approximately 325,000,000 acres of public domain in Alaska and here projects were ones most suitable to the natives. Forty-four C.C.C. camps operating under the Bureau of Reclamation in 1940 continued to operate without change until May 1941 when the needs of national defense caused the termination of the camp engaged on recreational development at Elephant Butte Reservoir in New Mexico. This camp was transferred to the Army for civilian work on a military reservation. The work of the C.C.C. camps assigned to the Bureau of Reclamation was in connection with the rehabilitation through construction of dams and reservoirs, the draining of

67 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 40.
68 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 32.
69 Ibid., 30-31.
of Federal Reclamation Projects, the development of supplemental water supplies, the construction of new reclamation projects, and the development of recreational facilities at irrigation reservoirs.\textsuperscript{70}

The construction program of the Bureau of Reclamation was to conserve water to irrigate millions of acres of western land. This necessitated numerous artificial waterway systems leading from large Federal storage dams which required hundreds of permanent concrete structures to control and measure the irrigation water. The C.C.C. enrollees annually built hundreds of these structures. The enrollees also assisted in flood protection by supplying labor for flood control projects. They helped build earth embankments, cleared reservoir areas, and constructed channels and dams.\textsuperscript{71}

The eighty-four C.C.C. camps assigned to the Grazing Service in 1941 continued to conserve and strengthen the natural resources of the Federal range.\textsuperscript{72} The enrollees reclaimed thousands of acres of formerly unused public range land and improved them for grazing. This range reclamation work included: the development and conservation of water through construction of tanks and reservoirs, the digging of wells, dam construction, revegetation, the control of erosion, and the construction of truck trails and driveways.\textsuperscript{73} In

\textsuperscript{70} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 41.
\textsuperscript{71} Ibid., 41-43.
\textsuperscript{72} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 29.
\textsuperscript{73} Kelley, C.U.C., 29.
the actual use of the land as range for cattle the enrollees
built fences, eradicated poisonous plants to protect livestock,
and exterminated rodent species that feed on or otherwise
deplete the forage cover. The Division of Grazing with the
aid of the C.C.C. made possible the study improvement and
rehabilitation of the range.  

In the Fish and Wildlife Service thirty-six C.C.C. camps
in 1941 continued development of the work of previous years to
improve wildlife habitat and to provide the necessary facilities
for administration of wildlife refuges. Since the establishment
of the Corps, 2,233 camp months of C.C.C. labor were used ex-
clusively for development needed on forty-four of the more
important wildlife refuges.  

In general, the work of the
enrollees was to aid and protect the wildlife.  

The camps
built fish-rearing ponds and wildlife shelters, seeded and
planted food and cover, developed wells, springs, lakes, ponds
and streams, fed wildlife, and carried on other miscellaneous
wildlife activities.  

The enrollees constructed and maintained water control
structures. Some were specifically designed to aid wildlife;
many were an incidental aid. The work included: clearing
ponds and channels, building check dams and dikes to stabilize
administration.  

74 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1,
75 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conserv-
ation Corps: June 30, 1941, 30.  
76 The C.C.C. and Wildlife (Bureau of Biological Survey,
water levels and to store water. In conjunction with their water control work where food plants for birds were lacking, the enrollees planted them. They also collected and treated sick birds and later released them on Federal refuges. They carried on erosion work to prevent silting up of waterfowl ponds.\textsuperscript{77}

An example of the enrollees' work to make refuges more attractive to wildlife and to improve facilities for administration\textsuperscript{78} was as follows: In October, 1935, when a C.C.C. camp was established on the Savannah River Refuge in South Carolina, the wildlife values were negligible. The refuge consisted of a tract of marsh land over which water flowed with each tide. The marsh was choked with undesirable plants. At the end of the fiscal year of 1940 the C.C.C. had created 3,385 acres of duck ponds with permanent dykes and control structures which would insure stable water levels, thus providing growth of food and cover plants. Fences and boundary markers had been erected and road and trails had been built to facilitate refuge patrol. Residences for refuge personnel, office, and several utility structures, including a lookout tower, a boathouse, a marine shop, a marine railway, and a garage, had been constructed to enable effective and economical administration.\textsuperscript{79}

\textsuperscript{77} The C.C.C. and Wildlife (Washington, 1939), 7-9.

\textsuperscript{78} Ibid., 8.

\textsuperscript{79} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 50.
The work of the C.C.C. enrollees was not just that of conservation project labor but also camp work. That is, some of the enrollees served as cooks, bakers, leaders, mess stewards, clerks, hospital orderlies, et cetera. The work or jobs of the enrollees could be divided into two groups. The first group of jobs was almost exactly the same in every camp. These jobs were:

- Ambulance driver (part-time)
- Assistant leader for education
- Attendant of recreation hall and library
- Baker
- Blacksmith, helper
- Canteen steward
- Clerk (Army)
- Clerk (supply)
- Clerk (technical service)
- Clerk (tool)
- Cook, 1st and 2nd
- Dispensary attendant (hospital orderly)
- Kitchen police
- Leader, senior
- Mechanic, helper
- Mess steward
- Night guard
- Orderly
- Truck driver
- Utility and maintenance man

The second group of jobs varied from camp to camp, depending upon the type of work project in which the camp was engaged. The following list illustrates a few of these jobs:

- Bridge construction
- Bulldozer operation
- Cabin construction
- Carpenter
- Concrete construction
- Diesel-engine operation
- Drafting
- Drag-line operation
- Jackhammer operation
- Landscaping
- Logging
- Road and trail construction
- Road-grader operation
- Sawmill operation
- Sign painting and sign making
- Small dam construction
- Stone masonry
- Surveying
- Telephone-line construction
- Tool sharpening
- Tractor operation
- Tree-nursery work
- Truck driving
- Welding
- Wildlife management

Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not pagged. 80
In order to protect the C.C.C. enrollee while at work a "safety first" campaign was started in the Civilian Conservation Corps. Each C.C.C. camp had a safety committee and safety personnel in charge of that program of the camp. The program consisted of elimination of physical hazards and the minimizing of personal hazards. Through the work of the safety personnel and because safety principles were taught, the number of accidents in the Corps was reduced. The accident rate per 1,000 enrolled strength was reduced from 16.81 in 1934 to 4.80 in 1940. The frequency rate of lost time accidents per million man hours of exposure in the work projects of all agencies was reduced from 46.25 in 1936 to 17.37 in 1940. Likewise, similar decreases were accomplished in the accidental death rates.

The results of the work of the C.C.C. could be summarized in six statements: 1. It taught the enrollee conservation practices. 2. It provided employment. 3. It improved the health of enrollees. 4. It gave training on the job. 5. It served society. 6. It aided in conserving the Nation's

82 Civilian Conservation Corps Safety Regulations (Washington, 1938), 1-4.
83 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 7-8.
natural resources.  

In eight years 2½ million men served in the Civilian Conservation Corps. Of these 2,400,000 were young men and 145,000 were war veterans. By serving in the Corps these young men were able to give relief to their families in the form of their monthly allotments and at the same time they benefited the industries of the country. American industries were given a market by the demand of the C.C.C. for materials. The Corps program stimulated business by its purchase of millions of dollars."  

Director James J. McNamee, Civilian Conservation Corps, in 1931 said: "It is my estimate that the total future value of C.C.C. work completed will increase beyond the protection and development of the nation's resources to an extent that was difficult to evaluate. In no other period of eight years of the country's history was so much conservation work performed by a single agency. It was estimated that the Corps activities during eight years set forward the conservation movement in America by twenty-five years." Nelson C. Brown, Professor at New York State College of Forestry, said in 1933, "White pine blight, duty. He based his estimate on a study that was made of a number of the projects then of great importance.


87 The Civilian Conservation Corps (Washington, 1941), not paged.
that the C.C.C. had given the conservation program the


greatest forward impetus since the days of Theodore R oosevelt. He believed the Corps put the country's forestry program forward from twenty to fifty years or more. Some foresters believed that the C.C.C. advanced forestry twenty years. 89

Attempted estimates of the monetary value of the work of

the C.C.C. varied. It was stated that "the work of the C.C.C. has increased the national wealth of the Nation by hundreds of millions of dollars." 90 Director James J. McEntee, Civilian Conservation Corps, in 1941 said, "It is my estimate that the total future value of C.C.C. work completed will greatly exceed $1,500,000,000." By future value he meant the future return to be expected on the C.C.C. investment in conservation work. He admitted however, that it was impossible to furnish an exact and complete figure on the future values of the big total of Corps accomplishments, such as protective activities in connection with forest fires and attacks of the gypsy moth, or white pine blister rust. He based his estimate on a study that was made of a number of the major items of work completed. For instance, competent authorities in the lumber and manufacturing industries were asked to compute to the best of their

90 Civilian Conservation Corps; Contributing to The Defense of the Nation (Washington, 1941). Not paged; G.H. Gilbertson, Rehearsal for Defense (Washington, 1941), 4.
ability the future value on maturity of the more than 2,000,000 acres of forest lands planted to commercial-type trees. The C.C.C. office was informed that assuming an average mortality rate for trees and assuming that the C.C.C. timber stands reached maturity and that lumber values had not deteriorated, the C.C.C. trees should have a value in some forty years of $240,000,000. It was a study of this type upon which McEntee based his conclusion that the future value of C.C.C. accomplishment during the eight years of its operation would greatly exceed $1,500,000,000.\footnote{James J. McEntee, \textit{Future Value of Civilian Conservation Accomplishments Over Past Eight Years Exceed $1,500,000,000} (Washington: 1941), 3. A statement of James J. McEntee Director, Civilian Conservation Corps, contained in a letter to the Honorable Malcolm C. Farver, Chairman, Subcommittee on Labor-Federal Security Appropriations Committee, House of Representatives, May 28, 1941, outlining the character and value of the work performed by the Corps. \textit{Congressional Record} Vol. 87 Pt. 12 (C-3658)

The figure $1,500,000,000 was reached by estimating the future value of more than 2,500,000,000 trees planted, 118,500 miles of truck trails and minor roads constructed through forests, 85,000 miles of telephone lines laid, more than 4,000 fire towers constructed, close to 100,000 bridges and buildings built, forest areas developed into forest and park recreational acrea, 3,900,000 acres of forests improved to effect faster and sounder growth, range lands revegetated, reclamation and wildlife work done, drainage ditches rehabilitated, and many other kinds of work completed. No attempt was made to place an exact estimate on the future savings effected through trees saved by enrollee-fire fighters who expended more than 6,000,000,000 man-days fighting forest fires.
The following table highlights the important work done by the Corps from April 5, 1933 to July 1, 1941:\(^92\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number/Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle bridges</td>
<td>38,087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rods of fence</td>
<td>26,368,296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New telephone lines</td>
<td>85,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New water sources</td>
<td>23,725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miles of truck trails and minor roads</td>
<td>122,169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erosion check dams</td>
<td>5,875,778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest trees planted</td>
<td>2,246,100,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest stand improvement</td>
<td>3,998,328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fighting forest fires</td>
<td>6,304,221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire suppression &amp; prevention</td>
<td>6,182,269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tree &amp; Plant disease pest control</td>
<td>20,934,581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rodent and predatory animal control</td>
<td>39,039,111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This work of the C.C.C. was completed under the Forest Service, Soil Conservation, and other bureaus and agencies operating under the Department of Agriculture. The work under the C.C.C. was at the same time being evaluated and legislating was being formulated to create a new reforestation and rehabilitation organization in the Department of Agriculture. The work under the C.C.C. consisted of forest protection, fire fighting, forest improvement, administrative improvement, and reforestation as well as recreational work. The work under the C.C.C. was of a more or less technical nature.

The work completed by the National Park Service, General Land Office, Bureau of Reclamation, Grazing Service, and Fish and Wildlife Service was under the supervision of the Department of Interior.

CHAPTER IV

CRITICISMS OF THE C.C.C.

The Civilian Conservation Corps had its share of criticism both adverse and favorable in nature. Before it was actually established and while legislation was being formulated to create it, the C.C.C., it was met by attacks and opposition.

On March 21, 1933, President Roosevelt sent Congress a message urging the enactment of legislation for unemployment relief. This proposal encountered immediate and vehement opposition from the American Federation of Labor, A.F. of L., and from those members of the House and Senate who were against anything that appeared to stand in the way of a program of rigid economy in government expenditures. The message of the President, however, received legislative action when Senator Robinson of Arkansas introduced for himself and for Senator Wagner of New York a bill for relief of unemployment through performance of useful public work. Action was taken on the House by the introduction of a bill for a legislative resolution to agree to the message of the President and the bills. It was understood that the bills would be referred to the Senate Committee on Labor and the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives and to the Committee on Labor and the Committee on Appropriations of the House of Representatives.

1 Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 1 session (1933), 650.
in the House by the introduction of a bill by Representative Byrnes of Tennessee. As a result of the opposition to the message of the President and the bills, it was decided that the House and Senate Committees on Labor would hold joint hearings on the bills that had been introduced. On March 23, 1933, the Senate Committee on Education and Labor and the Committee on Labor of the House of Representatives began to hold a joint session to consider the aforementioned bill for the relief of unemployment through the performance of useful public works and for other purposes. Miss Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, in her statements before the committees favored the passage of the bill. She thought the measure should be regarded as a relief measure and recognized through the enactment of this proposed legislation as relief being afforded to a great number of unemployed citizens of the country. She felt the work offered by the public works in reforestation, in flood control, and in flood control, and in flood control, would be a great stimulus to the economy and would provide work for the unemployed. Miss Perkins believed that the measure would aid the young and unmarried men, who had been left out of calculation by most relief agencies. She said that in the

4 "Forestry Employment," Congressional Digest, 12:125 (April, 1933).
5 Miscellaneous Senate and House Hearings, 1933-34, 73 Congress, 1 session, "Unemployment Relief," Joint hearings before the committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate and the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, on S. 598, a bill for the relief of unemployment through the performance of useful public work and for other purposes.
6 Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 1 session (1933), 956.
country's great cities there was an accumulation of people who had been living on their wits and who had been forced to most unfortunate practices. It was from this group that Miss Perkins thought a large number of men would be recruited under the proposed legislation; for those reasons she favored the legislation. Mr. Douglas, Director of the Budget, by his statements on March 24, also favored the passage of the proposed legislation.  

Mr. William Green, President of the A.F. of L., testifying before the committee, delivered a forceful and convincing argument against the bill. He said:

"Labor looks upon the measure with feelings of very grave apprehension. We are deeply concerned over the precedents that will be set through the enactment of this proposed legislation and we are concerned with the effect that it will have upon labor standards and wage schedules." 

The first feature he viewed with apprehension was the process of regimenting labor during peace periods. Green could not understand why it was necessary, in making an onslaught on the unemployment situation in the nation, to regiment labor and to enlist it in an army even though it was called an army of conservation. He was in accord with using the unemployed on public works, in reforestation, and in flood control; but he did not believe that it was necessary to regiment labor. 

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7 Miscellaneous Senate and House Hearings, 1933-34, 73 Congress, 1 session, "Unemployment Relief," (Washington, 1933), 21-22

8 Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 1 session (1933), 956.

9 Miscellaneous Senate and House Hearings, 1933-34, 73 Congress, 1 session, "Unemployment Relief" (Washington, 1933), 45.
him the regimentation meant subjecting men to physical examinations, whereby the records of all physical defects could be made public and might operate to their disadvantage. Secondly he opposed the introduction of any sort of military control.\textsuperscript{10}

Another criticism of the proposed legislation by Green was that the bill was not a relief bill in the full sense because it provided for compensation for work. He also believed that it was dangerous to set the ratio of one dollar a day for labor in the United States in that it would have a depressing effect upon wage standards established by labor in private industry.\textsuperscript{11} In line with William Green's view of regimentation of labor William P. Connery Jr., Chairman of the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, said that the bill as it stood was a "virtually a draft act,"\textsuperscript{12} Mr. Connery had also shown opposition to the proposed legislation by refusing to introduce the bill after the President's message.\textsuperscript{13}

In answer to Mr. Green's criticism and apprehension of the one dollar a day wage Charles L. Park, president of the American Tree Association, wrote a letter to Green expressing his

\textsuperscript{10} Miscellaneous Senate and House Hearings, 1933-34, 73 Congress, 1 session, "Unemployment Relief," (Washington, 1933), 45-46; New York Times, March, 1933.

\textsuperscript{11} Miscellaneous Senate and House Hearings, 1933-34, 73 Congress, 1 session, "Unemployment Relief," (Washington, 1933), 43-49.

\textsuperscript{12} New York Times, March 25, 1933.

\textsuperscript{13} "Enlisting the Jobless to Smash the Depression," Literary Digest, 115:5, (April 1, 1933).
astonishment that there should be opposition to a relief measure that paid "good American dollars" to thousands of jobless men. He said the plan would not establish a new set of wages and pointed out, as other Americans did, that it was an unemployment relief plan that paid in food, clothing, and shelter as well as wages. Also, in opposition to Green's criticism of the proposed wage rate was the statement of Lewis N. Douglas, Director of the Budget, who insisted that the plan would not involve sacrifice of ordinary public works employing labor at normal wages. 14

Even though some of William Green's criticisms of the bill's provisions were argumentatively answered it was evident after he had concluded his testimony that the bill as it was then written would never be passed. Not only William Green, as spokesman for organized labor, opposed the bill, but also Herbert Benjamin representing the National Committee of the Unemployed of the United States. To quote: "Our opinion is that the bill . . . will serve to legalize a system of forced labor." 15

Thus, after holding extensive hearings, the Senate and House Committee found much opposition to various provisions of the bill. The representatives of organized labor opposed it

15 Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 1 session (1933), 956.
16 Miscellaneous Senate and House Hearings, 1933-34, 73 Congress, 1 session, "Unemployment Relief," (Washington, 1933), 67.
as the regimentation of labor in peace times. They objected to the provision for an involuntary allotment to dependents, the wage of thirty dollars per month, and to the provision of the bill that gave the President authority to perform forestation work on lands other than public domain.\textsuperscript{17} The committees met in executive session after they had heard these objections and they reached an agreement that there were two features of the bill to which no one objected: the opportunity to engage in forestry work as a means of relieving unemployment, and the use of unobligated funds.\textsuperscript{18} The committees then proceeded to redraft the original bill and produced another bill from which the objectionable clauses were striken. The bill as printed with the Senate's amendments met with approval by organized labor according to a letter from Green.\textsuperscript{19} The President also approved the substitute\textsuperscript{20} and after discussion and consideration in Congress the bill creating the C.C.C. was finally passed by Congress and approved by the President on March 31, 1933.\textsuperscript{21}

In 1940, William Green expressed a favorable attitude toward the C.C.C. by stating in an address that the President, in endeavoring to relieve unemployment, established the C.C.C. camps which took the boys off the streets, and out of dives and environments that tended toward criminal development. He

\textsuperscript{17} Congressional Record 73 Congress, 1 session, (1933), 862.
\textsuperscript{18} Ibid., 862.
\textsuperscript{19} Ibid., 878, 956-958.
\textsuperscript{20} Ibid., 878.
\textsuperscript{21} Ibid., 1102.
went on to say, "If there is any one thing the President of the United States did that deserves our whole-hearted support, it is the launching of this great movement designated as the C.C.C. camps in America."22

In its beginning as in organization the C.C.C. received limited attention and little importance was attached to it. Camps were set up by the government and they were accepted by the people as a temporary means of meeting what was generally thought of as a passing emergency. Practically anyone in Washington would have told you that the C.C.C. was not going to amount to anything worth remembering. There were trainloads of social workers, economists and political scientists in Washington who were glad to demonstrate with charts, graphs, and books that the idea was unscientific. Beyond that, nobody paid much attention to the C.C.C. There did not seem to be time to worry about the youth; other universal repairs such as the A.A.A., C.W.A., et cetera, were commanding attention. There were, however, certain groups who did direct attention to the C.C.C. in a critical manner. There were those who wrote to their congressmen requesting that no C.C.C. camp be located near their cities or towns.24 In the spring of 1933 a considerable number of localities were reluctant to have camps in their midsts. The feeling seemed to prevail that the camps would 1933).

23 C. H. Judd, "The Youth Problem," Vital Speeches,
6:400 (April, 1940).
24 W. Davenport, "Boys in the Woods," Collier's Weekly,
be occupied by several hundred strange young men who would have no concern for the peace or welfare of the community and also would be under no discipline or restraint. Another group opposed to the C.C.C. were the pacifists, who believed it was the beginning of military training. The communists opposed it, saying it was a scheme of forced labor. There were so many projects and operations taking place in the nation that no one gave much heed to those who saw danger in the C.C.C. and criticized it. The C.C.C. was largely lost to view in the midst of all of the other governmental activities of the country. It was allowed to get along as best it could and received little attention.

As the C.C.C. organization began to organize its camps, and enroll men, it received the approval of citizens in localities, and applications for enrollment increased. Finally, it began to assume the proportions of an agency that received public attention. By August, 1933, the public gave its inadvertent approval by rarely directing its attacks on the New Deal to the C.C.C. This attitude resulted in the President's faith in the C.C.C. as being one of the bright spots in the

recovery program. The public seemed finally to consider it one of the least criticized and most popular of the New Deal measures. Thus, it received nationwide attention. There is evidence that from 1934 on the C.C.C. received increasing popular favor, and it usually was referred to as a successful recovery activity. In 1940, Robert Fechner, C.C.C. Director, said that the Civilian Conservation Corps was perhaps the only project of the New Deal of which everybody approved; "even Republicans favor relief for trees." Nevertheless, the C.C.C. did receive, along with praise and favor, adverse criticism of a varied nature. There was a great deal of "down the nose lorgnetting" of Robert Fechner in the early days of his directorate of the C.C.C., but he did "turn in an excellent job" and was credited with being "hard working" and completing an outstanding job. His attitude and interest in the C.C.C. was shown in part by his ready acceptance by the War Department and found them attractive. Fechner said he chose

31 "The Shape of Things", Nation, 150:59 (January 20, 1940).
of full responsibility of the contract in the so-called Toilet Kit scandal. The C.C.C. bought 200,000 toilet kits for the use of enrollees from the BeVier Corporation at one dollar and forty cents per kit and the army charged it could have bought kits from seventy-five and eighty-five cents per kit. The Senate Military Affairs Committee held a hearing to determine whether or not the administration had directed the purchase of the kits without competitive bids. War Department officials said the price paid was $100,000 more than that for which the Quartermaster Corps could have bought the kits. The Committee examined a letter written by L. M. Howe, Presidential Secretary, bearing the penned approval of Roosevelt authorizing Fechner to take purchase into his own hands. Fechner assumed responsibility for the contract and said he recommended the purchase after J. J. McEntee, assistant, had visited one forestry camp and examined three or four toiletry items issued by the War Department and found them defective. Fechner said he then made preliminary arrangements with R. BeVier, president of the BeVier Corporation of New York, to buy toilet kits at one dollar and forty cents each. McEntee verified Fechner's statement that the sole information they had on the values of articles purchased was furnished by the BeVier Corporation.34

Fechner admitted BeVier told him the profit he expected.

34 New York Times, June 3, 1933.
to make was about 15 percent, however, BeVier had also displayed order slips showing articles had been bought at higher prices by army canteens. Fechner felt that the haste with which the C.C.C. was being assembled was sufficient cause to overlook ordinary procedure. He said he called on Howe at the White House and explained the situation. Howe went to the President and returned with his approval.\footnote{New York Times, June 3, 1933.}

After its investigation the Senate Military Committee stated that there was no evidence of corruption or improper motive, that the price paid was fair, but that so large an amount should not have been spent. The Committee recommended that thereafter emergency purchases for the C.C.C., without bids, should be passed upon by the Controller General as to the reasonability of the price proposed.\footnote{Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 1 session, (1933), 5820; New York Times, June 11, 1933.}

The camps of the C.C.C. were subject to praise and attack. During the first year of the C.C.C. individuals expressed varying opinions. A seminary student criticized the five camps near his home in Virginia for allowing the boys to come to the town after 6:00 p.m. and "stay out till all hours." He believed the boys did very little work and felt that the War Department was "making a mess" of handling the camps.\footnote{L. H. Tharpe, "C.C.C. Camps and War Department," Christian Century, 50:1089 (August 30, 1933).} A contrasting view expressed was that of praise for the
improvement in health that was seen after the boys had been in camp for six months and praise for the Army's work and role in the camps. A rather optimistic view was expressed by a reporter, who, after visiting a camp, readily admitted that everything was far from "rosy" in camp and large scale desertions took place. He blamed the desertions and disorders in camps to the type of person enrolled, many being partially demoralized by unemployment. Also, he criticized the government, who, in its eagerness to avoid militarism or forced labor, had given no definite powers of discipline to the army in charge of camps. He favored the work of the camps, however, and thought the C.C.C. might be successful and overcome its problems.

This early intermingling of praise, criticism, and doubt-of-success of the camps was overshadowed by evidence of favorable criticism of the C.C.C. in succeeding years. The C.C.C. was credited with character building among the enrollees. Common opinion was that the camps rehabilitated young men whose health and morale was undermined by depression. The camps were given credit for the improvement of health of enrollees, the restoration of their confidence, and the

building of their morale. This belief was shared alike by the government, general public, and its leading citizens. Mayor La Guardia of New York City commended the C.C.C. for taking boys from the ranks of the idle and giving them the opportunity of physical and moral rehabilitation. Charles H. Judd of the University of Chicago gave the C.C.C. strong commendation due to the camps showing that something could be done to restore the morals and establish regular habits of living and working in the boys. President Roosevelt expressed his belief and opinion by stating that the Corps was a character builder of men and terming the C.C.C. a crime preventive. Individuals and studies completed gave evidence that the camps contributed to decreases in crime committed by youth. The value of the C.C.C. as a character builder and crime preventive measure was attacked by the charge of Governor Leon C. Phillips of

40 C. L. Pack, "Human Dividends of the C.C.C." Review of Reviews, 88:40, 64 (October, 1933); "Emergency Conservation Work During 1933," Monthly Labor Review, 38:518 (March, 1933); "At the Observation Post: Making Idle Boys into Self-Reliant Youths," Literary Digest, 117:12 (April 28, 1934); Congressional Record, 73 Congress, 2 session (1934), 6886-6887; Congressional Record, 74 Congress, 1 session (1935), 5366-5377; Congressional Record: Appendix, 75 Congress, 1 session (1937), 1257, 2012; Allen Cook, Dawn of a New Day (Washington, 1933), not pag; Work Experience Counts (Washington, 1941), not pag; The C.C.C.: A Youth Program (Washington, 1938), not pag; New York Times, December 10, 1934, February 4, 1934; Annual Reports of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps.

43 Ibid., February 24, 1937.
44 New York Times, April 18, 1939.
Oklahoma in 1942. He said a great majority of prisoners in the Oklahoma Granite reformatory were former C.C.C. enrollees. Director James J. McIntee replied that this was "a vicious libel" and issued a formal statement saying that hundreds of thousands of young men who had entered the C.C.C. without previous work experience "literally pulled themselves up by their own boot straps" and learned something of the value of discipline of work and developed a respect of the country's flag and institutions. He stated that figures of the bureau of prisons and statements of juvenile court judges all over the country showed that during the years of operation of the Corps there had been a "tremendous decrease in juvenile delinquency."46

Other benefits attributed to the C.C.C. were: the relief it provided; stimulus it supplied to business; value of work in the form of conservation practices it taught, what it did to make the public alert to conservation, and the conservation projects that were completed.47

The relief the C.C.C. afforded was in the form of monthly allotments to families of the enrollees48 and relief of unemployment. The C.C.C. not only afforded employment to young men and war veterans becoming C.C.C. enrollees but also

46 The Milwaukee Journal, April 16, 1942.
47 Evidence of the press, periodicals, and government reports indicated the benefits attributed to the C.C.C.
foresters, technicians, teachers, mechanics, and other groups serving in the organization and operation of the C.C.C.  

The C.C.C. established a market for hundreds of manufacturers and wholesalers who received contracts for supplies to be delivered to the camps. The Corps aided local areas by camp purchase programs. The camps provided the farmer and local storekeeper with a market. Local areas were also benefited by the demand for labor to erect camps; the movement of men and supplies furnished the railroads with new business.  

Evidence shows that the value of the C.C.C. work was generally recognized. This was due in part to the fact that conservation practices were taught to thousands of the nation's youth and the public was made aware of conservation by the Corps' activity and projects. The conservation work of the Civilian Conservation Corps was commended by government officials, authors, individuals in important social and economic sectors.  

positions, the general public, and the press.\textsuperscript{53} This did not mean, however, that the Corps had not received criticism of its work, organization, and operation. One criticism of the work was that the Corps was upsetting nature's balance and acting as a menace to many rare plants. The work of building bridges, roads, etc., etc., was criticized as not being true conservation because it upset natural equilibrium.\textsuperscript{54} This criticism was met with opposing views that the C.C.C. was not destroying values in the wilderness.\textsuperscript{55}

Some of the expressed criticism of the organization and administration of the Corps was that the War Department made a deplorable mess in handling the enrollees, and that officers in the camps were more interested in the checks they received than in the boys.\textsuperscript{56} The organization of the C.C.C. was criticized for not giving more attention to the social atmosphere of the camps that entitled for C.C.C. positions, such as instructors.


\textsuperscript{54} New York Times, May 21, 1938.


camps. A more serious weakness, however, was felt to be the feud that existed between the Director of the C.C.C., Fechner, and the educational director, Marsh. 57

Aimed at the administration of the C.C.C. was the political criticism. Criticism was made that politics played a role in the selection of personnel for the C.C.C. 58 An individual who attempted to aid a man in securing a position as a foreman in the C.C.C., held that in his efforts it developed that state appointments could only be made from a qualified list furnished by the United States Department of Agriculture. In taking the matter up with Washington, he was told that experience and character did not count, but that the requirement was the endorsement of the individual by county and state Democratic committeemen. 59 A similar criticism was expressed in a radio address delivered in May, 1936; wherein it was stated that young men who applied for C.C.C. positions such as instructors in physical education had to have their names on the advisers' list which was submitted by senators. The speaker said that evidence of committee hearings disclosed that the C.C.C. camps were "heavily loaded" with political appointees. 60 This criticism was met with the opposing view that the C.C.C. was

60 Congressional Record, 74 Congress, 2 session (1936), 7306. "Radio Address by Robert L. Bacon, Columbia Broadcasting System, May 11, 1936."
without benefit of politics due to the Army's administration which was "nearly as non-partisan as any government agency" could be. Another view was an expression of no surprise of the so-called "political clearance" in the C.C.C. since the sophisticated expected to find the "politicians trail" in the C.C.C. even though it did not occur to the majority of those who tended to idealize the C.C.C.  

The operation of the C.C.C. was criticized from the viewpoint of cost. It was attacked as and expense for useless work and costing more than it was worth. An officer who had been attached to the C.C.C. criticized it as being "expensive forestry." He believed that the forestry work of the C.C.C. cost much more than the same work would have cost had the work been performed by Federal and state setups which were formerly organized to do it. He also believed efficiency was lost which entailed additional cost by the clashes of the administrative groups in camps and the division of responsibility for the camps among the government agencies which made up the organization of the Corps.

The President of the American Tree Association in 1934 stated that at the end of the first year the C.C.C. had spent generating it as being too costly and another of making the

two hundred million. He believed from a social viewpoint the Corps had been a success, but that in many cases the material results were not in proportion to the investment in dollars and cents. He did believe, however, in the value of the work of the C.C.C. and felt that it could be operated in such a way as to justify its existence. 66

A favorable criticism of the C.C.C. was voiced in 1935 by the cost and value figures of the Corps being quoted. By March, 1935, the C.C.C. had spent $651,087,087. At that time the C.C.C. evaluated its work at $335,000,000 plus incalculable improvements to forests, fields, and streams. Also, forest fires had previously cost 62 million and in the first year the C.C.C. reduced 83 percent of the annual loss. 67

The total cost for the enterprises or expenditures of the Civilian Conservation Corps to April, 1941, was $2,799,700,000. This sum of money, spent during the eight years of operation, was subject to critical attack as well as justification of its expenditure. It was difficult to determine the exact monetary value of all the work of the C.C.C. as well as evaluating the social benefits of the Corps, thereby making criticism of the costs of the Corps one of denouncing it as being too costly and another of saying the Corps was a permanent institution. 68

returns of the investment were adequate. In 1942 its cost was justified and a critical view expressed then was that since the C.C.C. had been established the value of the projects had increased and while the cost of the work had always been too high for actual accomplishments the public felt that the social benefits could not be "reckoned" in terms of dollars and cents. The important thing was that few, if any, of the projects could have been done for many years, if at all. Actual conservation contributions were matters of disagreement even among conservationists, depending upon their respective views of the word. Thus, the matter of criticizing the cost of the C.C.C. was one largely of personal interpretation. One common or popular opinion in regard to the cost of the C.C.C. was that of all the money the New Deal spent, that spent through the C.C.C. was probably the least wasted. 69

The approval and disapproval of the C.C.C. was expressed by the action taken to make the C.C.C. a permanent agency. While visiting a C.C.C. camp in December, 1935, President Roosevelt made the statement that the enrollees were doing permanent work and work that would be useful for a good many generations to come. He said that even though times were going to get better "we are going to dig up enough money to keep the C.C.C. going as a permanent institution." 70

Fechner in his summary report of 1935 expressed the opinion that the C.C.C. organization had fully justified itself and that it ought to be made permanent.\(^{71}\) In his 1936 report, he recommended that the C.C.C. program of conservation work, among men and resources, be adopted as a permanent part of the national governmental activities, the size and extent of work to be governed by the employment conditions and the urgency of the work to be done. Fechner's conclusion was based upon the fitness the C.C.C. had demonstrated in providing large scale employment on work of immediate and future value to men and natural resources.\(^{72}\) A newspaper editorial that same year expressed the opinion that the recommendation submitted to the President by the Director of the C.C.C., that the organization be removed from the list of emergency bureaus and be made permanent, would be met with widespread approval.\(^{73}\)

By December 18, 1936, President Roosevelt reported that he had definitely decided to recommend to Congress to make the C.C.C. permanent.\(^{74}\) Press statement indicated that the program was well received and a favorable reception in Washington.\(^{75}\) In his message to Congress detailing the budget for the year 1938, President Roosevelt recommended that Congress enact...
legislation to establish the Corps as a permanent agency.\textsuperscript{76} The House voted down the President's proposal to make the C.C.C. permanent, adopting by vote two hundred and twenty-four to thirty-four an amendment to continue it for two years on a more strictly emergency measure. This move was made due to the fact that the government did not deem it wise to outlay annually more than \$300,000,000 with no practical chance to withdraw it in the future.\textsuperscript{77} This action was affirmed by a bill passed to continue the C.C.C. for two years by a vote three hundred and eighty-to-seven.\textsuperscript{78} On May 29 the Senate and House conferees agreed on a compromise C.C.C. bill. The House had passed the bill of two years of life for the C.C.C. and the Senate had passed a bill making the agency permanent. Under the compromise the life of the camps was fixed at three years.\textsuperscript{79} An act establishing the life for three years was approved June 26, 1937.\textsuperscript{80}

In April, 1937, hearings before the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, to make the Civilian Conservation Corps a permanent agency showed praise of the C.C.C. as well as some opinion towards favoring a permanent C.C.C. Mr. Randolph, Member of Congress from West Virginia, stated that Congress, in passing the C.C.C., was "not a decision on the permanent character of the C.C.C."

\textsuperscript{76} New York Times, January 9, 1937; Congressional Record, 75 Congress, 1 session (1937), 4353.
\textsuperscript{77} New York Times, May 12, 1937.
\textsuperscript{78} Ibid., May 13, 1937.
\textsuperscript{79} Ibid., May 29, 1937.
\textsuperscript{80} Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1938, 79.
he heartily favored the permanency of the C.C.C. program.\textsuperscript{81} Abe Murdock, Member of Congress from Utah, stated that more value had been received from the C.C.C. work in his state than from any other undertaking of the New Deal administration.\textsuperscript{82} Fechner in the hearings before the Senate Committees of Education and Labor in April, 1937, stated that he had seen thousands of youngsters come into the C.C.C., many of them sullen, unwanted, unskilled, and anti-social. He said he watched these boys live, work, and develop. When they left camp most of them had regained assurance, self respect, training, and faith in themselves.\textsuperscript{83} He also stated that the C.C.C., through coordination, made possible the fuller and more effective use of the specialized facilities of many government agencies.\textsuperscript{84}

In 1939 moves were again taken to make the C.C.C. permanent. On January 3, 1939, in his budget message for the fiscal year of 1940, President Roosevelt recommended that the C.C.C. should be continued beyond June 30, 1940 and that Congress should enact the necessary legislation to establish

\textsuperscript{81} House Committee on Labor, Hearings, 1937-1938, 75 Congress, 1 session, "To make the Civilian Conservation Corps a Permanent Agency," (Washington, 1937), 36.
\textsuperscript{82} Ibid., 105.
\textsuperscript{83} Senate Committees, Education and Labor, Hearings, 1937-1938, 75 Congress, 1 session, "To Establish a Civilian Conservation Corps," (Washington, April 9 and 13, 1937), 26-27. Hearings before the Committee on Education and Labor, United States Senate, on S. 2102, a bill to establish a Civilian Conservation Corps, and for other purposes.
\textsuperscript{84} Ibid., 23.
the Corps as a permanent agency of the Government. In February, 1939, in hearings before the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, Director Fechner recommended the permanency of the Corps for two reasons: first, the great need for employment and training on the part of a large number of young men; second, the existing need for productive and regeneration work on forests, agricultural lands, streams, parks, and other areas throughout the nation. He believed the training and experience given to young men and the continuing need for such a program was a vital national policy. Also Fechner felt the permanency of the C.C.C. would enable the Corps to go ahead in conservation with a long range program with certainty that the Corps would continue a sufficient length of time to accomplish the program. McBride agreed with Fechner by stating his belief that the permanency of the C.C.C. would be of great value in planning and carrying on the Corps' work. The Chief of the Soil Conservation Service and the Assistant Director of the National Park Service favored the permanency of the C.C.C. A statement by the Division

86 Hearings Before the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, 76 Congress, 1 session, "To Make the Civilian Conservation Corps a Permanent Agency," (Washington, February 9, 23, and 24, 1939), 2-4.
87 Ibid., 12.
88 Ibid., 44.
89 Ibid., 71-86.
90 Ibid., 87.
of Grazing also favored the continuance of the C.C.C. as a permanent agency. 91 During February, 1939, a bill was again introduced in the Senate to make the C.C.C. permanent. 92 In July, 1939, the Senate Labor Committee recommended that the C.C.C. be established as a regular Federal Agency 93 and in August the Senatorial measure to make the C.C.C. permanent was approved. 94 At the same time a bill in the House was passed that extended the life of the C.C.C. to July 1, 1943. 95 The final legislation, approved by the President August 7, 1939, extended the C.C.C. to July 1, 1943. It was not made a permanent agency. 96

Evidence shows that on the whole the Civilian Conservation Corps was accepted with commendation. It was granted the status of being the most popular and least criticized New Deal measure; it was credited with advancing the nation's conservation program, aiding the youth of the nation, providing relief, and completing work of worth-while returns. It was criticized adversely for being political, costly, inefficient, and

91 Hearings Before the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, 76 Congress, 1 session, "To Make the Civilian Conservation Corps a Permanent Agency," (Washington, February 9, 23, and 24, 1939), 2-4.
93 Ibid., July 23, 1939.
94 Ibid., August 2, 1939.
95 Ibid., August 1, 1939.
96 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 50.
dangerous to labor. Some of this criticism was met by improvements and changes in the C.C.C. and the remaining criticism was overshadowed by the general favorable attitude accorded the Corps.

CHAPTER 7

MILITARY CONTROVERSY

A matter of controversy and criticism of the C.C.C. was the so-called military aspect of the Corps. One of the objections raised in the original legislative proceedings and hearings was the danger of a militarized organization. William Green expressed his fear of a regimented labor group which could result in military discipline, military domination, and military control.\(^1\) Also a Joint Committee on Unemployment, representing labor, wrote to President Roosevelt and urged that the Army be in no way associated with the program of unemployment.\(^2\) The fear of militarization in the program and the opposition to the use of the Army was not an part by the approval of legislation which did not provide for military training and the assurances on the part of the Army that there would not be an "militarized military policy" over the conservation Corps.\(^3\)

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1 Congressional Senate and House Hearings, 1933-43, 73 Cong., 1 sess., "Unemployment Relief," (Washington, 1933), 46-47.
3 Ibid., March 27, 1932.
The criticism of the military aspect of the Corps, however, continued and it was pointed to as a danger. In 1933 labor and pace organizations opposed the C.C.C., while possible "alien" breeding among the members of the military type and their way and C.C.C. would end as a "military destruction crush." In March, 1933, a Joint Committee on Unemployment and military control expressed opposition to the measures that had been introduced in Congress opposing an edition of the month to the C.C.C. enrollment period. The additional training was to have the so-called military aspect of the Corps. One of the objections raised in the original legislative proceedings was the danger of a militarized organization. General R. N. Halsey believed the signers of the petition William Green expressed his fear of a regimented labor group which would result in military discipline, military domination, and military control. Also a Joint Committee on Unemployment, representing labor, wrote to President Roosevelt and urged that the Army be in no way associated with the program of unemployment, the fear of militarization in the program for every eighteen year old boy in the nation not to include and the opposition to the use of the Army was met in part by the approval of legislation which did not provide for military training and the assurances on the part of the Army that there would not be an "ironclad military regime" over the Conservation Corps.

2 New York Times, March 26, 1933.
3 Ibid., March 25, 1933.
The criticism of the military element of the Corps, however, continued and it was pointed to as a danger. In 1935 labor and peace organizations charged that the C.C.C. was a possible "strike breaking agency" and that if the militarists had their way the C.C.C. would end as a "military destruction corps." 4

In March, 1935, a petition was sent to President Roosevelt expressing opposition to the measures that had been introduced in Congress proposing an addition of two months to the C.C.C. enrollment period. The additional training was to have enabled enrollees to be placed in an auxiliary reserve for a five year period at a salary of $24.00 per annum. Rear Admiral R. R. Belknap believed the signers of the petition did not realize the value of military training. 6 No legislation was enacted which provided for military training. Agitation and interest was continued, however, by further suggestions being offered. Major General G. Van Horn Moseley, commanding a corps area, suggested a plan to provide C.C.C. training for every eighteen year old youth in the country and to include military training in C.C.C. activities. 7

The viewpoint of military training being desirable in the C.C.C. was not shared by all governmental officials. Robert Fechner never spoke in favor of direct military training in

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6 Ibid., March 19, 1935.
7 Ibid., September 13, 1936; February 20, 1935.
the Corps, but he did point to the disciplinary feature of the Corps and the activities within the C.C.C. program that were of a military value. In 1937 he said the youths trained in the C.C.C. were ready to act as a volunteer army in an emergency and that their training was of such a nature that they were about 85 percent prepared for military life.⁸ Fechner, however, did show opposition to proposed military training in the C.C.C. by his statements before the House Committee on Labor in 1937. In testifying before the Committee on Labor in 1939 he maintained the same stand he had taken in 1937 by stating, "I do not believe it would be desirable to introduce compulsory military training in the Civilian Conservation Corps." He feared that a military program would reduce the work program and he doubted whether the value of any military training in camps would be worth the reduced accomplishments on work projects.⁹ He also expressed the opinion that it was not fair to single out one group for compulsory training. He felt that if the time came when Congress and the people felt compulsory military training was necessary or desirable if should be applied to all young Americans and not just to one group.¹⁰

⁸ Congressional Record, 75 Congress, 1 session (1937), 621.
⁹ Hearings Before the Committee on Labor, House of Representa
tives, 76 Congress, 1 Session. "To Make the Civilian Conserva
¹⁰ Ibid., 9.
and work of the enrollees was of military value. He pointed to the fact that the enrollees lived in accordance with a fixed schedule, were disciplined, and knew how to take orders and execute them. Fechner said the entire pattern of C.C.C. life taught the enrollees how to live and work together as one body. He stated that the C.C.C. was of military value to the War Department in that its work of getting supplies, organizing, and administering camps gave it experience in economic problems of procurement. Army officers also profited by their experience in being responsible for enrollees in camps. He concluded by saying, "I think it would be a grave mistake to go further—attempt to militarize what is essentially a Civilian Conservation Corps." 

A view in conjunction with Fechner's and opposing the foregoing view of war officials was expressed by George P. Tyner, Assistant Chief of Staff, United States Army, before the Committee on Labor. He stated that the War Department had never advocated military training for the C.C.C. for many reasons; if it was decided to give such training, the War the Department favored limiting it to disciplinary training and simple drill movements with no use of weapons. His personal feeling opposed compulsory military training for C.C.C., the enrollees, because he thought military training was a full
time job and in order to carry it out it would be necessary to curtail the camps' working hours. He also thought the literary results would not justify the effort.\footnote{12}

In testifying before the Committee, James McEntee stated that in the early days of the organization of the Corps considerable thought was given to the question of military training. After consultation by the President, however, the Director of the Corps, the Advisory Council, and the Labor Committee of the House of Representatives, decided that it was not wise to have military training in the Corps. McEntee opposed military training on the grounds that it would interfere with the work program and that the training would entail a cost that would not be justified by the amount of training received. He also questioned the wisdom of taking a group of boys who, due to economic necessity, were forced to enroll in camps as a work project and then telling them that military training was required.\footnote{13}

While proposals, rejections, and discussions of this nature were taking place, attention was also directed to the fact that the enlisted men had been doing much work in the Army's activity in the Corps as an administrative body. The following statements were made very early in the year.\footnote{14} Evidence that camps did take on a rather strong military aspect due to the Army's supplying food, clothing, and equipment.\footnote{15} Also, the

\footnote{12} Hearings Before the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, 76 Congress, 1 Session, "To Make the Civilian Conservation Corps a Permanent Agency," (Washington, 1939), 96.

\footnote{13} Ibid., 103.

\footnote{14} C. W. B. Hubbard, "Forestry Army at the Front," Literary Digest, 110:5 (September 9, 1933).
fact that the men lived in camps according to a schedule and under the administration of army officers added to the military appearance of the Corps. Actually, there was no military discipline in camps. Legislation had not provided for military training nor for a military administration. Officers in camps enforced discipline on a non-militaristic basis in that there were no military drills, instructions, saluting, or military regulations. Definite camp disciplinary regulations were the basis of order and discipline in the camps for the eight years of the Civilian Conservation Corps' existence. Specified rules governed the getting up, meals, clean-up work, study, and other routine activities.  

The Civilian Conservation Corps and the cooperating government agencies in the C.C.C. program emphasized in official reports, statements, and informative publications that there were no military obligations in the Corps. A government statement in 1933 was as follows:

"It should be clearly understood that, despite the important part played by the Army, no man who has enrolled for Emergency Conservation Work has joined the Army."  

Similar statements were made year after year.  

15 Objectives and Results (Washington, 1938), 32.  
shows that the conflicting views that existed during the first eight years of the C.C.C. in regard to the administration of the camps were that military discipline was in effect in the camps; that there was a lack of adequate disciplinary power by the Army, and that there was no military discipline in the camps. These three views were shared by the public, but the most commonly accepted opinion was that the Army administered the C.C.C. camps without military discipline.  

Value was attached to the Army's work in the C.C.C. and the experience that the officers had gained in camps. It was believed by some individuals that the Army had proved the theory that a small trained permanent group, such as trained officers, could build a greater establishment by its activity in mobilizing the C.C.C. The Army also was credited with setting up the camps more cheaply than any other organization could have done. In line with the favorable criticism was also criticized for other efforts it had taken to control the  


that attended the Army's services was that, in most camps, the
officers had "handled discipline admirably." The War Department's and Army's activity in the C.C.C.,
however, was not without criticism. In 1937 the War Depart-
ment was charged with suppressing, in the C.C.C. camps, the
magazine, Champion of Youth, which contained articles of
increasing wages and attempts to militarize the camps. It
was felt that the War Department preferred having the
enrollees read Happy Days, a weekly newspaper published by the
C.C.C. and for the C.C.C. The editors of the paper claimed independence of governmental financing or dictation;
although the critics of the War Department believed evidence indicated that the War Department controlled the paper. It
was pointed out that in an editorial the Happy Days news-
paper condemned the Champion of Youth magazine although the enrollees had not read the publication. The War Department was also criticized for other efforts it had taken to control the reading matter in the camps. 22

3. The proposal to make the C.C.C. permanent during the
year 1937 caused considerable attention to be directed toward
the military question during that year. In considering the
permanency of the Corps attention was called to the fact that camps were deemed a potentially dangerous weapon to

to those who wished to militarize the United States or bring about a Fascist control of the country. The War Department was accused of trying to get "its hands" on the Corps from the very beginning and it was attacked for proposing that the enrollees receive military training on leaving the camps by being placed in the Regular Army Reserve.\textsuperscript{23}

Opposition to military activity in the Corps was expressed by the American Youth Congress in a letter they sent to President Roosevelt April 6, 1937. They approved a permanent C.C.C., but urged that it be made a part of the Department of the Interior and not continue as an adjunct to the War Department as it was at that time. Their disapproval of the War Department's activity in the C.C.C. was based upon that department's acts which they believed had curtailed the civil rights of the enrollees. The three incidents they cited were:

1. On January 19, 1937, the circulation of Champion of Youth magazine in camps was suppressed by Army order.
2. On February 27, 1937, the Happy Days attacked the Champion of Youth magazine.
3. On March 3, 1937, Major General Bowley directed, "all magazines and publications containing subversive material be turned over to Corps headquarters for investigation."

Surveys conducted in the years 1938 and 1939 indicated that in those years a majority of those who partook in the

\textsuperscript{23} House Committee on Labor, Hearings, 1937-1938, 75 Congress, 1 session, "To Make the Civilian Conservation Corps a Permanent Agency," (Washington, 1937), 112.
\textsuperscript{24} Ibid., 112-113.
surveys favored military training for C.C.C. enrollees. In 1938 a survey completed by the American Institute of Public Opinion, of which Dr. George Gallup was director, showed that military training was widely approved by the voting public. A field staff of seven hundred investigators asked a cross section of voters in all states: "Do you think military training should be part of the duties of the boys in the C.C.C. camps?" The results were: 75 percent voted yes and 25 percent, no. On two previous occasions within 1937 and 1938 the Institute polled the nation on the question and found then that a large proportion of voters, 75 percent or more, were consistently in favor of military training for the Corps.25 In October, 1939, it was reported that in every state where persons had been asked if there should be voluntary training in the C.C.C. nine out of ten said that military training should be available.26

In 1939, a Fortune Survey that asked, "Would you favor giving military training to C.C.C. boys?"; secured the following results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Under 40</th>
<th>Over 40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes...........</td>
<td>64.2%</td>
<td>67.2%</td>
<td>61.1%</td>
<td>63.1%</td>
<td>65.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, if necessary..</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.......</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know..</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26 Ibid., October 1, 1939.
By class and occupation variations in answers were too small to notice. By geography an "old difference" was observed between the Southeast and the Northwest plains—a 15 percent difference, with the southerners the most in favor of "beating axes into rifles." The people who said "no" or "don't know" to the question were asked if they would favor C.C.C. military training if it were not made compulsory, and 68.4 percent of them said "yes." Adding these to the 73.5 percent who were for militarizing the C.C.C. anyway, with or without qualification, the figure came to 91.6 percent of the population—enough which showed a determination on the part of the people that the nation should be better armed, and a "willingness to find the manpower to that end where it is freely available." 27

Although these surveys indicated a generally favorable attitude toward military training in the C.C.C. it was not introduced. In August, 1941, however, an order was issued which required a short period of daily drill for enrollees, but it was not military training in the strict sense of the word. 28

The factors that had stood in the way of giving full military training to the C.C.C. enrollees were that the enrollee majority of the enrollees were from the poorer homes and if they were impressed into service en masse, it might be said defense industries. McNutt said, "For the whole idea of the

28 New York Times, August 17, 1941.
that the "poor men's sons" were bearing the brunt of military service, training, and the defense of the nation. Also the C.C.C. enrollees signed up or enlisted with the understanding that they did not have to bear arms while in the Corps; the language of the enabling act would have to have been altered to permit the drilling of enrollees with military weapons. Another reason for nothing being done to give military training to the enrollees was that in the spring of 1941 the Army, under the Selective Service program, was getting all the men it could handle and found the C.C.C. more useful as a reservoir of trained non-combatant personnel.29

In August, 1941, a step was taken toward a form of military training in the C.C.C. At that time Director McNee disclosed an order that training in "marching and simple formations" according to army infantry drill regulations was to be given to the Corps enrollees. McNee stated that weapons were not to be used and added that the order would not put the Corps "in the military establishment." The purpose of the order was to strengthen and extend the basic health and physical training programs that were provided in the camps. The Corps training was to better fit the enrollees for army service if they were inducted or volunteered. Such training was also aimed at preparing the boys for jobs in defense industries. McNee said that the whole idea of the

29 Newsweek, 17:24 (April 14, 1941).
mass drill was "to spruce these kids up." The Training Order was issued through the War Department on McEntee's recommendation. The order as addressed to the commanders of the corps areas read:

"1. In order to improve the carriage and posture of enrollees and to attain more orderly movements of large groups of enrollees within the camps, it is desired that instruction in marching and simple formation be given all junior enrollees. 2. This instruction will be given for fifteen minutes daily, except Saturday, Sunday and holidays, immediately preceding or following the daily calisthenics. . . . The instruction given will be based on the appropriate current Infantry Drill regulations, special attention being devoted to proper carriage and posture." 30

The camps were sent copies of the Infantry Drill Regulations which stated the purpose of the drill as follows:

"A. Enable a commander to move his command from one place to another in an orderly manner and provide simple formations from which dispositions may readily be assumed.
B. Aid disciplinary training by instilling habits of precision and response to leader's orders." 31

To some individuals this amount of training was not considered adequate and this attitude was reflected by the asking of the question in October, 1941, "Why baby the C.C.C.?"

The order of subjecting enrollees to fifteen minutes drill a day without weapons, and not on Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays was considered as "babying the C.C.C." The critics felt that the "babying" of the C.C.C., giving a very limited amount of military training, had as its objective to serve as

30 New York Times, August 17, 1941.
31 Ibid., August 17, 1941.
sop to professional pacifists as well as being a scheme for preserving a "lot of bureaucrats' jobs."

This criticism, however, was just a part of the military controversy that had existed since the establishment of the C.C.C. in 1933. The main controversy was whether or not military training should be given to the enrollees in the Corps and what military aspects the Army assumed in its administrative activities in the C.C.C.

Throughout the life of the Civilian Conservation Corps, various proposals and suggestions were made for its operation. In 1933, it was suggested that the C.C.C. be reorganized in such a fashion as to provide citizenship training and specialization for all the youth of the country. A given age group was to be placed in camp for a year. During the camp term members were to be taught such subjects, cooperation, and the duties of a citizen. They also were to receive vocational and military training. The company was to be divided into two platoons to carry out the general program of training and actual labor.1 A proposal that received attention from time to time during the years 1933 to 1940 was the suggestion that the Civilian Conservation Corps should be made permanent.2 In the fall of 1941 a merger of the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. was suggested by President Roosevelt. At that time he directed Paul V. McNutt, head of the Federal Security

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1 See Eells, "What's to Become of the C.C.C.?," Forum, 41(245-247 April, 1938).  
2 See pages 123-128.
CHAPTER VI

FUTURE OF THE C.C.C.

Throughout the life of the Civilian Conservation Corps, "the Committee also endorsed the proposal. The Committee in 1935, it was proposed that the C.C.C. be reorganized in such a fashion as to provide citizenship training and socialization for all the youth of the country. A given age group was to be placed in camp for a year. During the camp term members were to be taught tool subjects, cooperation, and the duties of a citizen. They also were to receive vocational and military training. The company was to be divided into two platoons to carry out the general program of training and actual labor. A proposal that received attention from time to time during the years 1933 to 1940 was the suggestion that the Civilian Conservation Corps should be made permanent.

In the fall of 1941 a merger of the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A. was suggested by President Roosevelt. At that time he directed Paul V. McNutt, head of the Federal Security Agency, to consider the matter. The merger was approved in 1941.

2 See pages 125-128.
Agency and Harold H. Smith, Director of the Budget to draft merger plans for the consolidation of the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. which he had indicated would be presented to Congress for legislative action. This proposal was endorsed by the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education and by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, Henry Morgenthau. The National Advisory Committee of the N.Y.A. also approved the proposed consolidation. The Committee inserted in its approval, however, that all of the essential services performed by both agencies should be retained and maintained. The new agency was to operate within the existing budget.

The reasons that President Roosevelt gave for the proposed measure were that it would aid in freeing the youth program of administrative difficulties, frictions, and faulty relationships which had hampered the functioning of the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. He felt that the consolidation would offer a "broader service, not as an emergency measure, but as part of a continuing concern for the well being of the nation's youth." The step was also taken in the interest of economy and War Departmental relief. The Federal Security Agency officials believed...

5 New York Times, November 15, 1941.
6 Ibid., October 29, 1941.
8 "Fewer Youth Props,” Newsweek, 18:24 (November 10, 1941).
estimated that the merger of the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. coupled with a greater demand for men in defense industries would save the government one hundred and thirty-two million dollars during the remainder of the fiscal year 1942. They estimated that thirty million could be saved within eight months through the elimination of overlapping administration. 9

A bill to consolidate the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. was introduced in the House of Representative Lyndon B. Johnson, December 9, 1941. 10 The bill directed that the one agency resulting from the consolidation of the two be known as the Civilian Youth Administration. The new agency was to operate within the Federal Security Agency. The purpose of the bill, as stated by Representative Johnson, was to promote economy and efficiency in the Federal Government and to expedite work experience provided to youth in the fields most directly related to defense needs. 11 This bill was endorsed by President Roosevelt, and, in a press conference in December, he revealed that he had written a note to Senator McKellar expressing his approval of the bill. The President also stated that he understood the Budget Bureau approved the measure. 12

On December 26, 1941, the Joint Committee on Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures, headed by Senator Byrd

9 New York Times, October 30, 1941.
10 Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 1 session (1941-1942), p. 9847.
11 Ibid., A5635-A5636.
of Virginia, recommended that the C.C.C. be abolished. This view was opposed by a minority of the Committee who believed that the recommendation had been based on inadequate evidence. Senator LaFollette, as one of the minority, expressed the opinion that the C.C.C. was of value to the country. He stated that the proposed abolition of the C.C.C., which would save $246,960,000, was supplying industry with 3000 to 10,000 partially trained men each month. He also pointed to the fact that one fourth of all the cooks in the army were former C.C.C. enrollees, the majority of whom had received their initial training in the Corps. The concluding thought to his statements was that a concrete record gave evidence to the fact that industry and the Federal Government wanted and needed men with C.C.C. work experience. LaFollette's opposition to the abolition of the C.C.C. was shared by three other senators. These announced in January, 1942, that they would fight all attempts to eliminate the governmental programs for needy persons, for youth training, and for farm aid in order to economize in non-defense expenditures. Senator Norris of Nebraska said it would be "penny wise and pound foolish" to try and eliminate the programs of aid just as a war had begun and when the programs were needed the most.

13 Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures (Senate, Document no. 152, 77 Congress, 1 session, Washington, 1941), 4.
LaFollette used General Marshall as his authority for the statement of the number of cooks in the army who had received C.C.C. training.
Similar sentiment was expressed by Senators Clark of Idaho and Bone of Washington.\textsuperscript{15}

The Committee on Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures, in its recommendation that the C.C.C., N.Y.A., and national defense training activities of the Office of Education, be abolished as soon as possible, also recommended that some suitable agency should be established for training persons for work in the defense industries.\textsuperscript{16} A Brookings Institution study approved the Byrd Committee's recommendation of abolishing the C.C.C. by stating "with the outbreak of war the C.C.C. activities might well be completely absorbed by military and vocational training activities."\textsuperscript{17} The abolition of the C.C.C.\textsuperscript{20} assumed legislative form when Senator McKellar introduced a bill in the Senate on February 23, 1942, which provided for the termination of the C.C.C. and the N.Y.A.\textsuperscript{18} This bill was opposed by the Director of the C.C.C. In testifying before a Senate committee March 30, 1942, Director James J. McEntee said that it would be a "tremendous indictment against our nation's common sense" to abolish the C.C.C. and "then build up some other organization that would have to do the same things the corps is doing today." Major General James A. Ulio, the adjutant general, joined Director McEntee

\textsuperscript{15} \textit{New York Times}, January 5, 1942.
\textsuperscript{16} \textit{Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures} (Senate, Document no. 152, 77 Congress, 1 session, Washington, 1941), 4.
\textsuperscript{17} \textit{New York Times}, December 29, 1941.
\textsuperscript{18} \textit{Congressional Record}, 77 Congress, 2 session (1942), 1555.
in his plea for the continuance of the Corps. McEntee declared that to abandon the C.C.C. would be "the height of folly." To counteract this view, the commission called for

By United States' direct involvement in the World War, December, 1942, some of the proposals for the future of the C.C.C. acquired new forms. In December, 1942, it was proposed that the C.C.C. should be assigned to the Corps of Engineers during the war emergency. It was suggested that the work projects that were under way and were of national defense value should be continued and others should be postponed. The reason for the proposed assignment of the C.C.C. to the Corps of Engineers was to promote the defense activity of the nation. 20 On January 16, 1942, a bill was introduced in Congress to transfer the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. property to the War Department for the use of the army motor transport training force. It was proposed that draftees be sent to C.C.C. and N.Y.A. machine shops for training and thus the army could avail itself of C.C.C. and N.Y.A. equipment and personnel. 21

Proposals other than those of a direct military nature were also suggested. The American Youth Commission warned the country in January, 1942, to be on the alert "lest it win the war abroad only to lose it at home." A report by the

20 Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 1 session (1941-1942), 10374.
21 Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 2 session (1942), 431, January 16, 1942.
commission declared that widespread unemployment in the post-war period might lead to a social revolt in the United States. In order to counteract this danger the commission called for advance planning which would assure jobs for the nation's youth in the post-war era. Part of the program they offered was as follows: 1. Make unemployment of all youths under twenty-one years of age "a social responsibility." 2. Carry out this program through the C.C.C., the N.Y.A. and a work program, including not only public works, but "production of goods for use." A report of the Educational Policies Commission stated that as soon as the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. had completed their assignment of war emergency work for national defense they should be discontinued as separate agencies. The Educational Commission proposed that their functions as agencies of vocational training, general education, and guidance should be continued but transferred to state and local agencies.

While these proposals were being offered the C.C.C. continued to function as an independent agency within the Federal Security Agency.

The role of the Civilian Conservation Corps in the national defense program was varied in nature. The C.C.C. contributed to the defense of the nation by its extension of

employment opportunities to young men who had been able thereby to improve their health, build their morale, and acquire training. The vocational and technical training that the C.C.C. enrollees received was of military value. Broadly, it consisted of cooking and baking instruction; construction work; map making and reading; training in industrial work, photography; experience in the use of explosives, radio operation, first-aid work, signal communications, motor repair and maintenance; and training in leadership. Thus, in an eighteen month period after President Roosevelt had declared a limited emergency in May, 1940, an aggregate of 665,000 C.C.C. enrollees had received training useful to defense. The number of men trained in some of the types of jobs that were offered in the Corps was as follows:

- Operators of tractors, trucks, power shovels, drag lines, air hammers, crushers and other heavy equipment, and maintenance men........ 83,524
- Road construction workers, bridge builders, 75,600
- Building construction men—including workers in concrete, practical carpenters, stone masons, drill fields, tank maneuver grounds, and airplane loading.


25 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1940, 5-12; Civilian Conservation Corps: Contributing to the Defense of the Nation (Washington, 1941), not pagged.
painters, electricians, and plumbers...  34,608
Clerks, warehousemen, cooks, bakers, mess
and supply stewards and infirmary attendants...  20,328
Welders, blacksmiths, axemen, saw files,
sawmill men..........................  16,951
Blasters and quarry workers........  15,682
Telephone line construction workers and
radio operators......................  11,875
Surveyors, map makers, map readers and
draftsmen..........................  3,360

Of the 665,000 men enrolled in the Corps over the eighteen
month period 100,000 left the Corps to accept private jobs
joined the armed forces prior to completing their terms of
enrollment. 26

The conservation work and military projects completed
by the C.C.C. enrollees were of military value. The conserva-
tion work aided the nation by its relation to the country's
food supply and need of natural resources in industry. 27 In
their military work C.C.C. enrollees were assigned directly
to military forts and reservations. Their work consisted of
clearing fields for parachute troop practices; building roads;
installing water and sewer systems; developing target ranges,
drill fields, tank maneuver grounds, and airplane landing
fields. During the war period the military projects of the
C.C.C. were given priority over the conservation work because
of the greater urgency and need for military work. 28

27 Gilberston, "The C.C.C. Marches on," Soil Conservation, 7:212-214 (March, 1942); Civilian Conservation Corps: Con-
tributing to the Defense of the Nation (Washington, 1941),
not pagged.
28 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conser-
vation Corps: June 30, 1941, 5; Gilberston, "The C.C.C. Marches
The C.C.C. further aided in the national defense program by cooperating with groups of people and agencies. In August, 1941, the Civilian Conservation Corps authorized the furloughing of C.C.C. enrollees to assist farmers and orchard operators in gathering the harvest.\textsuperscript{29} In 1941, the Director of the C.C.C. and the Chairman of the Red Cross signed an agreement under which the C.C.C. camps, their equipment, and personnel throughout the nation were designated for emergency use in the event of mass evacuation necessitated by enemy action in any part of the country. Under this agreement it was necessary to train the key C.C.C. personnel in Red Cross disaster-fighting techniques and to designate the C.C.C. camps that would act as evacuee centers. By the agreement all trained members of the C.C.C. were directed to carry out their assignments as components of the Red Cross disaster relief setup. The agreement stated that all the rolling equipment and trained personnel of the C.C.C. was to be available to the Red Cross for rescue of evacuees and their transportation to concentration centers; for transportation of medical personnel and medical supplies; for distribution of relief rations; for transfer of cots, blankets, kitchen and feeding equipment; for service in preparation of food, either in C.C.C. camps or on other premises operated as mass shelters; for emergency and housing facilities on C.C.C.

\textsuperscript{29} New York Times, August 13, 1941.
premises; and for supplying storage space for Red Cross or other supplies and equipment. 30

During 1940 and 1941 many C.C.C. youths found private jobs and others went into the armed forces, thereby causing the number of the C.C.C. camps and enrollment to decrease. 31 In October, 1941, Director McEntee announced that approximately 6,000 enrollees were leaving the camps each month. From April to October, 1941, the enrollment had dropped from 200,000 to 160,000 and the number of camps had decreased from 1,500 to 900. This decrease in enrollment made it unnecessary for the Civilian Conservation Corps to spend its allotted appropriation of two hundred and forty-seven million dollars for the fiscal year 1941. In November Director McEntee said that at the end of the fiscal year the C.C.C. would probably turn forty-seven million back to the treasury. He stated that the closed C.C.C. camps were to be kept in good condition for possible use, such as conditioning men. 32 Some of the camps were used by men other than the C.C.C. enrollees. In February, 1942, the vacated C.C.C. camps in Wisconsin were used as resident induction centers. Trained N.Y.A. boys, who were in certain areas of the country where there was a lack of.

31 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 1, 6.
32 "Fewer Youth Trops," Newsweek, 18:24 (November 10, 1941); New York Times, October 5, 1941.
work, were brought to the camps and resided there until employment was secured for them. In the early months of 1942 there were various suggestions for the manner in which the vacated C.C.C. camps were to be used. It was suggested that the conscientious objectors be sent to vacated C.C.C. camps in forest areas to help control forest fires. The purpose of the suggestion was to make the equipped C.C.C. camps that had been vacated useful and at the same time supply the depleted fire fighting ranks with new men. In Wisconsin, the state conservation commission considered the proposal a possible solution for the state's vacated camps and need of men for fighting fires. Various groups of people in Wisconsin considered the formation of a women's civilian conservation corps. The suggestion was to put women into the vacated C.C.C. camps, to organize them much as the C.C.C. boys were organized, and to give them some of the tasks that had formerly been done by C.C.C. enrollees. Special stress was to be laid on forest nursery work and it was thought that women could also assist with fire control work by handling trucks and transporting pumps or water supplies. Another proposal was for mobile C.C.C. camps.

33 Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 2 session (1942), A671.
34 The Milwaukee Journal, March 13, 1942.
35 Ibid., March 12, 1942.
36 Ibid., March 23, 1942.

The groups that urged that women be used in C.C.C. camps were: Milwaukee Junior Women's Club (Milwaukee Journal, February 17, 1942), the Wisconsin Federation of Women's Clubs (Milwaukee Journal, February 9, 1942), et cetera, and Senator Wiley (Milwaukee Journal, March 23, 1942).
The suggestion was to move C.C.C. boys to areas where they were most needed in the seasons when they could best function. To illustrate: the C.C.C. enrollees were to be sent to forest areas during months when fires were most prevalent; and for the remainder of the year they were to return to their respective localities. Accordingly the camps would be of service to their respective communities, who would hesitate seeing them move unless assured of their return. Also they would be of service to the country in need of manpower during certain seasons. Another suggestion proposed that the equipment of the closed C.C.C. camps be turned over to state and federal foresters. It was believed to be useless to store equipment in closed camps when it was needed and could be used by state and federal fire control forces. All these suggestions were made in an attempt to make use of the closed camps and C.C.C. equipment as well as continuing the work of the enrollees, especially fire fighting control.

38 Ibid., March 21, 1942.

The enrollees were also needed to do any menial work for the camps.
CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

In its beginning the Civilian Conservation Corps was considered a temporary structure to relieve the "acute condition of widespread distress and unemployment." Its objectives were to provide relief for the unemployed youth of the nation, to build the health and morale of the youth, and to restore the depleted natural resources of the United States. After the passing of a few months, however, the temporary stopgap appearance of the C.C.C. disappeared. This change was due in part to the development and management of the new enterprise. The Corps received attention and acquired standing as a regular established Federal agency by the action of Congress in June, 1937. The purpose of the Corps was then stated (in contrast to the earlier purpose: "to relieve the condition of . . . . unemployment") as one "to provide employment as well as vocational training for youth-

ful citizens of the United States who are unemployed and in need of employment." The C.C.C. as a monetary relief and
job-giving agency was replaced by the C.C.C. as a work-training agency. The emphasis on the training given to enrollees in the C.C.C. assumed greater importance when national defense was added to the objectives of the C.C.C. In 1941 the major purposes of the Corps were as follows:

1. To train young men in work habits and skills which make them employable and useful in industries contributing to the national defense.
2. To develop strong, healthy, and well-disciplined young men who know how to take care of themselves and who have the physical fitness which makes them valuable workers in private industry and good citizens in private life.
3. To conduct carefully planned, long-range conservation programs for the proper development, expansion, protection, and wise use of our forests, parks, and farms threatened by erosion, and other public lands.
4. To provide every possible aid to all agencies engaged in promoting the national defense.
5. To improve enrollees generally with special attention to the removal of physical and educational defects barring young men from effective national service; to develop in all enrollees an appreciation of our form of government and the opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship and high standards of moral conduct.  

During the eight years of the Civilian Conservation Corps’ operation it provided work for two and one-half million unemployed men. It utilized that man-power to help protect and preserve the resources of the nation. It built up enrollees physically and strengthened their morale. It also trained

1 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1933 - June 30, 1939, 10.
2 Standards of Eligibility for Junior Enrollees (Washington, 1941), cover page.
enrollees in skills which fitted them for employment in society. The enrollees were not the only beneficiaries of the C.C.C. program. Society received benefits in the following forms: relief provided for enrollees' dependents, markets opened to business by C.C.C. purchases, conservation work of a social and monetary value, and a body of men trained and available for defense work.

The C.C.C. was considered an "unique organization" because of its structure. It used various federal and state governmental agencies. Not only in its work program, but also in its administrative system, the C.C.C. utilized local, state, and federal agencies.

The major work of the Civilian Conservation Corps during its eight years of operation, was one of conservation; in the 1940's, work of a defense nature was particularly emphasized. A prevailing opinion, however, was

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5 Activities of the Civilian Conservation Corps: July 1, 1938 - June 30, 1939, 10.
stressed. The conservation work of the Corps, broadly classified, included forestry work, soil erosion work, recreational work, and the care of the wildlife of the nation.

Assignments to defense projects in military forts and in defense skills were the chief phases of defense work.\(^6\)

The C.C.C. was criticized both favorably and adversely. The conservation work completed by the Corps was criticized as being costly and inefficient.\(^7\) On the other hand it was commended for advancing the conservation program of the country.\(^8\) The usefulness of the C.C.C. work was pointed to as being of the same general character and type of work which the Department of the Interior, the Department of Agriculture, and the State conservation organizations had carried on for years.\(^9\) It was difficult to determine the actual value of the work of the Corps in dollars and cents, although various estimates were given. A prevailing opinion, however, was that the work of the C.C.C. was of a worthwhile nature. On the whole the cost of the C.C.C., which totaled $2,779,700,000 during eight years' operation, was viewed as being justifiable,

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\(^6\) Reforestation by the C.C.C. (Washington, 1941), 1-12; Forest Improvement (Washington, 1939), 1-12; Forests Protected (Washington, 1938), 1-12; The C.C.C. and Wildlife (Washington, 1939), 1-16; The Civilian Conservation Corps and Public Recreation (Washington, 1941), 3-23; Hands to Save the Soil (Washington, 1938), not paged; Civilian Conservation Corps: Contributing to the Defense of the Nation (Washington, 1941), not paged; Annual Reports of the Director of the C.C.C.


\(^8\) See pages 100-102.

especially in the light that relief had to be supplied in some manner; the C.C.C. with its work program was as feasible as any other form of relief.\textsuperscript{10}

Other adverse criticisms of the C.C.C. were that politics played a role in the C.C.C., that the C.C.C. was dangerous to labor; and the unwise purchasing in the toilet kit scandal. These criticisms were overshadowed by a favorable attitude that was accorded the Civilian Conservation Corps. This attitude was expressed in part by the attempts that were made to make the C.C.C. permanent. Evidence indicated that the C.C.C. was the most popular of all the New Deal measures.\textsuperscript{11}

The "second" World War with its increased demand for men in the industries and in the military forces of the nation resulted in a decrease in the number of C.C.C. camps and their enrollment. The reduced need for the C.C.C. as an unemployment organization and the necessity to save money for wartime purposes caused the introduction of legislation to abolish the C.C.C. Another legislative proposal that had been introduced was to consolidate the C.C.C. and N.Y.A. Both measures were received with approval and opposition, and by the spring of 1942 neither measure had been passed by

\textsuperscript{10} See pages 118-119, 122-123.

\textsuperscript{11} See pages 104-110, 112-114, 116-123, 125-126.
Congress. The outstanding feature of the Civilian Conservation Corps was its past and future conservation importance. It was important as a conservation agency because of its vast source of man-power that was used in conservation projects. It enabled the nation to undertake conservation on a large scale. By 1942, the need of conservation had not ceased and surveys based on the program of that year indicated that three billion man-days of constructive work were lying ahead for the Department of Agriculture alone. Thus, there was need for a large organization to conduct a large-scale conservation program such as the C.C.C. Another feature of the value of the C.C.C., other than its desirability as a conservation agency, was its ability to alter the character of its work. This was exemplified by the activity of the Corps during the "second" World War when defense, rather than conservation, work was stressed. Therefore, the important characteristics of the C.C.C. were its past and future conservation importance as well as its ability to aid the nation in emergencies such

12 Annual Report of the Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps: June 30, 1941, 4; "Fewer Youth Props," Newsweek, 18:24 (November 10, 1941); New York Times, October 5, 1941; Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures (Senate, Document No. 152, 77 Congress, 1 session, Washington, 1941), 1-5; Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 2 session (1942), 1555; Congressional Record, 77 Congress, 1 session (December 8, 1941 to January 2, 1942), 9647, A5835.
as war and other activities. From an unemployment relief organization it turned into a training agency and, likewise, it could turn into a post-war adjustment agency for youth. The contribution of the Civilian Conservation Corps to the United States was its development from an experimental temporary agency into an organization of social and economical value with future potentialities.


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