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The Civil War Soldiers System: The Inside Story

Betsy Chittenden

The Civil War Soldiers System (CWSS) made the news nationwide in mid-July with a story by the Associated Press that ran in more than 100 newspapers. Although it may seem to many that CWSS popped up from nowhere, faithful readers of *CRM Bulletin* will remember that the idea was first proposed by Woody Harrell in an article that ran in June 1987, and in April of this year *CRM* reported that, with the impetus of the Secretary's American Battlefield Protection Program (ABPP) and heightened interest in the Civil War in general, planning for the CWSS was underway. Since that time, events have moved quickly—this article is intended to give readers more detail and background on CWSS concepts and design.

The primary intent of the CWSS is to make information about the Civil War, and particularly the people who fought in it, accessible to park visitors. The system will include information about the soldiers who participated, their regiments and units, the battles, skirmishes, and engagements that made up the Civil War, and the monuments and burial places that exist today. Furthermore, the system will link this information to the extent permitted within the limits of historical data integrity: people to units, units to battles, people and units to monuments, people to burial places.

The heart of the CWSS will be three files of historical data, backed by a number of reference files that contain information about the source of the historical information. The most important file will be the names file, in which each record will be a piece of historical information about a soldier. The first part of all name records will have basic pieces of information in common: the name, a record identification number, a reference identification number that links the record to its source, and the record type. The second part of the record will have specific information that will vary according to the record type: information on military service, or burial information, or personal information. As new information from different sources is entered into the database over time, new record types can be created to accommodate them. Using one data file in this way to record a variety of information types greatly simplifies programming and reduces processing time when accessing the data.

The initial names data entry will be a massive project to enter information from the general index to the compiled military service records (CMSRs) of Civil War soldiers at the National Archives. In an extraordinary pre-computer era information management project, the Department of the Army in the 1880s and '90s indexed the CMSRs, creating approximately 150 million cards, on the approximately 3.5 million soldiers that served. Of these, about 5.5 million are master index cards, which are being automated. (In a time before Social Security numbers, numerous spellings and misspellings of the soldiers' names in various documents meant that index cards had to be created for each spelling, resulting in more master index cards than soldiers). Current plans are to enter about 14 data elements from the cards, including the first name, last name, middle name, Confederate/Union, unit company and regiment served in and its state, rank when entering the service, rank when exiting the service, other names, and the Archives microfilm reference number (see illustration). The consistency, relative completeness, relative accuracy and historical integrity, and already microfilmed format of these index cards were

the basic reasons that they were chosen as the basic data source for soldiers' names, as opposed to other possible sources such as published state rosters.

Other information from various projects and sources will eventually be included in the names database. Burial records will be another major block of data, beginning with those national cemeteries under NPS jurisdiction, followed by those controlled by the Departments of Defense and Veterans Affairs, and eventually gathering records from other cemeteries. Maureen Danaher Foster of the ABPP staff will be coordinating cemetery data work. Information from a number of existing databases that have been developed in individual parks will be incorporated, such as the work done to computerize names of prisoners at Andersonville. Save Outdoor Sculpture! (a joint project of the National Institute for the Conservation of Cultural Property, the National Museum of American Art, and the Smithsonian Institution) is beginning a multi-year project to survey outdoor sculpture nationwide, and discussions are being held about the possibility of using data on Civil War-related sculpture and monuments collected through this project.

The two other basic historical information data files will be troop units and engagements. NPS historian Dale Floyd, who joined the American Battlefield Protection Program staff in July, is working with Information and Data Systems programmer Gina Moriarty to create a list of units and a list of engagements. Frederick H. Dyer's *A Compendium of the War of the Rebellion*, published in 1907, will be used as the basis of the list of the approximately 10,000 engagements of the Civil War, as well as the list of which Union units participated in what action. Dyer's *Compendium* was chosen in part because it is reasonably scannable; as much information as possible will be scanned. Since Dyer's *Compendium* only lists Union units, Floyd will be using other sources to develop the list of Confederate participation and other historical and contemporary sources will be used to cross-check and correct both Union and Confederate lists. The list of units, with an estimated 7,000 records, will generally be at the level of the regiment, although some smaller units, such as companies or special units that were independent of any regiment or that have special historical status, will by necessity be included. The program will also cross reference units that were merged, changed names, or had commonly used nicknames. To do that will involve taking the results of a century-old information management project—the synonyms of Civil War regiment names, well-researched and documented by Army historians and clerks and published in the late 19th century as a reference guide—and applying relational database technology and scanning technology to incorporate it into a late 20th century information management project. Since the units information is needed for entering names data, it is being developed as quickly as possible.

Integrity of the historic data is a primary goal of the system. The CWSS will not attempt to draw conclusions or make connections between similar names, nor will it attempt to correct errors in the historical documents. Each piece of data will be kept separate, simply mirroring the primary historical source data. For example, the database may include both a Joshua Bailey of the 10th Vermont regiment from the Archives index cards, and a Joshua Bailey from the 10th Vermont buried at Antietam. While a historian may logically conclude that these are the same Joshua Bailey, the database will not draw such a conclusion and there will be two entries, one for each piece of information about Joshua Bailey. Similarly, soldiers' names will be linked to regiments, and regiments will be linked to battles, but soldiers' names will not be linked directly to battles, as this is historically impossible to determine from the Archives information. A number of reference data files (the exact number and configuration has not yet been determined) will be an important component of the CWSS, used to record not only where each piece of information came from, but details about when that data was collected, by whom, and where. For example, a reference record may describe a summer project to field collect and enter names from tombstones in a cemetery, or a project to enter names from a 19th century record of prisoners of war. In this way, the provenance of each piece of data in the database is preserved, and the historical reliability of each can be determined.

A number of NPS offices and outside organizations are involved in putting together the CWSS. John Peterson, at the NPS Information and Data Systems Division in Washington, is coordinating the overall project and is the main contact person for the system. The system is a part of the Secretary of the Interior's American Battlefield Protection Program (see *CRM Bulletin*, Vol. 13, No. 5), and Peterson is working closely with the ABPP staff, headed by historian Dr. Marilyn Nickels. Within the NPS, a steering committee has been created to oversee the design and development of the CWSS (see sidebar). The committee's first meeting was held in June in Shepherdstown, West Virginia; future meetings will be held at critical stages in the development of CWSS, particularly in the early stages as basic decisions are made about the system. Civil War parks and regional offices will get regular reports from the steering committee.

Three organizations are party to agreements with the NPS for the initial Archives data entry project. The National Archives is providing copies of the microfilm of the original CMSR general index cards, and donating the use of microfilm readers for data entry. The Federation of Genealogical Societies is organizing a massive volunteer effort to do data entry of Archives data. The Genealogical Society of Utah (GSU), associated with the Church of Jesus Christ of the Latter Day Saints, has a number of operational genealogical computer programs that will be used for portions of the CWSS and data entry.

The Family History genealogical programs developed by the Genealogical Society of Utah will be the model for much of the CWSS concept, structure, and feel. Family history and genealogy figure importantly in the beliefs of the Mormon Church, and the GSU, with a staff of over 40 programmers, is continually developing and refining genealogical programs. There are 1600 Family History Centers worldwide that receive 5 million patron visits each year to access databases containing about 145 million names with basic information about births, deaths, marriages and parent-child relationships. This experience in developing such immense databases that are routinely used by computer novices will be invaluable in developing the CWSS. Particularly of interest to CWSS programmers is the capability of these programs to find names that are similar in spelling and sound. Although as of this writing it was too early to know, portions of the GSU programs may be adapted directly for use in the CWSS.

The data entry of the Archives CMSR index cards is an enormous project-within-a-project that will take approximately three years to complete. The Federation of Genealogical Societies is setting up a hierarchy of coordinators to marshall the services of thousands of volunteers from its 400 member organizations representing about 100,000 individuals. Some FGS volunteers will work directly from the microfilm records at National Archives headquarters in Washington and at 12 regional offices around the country. Others will work from paper copies of the microfilmed index cards; this is the only practical way to accomplish data entry on home and office computers. (Creating the paper copies will likely be one of the largest cash expenses of the project.) For data accuracy, information from each index card will be entered twice, and compared for discrepancies: this means that FGS volunteers will enter 11 million records altogether. The FGS will use data entry software provided by the GSU, which is developing templates for the Archives data on its Universal Data Entry software.

Since the CWSS will eventually be used by a wide variety of users, from casual park visitor to serious academic scholars, it is expected that a number of versions will be produced for different settings. The sheer volume of data will require the use of CD-ROM technology for storage when stand-alone microcomputers are used. The first prototype system now being developed by Gina Moriarty, Jackie Baum and Ted Dinkel of the Information and Data Systems Division is focusing on basic system structure and programs for data entry. Information already computerized in several park programs, such as information on prisoners of war at Andersonville NHS, will be used to test the prototype system. Field testing of a system for use by park historians and interpreters is anticipated at Antietam NB and Shiloh NMP in late 1991 or early 1992. Initially the 28 Civil War parks will have the system available to visitors on a microcomputer with the data on CDROM.

Beyond that, access methods have yet to be determined, but a dial-up central version of the system accessible through ParkNet is a possibility. Information and Data Systems Division is also experimenting with imaging technologies for photos and historical documents with a new desktop Wang imaging system.

At the NPS steering committee meeting in July, Don Thie, Chief of WASO Information and Data Systems Division, affirmed that his division is thoroughly committed to this project and expects to be involved with it on a long-term basis. Based on long-term planning described in the FY90 and FY91 NPS Information Resource Management Plans, IDSD has committed inhouse resources to maintain the software, data elements, and the various links to the Civil War parks. Long-term funding for the project will be raised from non-profit foundations or corporations through the American Battlefield Protection Foundation. The potential for donated computer equipment for the parks is also being explored.

Even though the CWSS is just beginning to take shape and full data entry of the Archives data is several years away, its potential as a research and educational tool is already being closely examined. The locus of this activity is Shepherd College in Shepherdstown, West Virginia, which is working under a modest planning grant to develop and refine ideas for a National Endowment for the Humanities grant. The NEH grant would be used to develop ways to access and use the data outside the parks, focusing on the research and academic communities. A new Center for the Study of the Civil War at Shepherd College would house the CWSS as a major research tool. Noted scholars James McPherson, professor at Princeton University and author of *Battle Cry of Freedom*, historian Eric Foner of Columbia University, an expert on the Reconstruction era, and historian Emory Thomas of the University of Georgia, are advising Shepherd College on this endeavor.

The CWSS is still in the early stages of design and implementation, and this article will no doubt be out of date before it even goes to print. Interested readers are encouraged to contact any of the staff or steering committee members for updates, comments, questions, or suggestions. Woody Harrell in 1987 posed the question "Is there sufficient interest in providing public access of Civil War soldier information at NPS sites to pursue such a project?" The answer in 1991 is a resounding yes!

The Greene Geological Museum: Science in the 19th Century and Today

Donald G. Mikulic

With the rapid pace of change in today's world, cultural resource specialists and scientists are becoming increasingly aware of the scientific value of curatorial collections in the cabinets of America's museums and universities. Amateur naturalists, for example, made a vital contribution to the development of 19th century American science. At a time when paid professional scientists were few and far between, amateur naturalists were a primary source of information in a wide range of scientific subjects including archeology, biology, and geology. The study and collection of natural history objects by these individuals stimulated scientific research, and specimens from their "cabinets" provided the nuclei for most of our prominent museum collections. The contribution and significance of these amateur naturalists has been largely forgotten. Little documentation remains other than their prized specimens hidden away in museum storage rooms. Whereas many of these specimens still have considerable scientific value, they seldom reveal much about the history of 19th century science. An outstanding and, in many ways, unique exception is the Thomas A. Greene Geological Collection housed in the Greene Museum at the University of WisconsinMilwaukee.

Thomas Greene was born in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1827. Like many other amateur naturalists, he developed an early interest in a wide variety of scientific disciplines, especially geology, although he never received any formal training. In 1847 he arrived in Milwaukee and founded what was to become a very successful wholesale drug company. For many years he devoted only minimal attention to this scientific interest. Then, in 1878, his physician prescribed a relaxing hobby to relieve the stress of his business activities. Greene, finding that minerals were uncommon in the area, turned to collecting the common fossils found in local stone quarries. Being a methodical man, Greene decided he would assemble the most extensive and comprehensive collection of Milwaukee area (later extending into Chicago) fossils possible. His doctorordered relaxation soon became an obsession.

Greene's collection of fossils and minerals is exceptional because it has maintained its scientific and historical integrity since Greene's death almost 100 years ago. Most specimens are accompanied by Greene's original labels, some bearing notations by prominent scientists of the time. Many of these specimens remain in the order Greene originally filed them, still stored in cases he had custom made for his "cabinet." In addition, the means by which Greene assembled his collection and the sources from which he obtained specimens are well documented. Extensive correspondence between Greene and scientists, other collectors, and dealers is preserved with the collection, as are some business papers and scientific library. Most importantly, his collection has escaped incorporation into a larger museum collection, the fate of most other 19th century collections.

In 1911, Greene's heirs donated the collection to Milwaukee Downer College and erected the Greene Museum building to house it. (In 1964, the collection and museum were sold to the University of WisconsinMilwaukee which acquired the Milwaukee-Downer campus.) In addition to its considerable scientific and educational value, the combination of Greene's collection, contemporary documentation, and specially built museum provide an unequaled historical view of a 19th century amateur naturalist. Coincidentally, the Greene Museum uniquely complements the Wagner Free Institute in Philadelphia (designated a National Historic Landmark in 1990), in historical perspective. Whereas the former is the

collection of a single individual, the latter is a museum of a scientific society, thereby representing two of the main forces in 19th century American science.

Although Greene collected many specimens personally, he realized that the poorly-paid quarry workers, who had to pick up every rock by hand, could be transformed into enthusiastic "fossil collectors" simply by paying them a dollar or two for good specimens, which in effect doubled their wages. To further expand his source of specimens, he arranged for quarry operators to work the parts of their quarries where fossils were numerous and "leased" some of their workers for a day of collecting, and he even went so far as to join the board of directors of the largest company operating quarries in the area. Greene also purchased or traded for specimens with other collectors, dealers, and scientists. His efforts exceeded those possible for other collectors, and in only a few years' time Greene assembled the largest collection of fossils from the region. In order to identify the specimens, he began corresponding with prominent professional paleontologists throughout the country, who, in return, requested access to his collection and loans of material for their research.

What would it take to assemble a similar research collection from this area today? The money and time that Greene devoted to his collection might be duplicated with considerable difficulty, but changes in the style and level of quarrying have made it impossible to gather specimens of comparable abundance, diversity or quantity. Now that quarries are heavily mechanized, it is unlikely that workers could be paid to save fossils even if one could afford to double their wages. More importantly, most of the old quarries have disappeared under urban sprawl. Therefore, as in many other fields of natural history, the efforts of pioneer 19th century naturalists cannot be duplicated simply because settlement and urbanization has altered the landscape.

Clearly, Greene's irreplaceable collection has considerable importance historically and scientifically for future research on the geology of Milwaukee and Chicago. It also has much to offer as a research tool addressing questions of fundamental importance to geology and the history of geology. The noted geologist James Hall, for example, was attracted to the region by some of Greene's predecessors, such as Increase A. Lapham and Fisk H. Day. Hall recognized the presence of a fossil reef at the Schoonmaker Quarry in Wauwatosa, Wisconsin, in 1862. This was the first fossil reef recognized in North America. In the 1870s it was a site of classic work by Thomas C. Chamberlin in which he integrated the fields of sedimentology and paleoecology in the study of ancient reefs, and for the first time extended the work on modern reefs by Charles Darwin, James Dana, and others back into the fossil record. These studies along with the extensive efforts of the amateur fossil collectors inspired much related work in the Milwaukee-Chicago area, and for many decades the Milwaukee reefs were textbook examples to which all others were compared.

Modern methodology and new discoveries have resulted in renewed interest in these classic fossil reefs, and Greene's irreplaceable, intact, and comprehensive collection will play a key role in future research. The challenge for the future is to maintain this collection and museum in their original setting as a prime example of an amateur naturalist's historical and continuing contribution to science.

Donald Mikulic is an Associate Geologist at the Illinois State Geological Survey in Champaign, Illinois. Dr. Mikulic received his Ph.D. degree in geology from the University of Wisconsin and has served for many years as a volunteer curator for the Green Geological Museum in Milwaukee, Wisconsin .

Ernest Allen Connally: Le maître des bons mots

John Poppeliers

Thinking back on the nearly 25 years I have known Dr. Ernest Allen Connally—since 1967 when the National Park Service created the Office of Archeology and Historic Preservation (OAHP)—I have tried while drafting this "profile" to find succinct phrases which for me best describe Dr. Connally as a prominent scholar and as one of our preeminent professional historic preservationists on both national and international levels. Finally, I have settled on the one which seems to me the best distillation of the character and the achievements of a long and continuing career—les maitre des bons mots, the master of witticisms.

At first this description seemed frivolous. But after many critical reviews of my list, I believe it best describes the charm and distinction that complement his intellect and his sense of realism and of excellence. For anyone who attempts and achieves much there are critics and detractors. They may exist for Dr. Connally. However, one recalls Benjamin Franklin's epistolary observation: that when you are passing by on the road and see boys throwing rocks at a tree, you know it bears fruit. With this in mind, my article is unabashedly adulatory.

A proud fourth generation Texan who is one of the individuals most responsible for creating a comprehensive national infrastructure for historic preservation, Dr. Connally is now contemplating retirement—at least a partial one. This article is a personal tribute to the man and to his professional achievements. Essentially it is anecdotal. Those who would also welcome detailed biographical information can consult *Who's Who in America* and *Who's Who in the World*, and of course his wife Janice, whom he met while both were graduate students at Harvard University.

After obtaining a B.Arch. from the University of Texas in 1950, a M.A. from Harvard in 1952, and a Harvard Ph.D. (in the history and principles of the fine arts, specializing in the history and principles of architecture) in 1955, Dr. Connally taught the history of architecture from 1952 to 1967 (at Miami University in Ohio; Washington University in St. Louis; and the University of Illinois). Among his students are some of our leading historic preservationists: Russell V. Keune, US/ICOMOS vice president for programs and former senior vice president of the National Trust for Historic Preservation; Donald B. Myer, Commission of Fine Arts' assistant secretary; Lee H. Nelson, former chief of the NPS Preservation Assistance Division; and Professor Robert C. Giebner, College of Architecture at the University of Arizona. Also, his students include some of our leading architectural history scholars: Professor Janice O'Corman at Wellesley College; Professor I.I.G. Gundt at the University of Washington; Professor Slobodan Curcic at Princeton University; and Professor Leland M. Roth at the University of Oregon. Known for his fastidious attire and clarity of exposition, Dr. Connally made an "indelible impression" (to quote Russell Keune) all his lectures were "well researched, precise, and extremely witty and funny." I also recollects—that at the end of the semester of his first architectural history course with Dr. Connally at Illinois—the class rose with a spontaneous ovation.

In 1952, Charles E. Peterson asked Harvard Professor Ernest J. Connally if he had a graduate student who could work on a documentary recording team at Independence National Historical Park. So Dr. Connally's career with the Historic American Buildings Survey started. "Pete" subsequently asked him to supervise other nps recording teams in Greenville, TN (a restoration study for the Andrew Johnson House) in 1950, in Salem, MA (the Custom House) in 1953, and on Cape Cod in 1962. This

association with the Park Service brought contact with prominent Service professionals such as Ronald F. Lee, who was the Nps Regional Director in Philadelphia and a consultant to the "Special Committee on Historic Preservation U.S. Conference of Mayors" (known as the "Rains Committee") which produced the publication *With a Little Help from My Friends: A Report on the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966*—a report which was crucial for the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966.

With the passage of the 1966 Act, the National Park Service received the mandate to develop a comprehensive national program for historic preservation. On the recommendation of Ron Lee and Professor J. O. Brew of Harvard University—an archeologist who served on the Secretary of the Interior's Advisory Board and who had a long and distinguished career in public service on both national and international levels—NPS Director George B. Hartzog, Jr. appointed Dr. Connally in 1967 to head the newly created OAHP. For 13 years, first as director of OAHP and later as a NPS associate director, he was the highest Federal official specifically charged with the direction of national preservation programs. Those were the formative years for the expansion of the National Register, the establishment of the grants-in-aid program, the development of the Section 106 process, the creation of the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers, and the realization of other laws and an Executive Order to provide a more effectively coordinated federal program. Our present NPS associate director, Jerry L. Rogers, refers to Dr. Connally as "the one who molded a national preservation program" and who did so "by fully participating in it, not only by managing subordinates." An example he gives is Dr. Connally's word-by-word evaluation of criteria for nomination to the National Register. He would later do the same fastidious examination of criteria for nominations to the World Heritage List.

In the 1970s, there was an increasing U.S. involvement in international cooperation in historic preservation. A participant in a number of international conferences, Dr. Connally served as a member of the "US/ USSR Joint Working Group on the Urban Environment" and was responsible for sending American preservation teams on study missions to the Soviet Union. He was the first American to serve on the executive board of the Rome-based International Centre for the Study of the Preservation and the Restoration of Cultural Property (ICCROM). And he was the second secretary-general of the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS). In that position (from 1975 to 1981)—which the National Park Service generously supported, as it did Ann Webster Smith who served as the Paris-based deputy of the ICOMOS secretary-general from 1975 to 1979—he played a critical role in the development of criteria and procedures for implementation of the World Heritage Convention. Recalling these years, Ann Webster Smith refers to the way Dr. Connally "was especially good in bringing order into ICOMOS affairs" and to the "thoughtful way he treated people who worked for him." No faint praise.

Since 1982, Dr. Connally has been the NPS chief appeals officer, responsible for final decisions regarding certification of historic structures for Federal tax purposes. H. Ward Jandl, chief of the NPS Technical Preservation Services Branch, which provides Dr. Connally with staff support during the appeals process, regards his "decision letters as really amazing—he has crafted them into mini-architectural essays." Russ Keune takes this even a step further: these decision letters "are one of the most substantial bodies of documentation of preservation philosophies, techniques, and values that exist in the United States today. They are wonderful and eloquent." Pas mal!

The decision of NPS associate director for cultural resources, Jerry Rogers, and *CRM* editor, Ron Greenberg, to include this tribute to Dr. Connally—which is a decided departure from this bulletin's basic purpose to disseminate technical preservation information—seems most appropriate, for we should acknowledge before his retirement the role of the man who made this dissemination possible.

Dr. Poppeliers is an architectural historian who was the chief of the Historic American Buildings Survey from 1972 to 1980. Now NPS International Liaison Officer for Cultural Resources, he was in charge of UNESCO's International Campaigns for Safeguarding Monuments and Sites and for conservation training from 1980 to 1986.

The Southern Stucco Tradition

Anne E. Grimmer

Beginning in the latter part of the 18th century and generally continuing up until around the Civil War, Charleston, Savannah, Mobile and New Orleans were all important cosmopolitan centers in the south. Charleston, in fact, held a place equal in significance to Boston, New York and Philadelphia. As major ports, and centers of the cotton trade, each of these cities was subject to a variety of cultural and stylistic influences from other American cities as well as Europe and the Caribbean. Because of their trade with the islands and their physical proximity, these southern cities were a natural choice for immigrants from the islands. The climate was mild, in some cases almost semi-tropical, good for a business such as growing cotton, and also suited to a lifestyle more like that of the West Indian colonies than northern cities in Colonial America. And, it is perhaps as a result of these similarities, that these four southern coastal cities have a common bond in the prevalence of 18th and 19th century historic stucco buildings.

Early Building Methods

In the earliest days of the American colonies when these areas were being settled, the first shelters or buildings were, of necessity, rather crude, simple, temporary and short-lived structures. Locally available building materials put together using construction techniques adapted from those of the settlers' native lands resulted in uniquely American structures, albeit with European overtones.

In South Carolina and Georgia many of the 17th and 18th century colonists that settled Charleston and Savannah came from England, while others arrived indirectly from England via the West Indies, and, in particular, from Barbados which was already overpopulated with European colonists by the late 17th century. The earliest European settlers of Mobile and New Orleans included some English, but the majority were from France and Spain, which at various times controlled the territories that included the modern states of Louisiana and Alabama. Additional Spanish and French colonial influences arrived in these cities via the island of Santo Domingo, or Haiti.

Many of the Spanish and French building traditions brought to New Orleans and Mobile were similar to those employed by the English colonists in Savannah and Charleston. One such building tradition in particular was post and beam construction. This is a sort of half-timbering with mud, clay, rocks, or brick infill, referred to as "timber-frame" by the Anglicans and "briquelette entre poteaux" or "columbage et mortier" by the French (see photo 1). The entire structure could be covered with "plaster" or stucco, or sometimes just the brick or composite infill was plastered over in much the same manner as half-timbered structures were finished in Europe. Even simpler, wattle and daub structures such as the first Anglican church erected in Savannah in 1740 were also covered with "strong cement and set in imitation of stonework." Stucco was generally applied to these early structures as a coating to protect the substrate.

But the majority of the very early settlements were of wood, and consequently victim to the fires that ravaged these cities with such regularity. The city of Charleston, for example, was swept by so many devastating fires in the 18th century that no structures remain that were built before 1740. Savannah, too, suffered a major fire in 1796, and again in 1820. Most of the important public and private buildings of Mobile were destroyed by two fires in 1839, and New Orleans was scarred by fires in 1788 and 1794. As a result of the 1794 fire, in an attempt to prevent future fires of this magnitude, the Spanish authorities in New Orleans enacted a law in 1795 requiring that all new houses within the central fortified area of the city be constructed of brick, or of timber frame filled with brick ("briquelette entre poteaux"), and coated with cement or lime 1" thick. This law was

undoubtedly responsible at least in part for an increase in the numbers of stucco buildings in New Orleans in the late 18th and early 19th century.

European Architectural Traditions

Current European architectural trends which espoused the use of stucco as an exterior coating played a major role in establishing its use in the South. In 18th century England, for example, the use of scored or lined stucco to simulate stone was so popular that public outcry often resulted if newly constructed brick buildings of prominence were not stuccoed upon completion. Of these four cities, probably Charleston and New Orleans had the earliest tradition of using stucco for public buildings, as well as for residential structures. English styles dominated the design of Charleston's buildings, and French and Spanish styles flavored the architecture of New Orleans. These foreign influences also came by way of island colonies in the West Indies. While a stucco coating was undoubtedly necessary to protect and preserve some of the earliest handmade bricks as well as the wood, it appears that most 18th and 19th century buildings were stuccoed, and then scored to simulate finely cut and dressed stone primarily because of fashion.

In Charleston, St. Philip's Church was constructed from 1711-1723 with elegant classical proportions based on English stylebooks (photo 2). It marked the arrival of academic architecture in South Carolina, and although the church was damaged and nearly destroyed by fire a number of times, it was always rebuilt in stucco. At almost the same time, another church was also built of brick and stucco, but of quite a different style near Charleston at Goose Creek. St. James Church (1708-1719), with its jerkinhead roof and classical decorations in molded stucco, was built by cotton planters from Barbados and reflects the interpretation of a European style with island influences.

During the period 1700-1740, the population of Charleston doubled, and it was consequently a time of much construction. By the 1750s many important public buildings were being constructed of brick and stucco. This included the State House in 1756, and another important church, St. Michaels (1751), built according to a design by the English architect James Gibbs selected from his "Book of Architecture" published in London in 1728.

Although architectural tastes began to shift at the beginning of the 19th century to a preference for the Federal style, in Charleston stucco continued to be a popular finish for public and private buildings. In fact, if anything, the popularity of stucco in Charleston and indeed in Savannah, Mobile, and New Orleans too, reached its peak in the early decades of the 19th century. Reason for this can most likely be found in the influences of English Regency architecture, which in America became translated into the Federal style, and the influx of English architects, and of English-influenced American architects into these four southern cities.

19th Century Savannah

The importance of stucco as a historic exterior finish treatment in Savannah was primarily the result of the influence of one English architect, William Jay. Jay, who arrived in Savannah in 1817, had been introduced into Georgia society by his sister who married into a prominent local family. Influenced by the work of Sir John Soane and John Nash in his native Bath, both of whom favored colored stucco as an exterior surface coating, Jay brought with him to Savannah this architectural fashion of scored stucco that was so popular in England at the time. Although he did not remain in the U.S. long, Jay's work had a significant influence on the architecture of Savannah where he designed a number of important buildings, and possibly also in Charleston.

The Richardson-Owens-Thomas House (1816-1819) was the first building designed by Jay in Savannah. It was most likely designed while Jay was still in England, as its construction was begun before he arrived in Savannah. The very Regency nature of the house is reflected in its design and composition, even in the make-up of the stucco itself which recent analysis has revealed to be a type of natural cement or "Roman cement" discovered and patented in England by James Parker in 1796. Since natural cements had not yet been discovered in America, the cement was apparently shipped to Savannah from England.

Other notable buildings in Savannah, all with stuccoed exteriors, designed by Jay during the next several years were more transitional in style, transcending to Federal. They include the 1819 Scarbrough House (photo 3), and the 1820 Telfair Academy, with a third story added in the 1880s (photo 4). The Wayne-Gordon House, the birthplace of Juliette Gordon Low, founder of the Girl Scouts of America, is another important stucco building in Savannah designed much in the same style as the houses by Jay (photo 5). Constructed in 1820, with a third story added in 1886, the Wayne-Gordon House has traditionally been attributed to Jay, but it is now thought to be the work of a local architect influenced by Jay's work. Another important, although no longer extant, stucco building designed by Jay in Savannah was the Bank of the United States (1820-21). Verging more toward the Greek Revival style then just coming into vogue, the Bank may have bridged the transition from Regency/Federal to the Greek Revival style in Savannah. (Another British-born architect, Charles B. Cluskey, who came to Savannah from Ireland about 1829, was also influential in promoting the use of stucco, and became one of Georgia's best Greek Revival architects.)

In Savannah, stucco continued to be widely used during the Greek Revival period for public buildings, churches and smaller residential structures, as well as for many of the other revival styles that ensued, including the Gothic Revival, Italianate and Tuscan villa styles (photo 6).

19th Century Charleston

In Charleston, stucco had been a popular finish material since the early 18th century, and its use continued in the early years of the 19th century, but its popularity peaked again with the construction in 1822 of Robert Mills' Public Records Office, Fireproof Building (photo 7). The use of stucco on this important building was as much an effort to make the building "fireproof," as it was likely to have been a result of Mills' training with Benjamin Henry Latrobe for whom stucco had been a favorite exterior surface coating since his architectural training in England.

The popularity of stucco in Charleston peaked again with the advent of the Gothic Revival and Greek Revival styles. The Gothic-style stuccoed Marine Hospital, also designed by Mills, was built in 1831. When the Hibernian Society Building, designed by Thomas U. Walter, one of the architects of the U.S. Capitol, was constructed in 1835, it marked the beginning of the Greek Revival style in Charleston (photo 8). The 1840 Market Hall, a National Historic Landmark and one of the city's most familiar stucco buildings, is an example of another of the revival styles—in this case, Roman Revival.

As in other cities, the popularity of stucco resulted in many existing brick buildings being stuccoed during the first half of the 19th century (photo 9). In addition, in Charleston, existing buildings were stuccoed after the 1886 earthquake which resulted in enactment of a law requiring that buildings considered to be unsound be stuccoed. Buildings, such as Gabriel Manigault's 1801 Bank of the United States, now the City Hall, were stuccoed, either completely or partially, apparently to hide unsightly repairs and cracks caused by the earthquake, and to conceal the earthquake bolts installed to stabilize many of the buildings. Residential structures too, were stuccoed after this earthquake, either in their entirety, or on one or two elevations.

19th Century New Orleans

New Orleans architecture evolved out of a long-standing French and Spanish tradition of using stucco that endured through these two countries' many years of alternating rule there. The early architecture of New Orleans was variously described as having a "French provincial character," or as "Creole," from the island of Santo Domingo, with its Spanish and French influences. Stucco was part of the architectural tradition of the French and Spanish architects and engineers who came to New Orleans during the late 18th and early 19th centuries. This immigration included a number of French and Spanish-born architects from Santo Domingo, including J.N.B. DePouilly and Arsene Lacarriere Latour, who also transported the French and Spanish architectural traditions flavored with Colonial influences.

The Ursuline Convent on Chartres Street was first built in 1734, and stuccoed again when rebuilt about 1751 (photo 10). It is clearly French, or French provincial, in form and design, and in fact, may be the only French building that remains in the Vieux Carre. But two other important stucco buildings in the Vieux Carre, the Cabildo (1795-99), designed by Gilberto Guillanard, and the Presbytere (1813), a near copy of a 1781 Royal Palace in Mexico, on either side of the St. Louis Cathedral on Jackson Square are more Spanish colonial in style (photo 11).

As a result of a disastrous fire in 1794, Spanish authorities ruled that all new houses within the central fortified area of New Orleans be constructed of brick or, if of timber frame filled with brick and "coated with cement or lime 1 inch thick." This 1795 law clearly played a role in furthering the use of stucco.

Stucco buildings in New Orleans continued to multiply in the early decades of the 19th century. As in Charleston and Savannah, this increase resulted from the arrival of a number of English-born and English-influenced architects, beginning most significantly with Benjamin Henry Latrobe. When Latrobe, who had been named as Surveyor of Public Buildings in Washington, arrived in New Orleans in 1819, he noted in his diaries an already existing abundance of stuccoed building facades. Like Jay, his predilection for stucco as a building material stemmed from architectural training in Regency England where stucco was the exterior finish coat of choice for brick buildings. Despite his short time in New Orleans—he died of yellow fever nine months after his arrival—Latrobe had a notable impact on New Orleans' architecture. Perhaps most significant was the stuccoed Louisiana State Bank (1820-22), built according to his designs but after his death (photo 12).

Perhaps an even greater force in furthering New Orleans' stucco tradition in the 1830s was the work of the architect James Gallier. Gallier was trained in his native Ireland and in England, and came to New Orleans in 1834 after working in New York and Boston. His son, James Gallier, Jr., also made his mark on New Orleans architecture, in partnership with James and Charles Dakin, American architects who had worked with the firm of Ithiel Town and A.J. Davis in New York. The Dakins' architecture tended to favor stucco finishes reflecting the English Regency style, and the incipient Greek Revival style, which also favored the use of stucco. A good example of the Greek Revival buildings that followed is the stuccoed New Orleans Mint, built 1835-38, and designed by William Strickland.

In New Orleans, stucco endured as a popular building material throughout the 19th century for all types of structures including this mid-19th century residence in the Lower Garden District (photo 13).

19th Century Mobile

Although settled somewhat later, Mobile experienced much of the same kind of settlement patterns as New Orleans as part of the Louisiana Purchase territory. Like New

Orleans, its governance alternated among various foreign powers until finally assumed by the United States in 1813. French settlements were first established at Mobile in 1711. The British ruled through the 1760s and 1770s until the Spanish took control from 1780-1813. As a consequence, Mobile's early architecture, like that of New Orleans, reflected this diversity.

However, before the 19th century Mobile was not a very prosperous town, and, until the Americans took over in 1813, most of the buildings were simple wood houses. It was not until the 1830s, when Mobile became second only to New Orleans as a cotton port that there was a need for important or monumental buildings. This demand occasioned the arrival of the Dakin Brothers and James Gallier from New Orleans whose Greek Revival-styled stucco buildings had put a fashionable appearance on New Orleans. During the 1830s, this firm designed some of Mobile's most notable stuccoed Greek Revival buildings. These include the Barton Academy (1835-37) and the Government Street Presbyterian Church (1836-37). Both of these structures are of stuccoed brick, and the Government Street Church is probably one of the firm's greatest architectural successes (photo 14). The Dakins may have also been responsible for the design of another important stucco church in Mobile, the (1838-40) Christ Episcopal Church, which bears many similarities on the exterior to the Government Street Church. Although the Dakins designed and built a number of other important stucco buildings in Mobile, most of them were lost in two fires only weeks apart that ravaged the city in 1839. Partly as a consequence of these fires, the Dakins left Mobile and returned to New Orleans in 1839, but stucco continued to be a popular building material in Mobile for such public buildings as the U.S. Marine Hospital (1839-42) and the City Hall and Southern Market (1856-57) (photo 15). In fact, it appears that most of the major public as well as private structures in antebellum Mobile were stuccoed, including residences such as the 1854 Carter House (photo 16).

Stucco Color and Finish

With the exception of the stucco on the RichardsonOwens-Thomas House (1816-1819) in Savannah which is composed of "Roman Cement," an early English natural cement, early 18th and 19th century stucco in all of these cities consisted primarily of soft lime, sand, and often clay, with animal hair usually providing a binder for the scratch and brown coats. Of course, there were innumerable variations on this basic mix within each city and from city to city depending on locally available materials. Being coastal cities, crushed oyster shell was commonly found in most stuccos. Lime was often hydrated or slaked, and used in the form of lime putty or hydraulic lime. American natural cements, which contained a large percentage of clay that made them hydraulic, were apparently first used in some of these cities as early as the second decade of the 19th century in Charleston and also Savannah. But for the most part, American natural cements were not in common use in these cities until somewhat later in the century.

While remnants of original lime and natural cement stuccos can be found on some buildings in these cities obviously the great majority of stuccoed buildings have been patched, or totally recoated with modern portland cement-based stucco. The stuccoed surfaces of most of the high-style, and public buildings in these cities were originally scored to resemble masonry units. The stucco was either incised, or lined with white lime or a black-pigmented powder, but over the years as they have been patched and restuccoed, many of them have lost their scoring. Stucco was also used decoratively to create cast or molded details, such as decorative quoins and banding. But scoring may not have been so typical for many of the early, smaller residential buildings, such as the one or one-and-one-half story Creole cottages in New Orleans' Vieux Carre, or similar houses in the other cities (photo 17). Scored stucco appears to have become more popular for some of these smaller residential buildings later in the 19th century, around the 1840s, with the introduction of more sophisticated architectural styles of that period.

The color of these early stuccos was often tinted by the sand or clay they contained, and also by crushed brick which gave it a pinkish tone, or by the addition of mineral pigments. In New Orleans, when Benjamin Henry Latrobe arrived in 1819, he noted in his diary that the stuccoed buildings were "painted in white or yellow," and other early reports observed the extensive use of pastel colored stucco such as pale blue, apricot or peach, yellow, and light green. These were attributed to being colors favored by the early Spanish and French inhabitants. While apricot and yellow tints could have been created by a combination of colored clays and sand in the stucco mix, or ochre color washes, pale blue or green probably resulted from mineral pigmented color washes. Hand-colored drawings done in the mid-19th century that are part of New Orleans Notarial Archives confirm the existence of these colors on stucco houses, as well as light greys, beiges, yellow ochres, pinks, and dark brick red. The then newly-built U.S. Mint was described in an 1838 guidebook as "painted to imitate granite," and later in 1851 as a "compact brown" building. Yet, when it was restored in 1980, the color chosen for the stucco was a dark red, reproducing a later 19th century color scheme which decorated the Mint around the turn of the century. Some early to mid-19th century stuccoed public buildings were also decoratively painted and stained to resemble marble or granite. Like New Orleans, the colors of early stucco buildings in the other cities also reflected some Caribbean influences, but probably to a lesser extent. The majority of stucco buildings were more likely tinted in more natural earthy tones of soft greys and browns. Natural cements, which became popular in these cities in the second quarter of the 19th century, tended to be quite dark grey or brownish, in part because of their relatively high clay content, which imparted to the stucco a distinctive stonelike color.

Fashion and Versatility

It is important to note that in all of these southern cities during the numerous romantic revivals of the 19th century, the popularity of stucco reached such magnitude that previously plain brick buildings were stuccoed in an effort to keep up with architectural fashion. In the 20th century brick buildings have frequently been stripped of their original, historic stucco due in part to modern styles and misconceptions about the significance of stucco as a historic exterior coating (photo 18). Many historic buildings, and residential structures in particular, that are constructed of brick exhibit a partial use of stucco. Sometimes the primary street facade is stuccoed, and the sides left exposed brick, sometimes the opposite is true, and sometimes only the foundation, or first story is stuccoed (photos 19 & 20). Undoubtedly, many buildings in these cities were stuccoed to cover repairs, or because the bricks were of poor quality and needed a stucco coating for protection. Stucco was, and is, an inexpensive material, and for minimal cost, a coat of stucco could give the impression of finely-dressed stonework. Yet, it appears that the immense popularity of stucco as an exterior finish treatment in Charleston, Savannah, New Orleans and Mobile in the late 18th century and through much of the 19th century was primarily the result of the influence of European architectural tradition and fashion, combined with the versatility of stucco and its compatibility with the lifestyle and climate of these

Of Places and People Reflections on the Quincentenary

Charles W. Polzer, S.J.

The only thing harder than pronouncing "Quincentenary" is understanding it. A kind of compulsion about 1992 has sprung up in Europe and the Americas which insists on celebrations and commemorations. Not everyone, however, is sold on the significance or value of Columbus voyages of discovery. In fact, many people are just plain opposed. At the root of the opposition is usually an intense grasp of some aspect of the Quincentenary and a shallow understanding of that overall concept—which is itself understandable because the event is so vast and all encompassing.

Was Columbus Spaniard or Italian? Christian or Jew? Was he the first to reach the shores of the Indies? Or was he beaten to the punch by Leif Erickson and Barry Fell's wandering Celts? How could Columbus have discovered the Americas? They were already there.... And so the chorus repeats itself almost every time "Quincentenary" is mentioned. Platoons of park rangers will soon be asked to answer these kinds of questions as 1992 draws closer.

The Quincentenary involves all these issues in one way or another, but if it really means anything, it commemorates the epoch when the Old World discovered it was not the center of civilization. Although scholars may not have recognized the dimensions of the discovery at first, the "New" World was not just another world, but the whole world was revealed. It was all event for which almost no one was culturally prepared because the puny concepts of conquest that held suited continental empires were now applied in managing explosive world expansion. Surprisingly, no European felt absurd while implanting a regal banner in the sand as resident natives looked on, listening to unintelligible sounds that proclaimed possession of the land in the name of a distant monarch. No one is ever going to be able to rectify those individual happenings or global misconceptions.

The landfall of Columbus in 1492 and his successful return to Europe, in 1493 put in motion a long series of events that would become the history of the Americas. To understand the Quincentenary is to understand the Americas and their role in world history. The debate over diaries and navigation pales before the human issues of the encounter of peoples and the policies of nations.

Although the National Park Service is primarily seen by people as the custodian of places both natural and historic, the major task for the National Park Service during the Quincentenary will be the intelligent and well-grounded interpretation of peoples more than places. The historic WCLts of discovery and encounter were quickly followed by those of conquest and exploitation. The role of Native Americans in the unfolding of American history is fundamental to the Quincentenary. And one need not concentrate only on the unfortunate aspects of that encounter i.e., the decimation of populations by disease and the displacement of peoples. As Americans we need to celebrate the high points of their cultural achievement which is probably best done in terms of understanding Mesoamerica and northern South America.

The National Park Service holds a unique advantage inasmuch as its commitment to preserving the natural environment resonates with Native American concern for the sanctity of the land and life in nature. In other words, the Service is already in basic harmony with these aspects of American history.

Another neglected aspect of American history is the centuries long presence of Spain in the Americas, especially North America. Within 50 years of Columbus' voyages of discovery, Spanish land expeditions were probing deep into the continent still trying to find mythical cities and fabled wealth. The Native Americans were profoundly affected by the

influence of these explorers and their efforts to incorporate the new lands and peoples into an expanding empire. Although subsequent waves of northern European immigrants overwhelmed the material evidence of Spanish occupation, the memory of their presence persists. For all of us, the descendants of residents and immigrants alike, we are reminded that the Americas, perhaps more than any area on earth, have been the laboratory for social pluralism. We are still caught up in that dynamic of the encounter of peoples and their encounter with the land.

The Quincentenary will call on each of US to exercise our minds in a lot of history which is unfamiliar. It demands that we recast many of our basic concepts because, like the Europeans who were content with their puny concept of conquest, we are still misshapened by narrow, restrictive ideas incapable of containing the greatness of the Americas. None of us can afford the poverty of ethnocentricity when the magnitude of this event calls for the rich diversity of pluralism. We must let the Quincentenary sensitize us to accept the risks of our own future in much the same way as Columbus accepted the risk of discovery.

The National Park Service enjoys an enviable and almost unique position in service to the Quincentenary and America. The hundreds of thousands of citizens who visit our national parks can be brought into knowledgeable contact with the pluralist origins of our societies. They can be shown the physical evidences of previous civilizations and cultures. There is a place for Native American, Spanish, French, English, Italian, Black, and Asian. We have come from all directions during all centuries to make the Americas what they are today. The task of discovery is incomplete because we have only come to know the land and not necessarily its peoples. Too often the exploitation of the land has been achieved at unacceptable human costs. Only now, halfway to the millennial anniversary of the discovery of the world, are we beginning to realize the urgent need for cultural preservation in the context of a dynamic pluralism.

If the Quincentenary has any significance, it is the future that is yet to be shaped by the dynamics of discovery, now more of peoples than places. We need to know and express pride in each other and in what we have accomplished alone and together. We need to forgive each other our excesses and to forget our rationalizations for vengeance. We need to remember the landscapes unspoiled and the peoples untrammelled. We need to know and respect each other because we are all part of that unfolding dynamic which discovered America and brought all of us in the world into undreamed encounter.

Dr. Charles Polzer, S.J., is the curator of ethnohistory at the University of Arizona, and a U. S. senate-nominated member of the Christopher Columbus Quincentenary Jubilee Commission.

The Quincentennial Parks and Native Americans

Laura J. Feller

Some say that history gets written from the point of view of the "winners." Much NPS historical interpretation over the years has been done from the point of view of people steeped in European-American traditions and deeply interested in political and military history. The 500th anniversary of Columbus' voyages gives us in the NPS opportunities to take a more multi-faceted, comprehensive approach to history, and to reflect on the nature of Indian-white relations. We can offer park visitors fresh perspectives on this complex aspect of our shared historical heritage.

Christopher Columbus' voyages began an era of cultural, economic, social, and political exchanges that continues with resounding impact to this day. It has involved conflicts, bloody and otherwise, alliances, evolutionary and sudden change, new trade networks, cultural borrowing, maintenance of traditions and resistance to change in the face of great pressure, and, sometimes, significant areas of interdependence. It has shaped not only life in the Americas, but also world history. Within the National Park System are a variety of historic sites where we can tell the public about, and preserve evidence of, these processes.

As with any world-shaping set of events, the post-Columbus era has different meanings for different peoples. To understand and appreciate it, we must try to explore it from a variety of perspectives, including some diametrically opposed points of view. The continuing processes of exchange and conflict between Native Americans and newcomers to the continent are of course, a key to this. These are also processes that many Americans understand only dimly.

For many years, the history of Indian-white relations has been presented in standard textbooks and in the mass media only in the broadest generalizations, without recognition of the complexity and diversity of the Native American societies involved. Images of Indians derived from stereotypes and myth-making processes of the earliest Europeans still abound. Symbols derived from these myths have a powerful hold on the white imagination, from Daniel Boone, Natty Bumppo, George Armstrong Custer and Tonto, to the cigar-store Indian and the Washington Redskins football team.

Contributing to this limited and limiting vision is the emphasis, in European tradition, on certain technologies and on political centralization as major measures of cultural achievement. If you use these yardsticks exclusively, you may be blinded to the richness and complexity of the cultural heritage and social systems of Native American groups in North America.

Because whites have tended to view Native American groups only based on their own cultural, social, and economic frame of reference, even today the persistent tendency in white popular media is to categorize Native Americans in terms of two stereotyped sets of images. Broadly speaking, American Indians are portrayed as violent, fierce, and vengeful, or they are romanticized as the "noble savage," perfectly in tune with nature and the tenets of the modern conservation movement. These images reflect very complex clusters of stereotypes and myths, deeply rooted in European reactions to the natural and cultural environment of North America. They are an integral part of a frontier mythology that stems from initial English encounters with nature and Native Americans on the Atlantic coast. They reveal much about European-American belief systems and nothing about Native American societies and cultures.

The Quincentenary vocabulary reflects and contributes to these stereotypical images. Some of the language we use derives from, and impedes critical analysis of, these potent

myths. It adds to the barriers to understanding the encounter touched off by Columbus' voyages. For example, to talk about Columbus' "discovery" of a "New World" is to imply that Columbus reached an uninhabited region. As Father Polzer points out, Europeans were seeing the whole world newly revealed. All of us live in a world vastly changed—and in that sense "new"—as a result of the encounter of Europeans, Africans, and Native Americans in the Western Hemisphere. It is also true, though, that the results of this revelation are still being assimilated and have not always been well understood. As a cliché, "New World" suggests that European antiquity is somehow our only real heritage. Even the word "exploration," defined in the dictionary as "investigation of unknown regions," obscures the fact that regions unknown to Europeans were not unknown to Native American communities. The words "settlement" and "settlers" are often used to refer only to Americans of European or African descent, ignoring the land-use patterns and community structures of Native Americans. When we talk about "westward expansion," we are emphasizing the expansion of the predominantly English-speaking society of the young United States, and neglecting the realities of Hispanic, French, and Native American social and political organization in North America.

Some Native Americans, understandably, believe that the upcoming Quincentennial will be more of the same. It will, in their view, merely reinforce old and vicious stereotypes, and reaffirm racist and inaccurate assumptions about the histories and heritage of Native American groups.

Nonetheless, the National Park System includes sites that evidence the multifaceted history of Indianwhite relations. During the upcoming Quincentenary years, these can provide effective tools for giving visitors new perspectives on that history and on the varied and complex cultures that flourished in North America when the first Europeans arrived here. Most visitors know that Native American communities remain an important part of the cultural mix that makes us what we are today. NPS sites can give them new points of view on the mass-produced images of Native Americans that bombard them in the media. They can introduce visitors to aspects of history that they may not have encountered in their school days.

Most important, from the point of view of reaching the public, will be interpretive programs in parks. Servicewide Quincentennial programming has focused primarily on Spanish Colonial-era sites. It is impossible, at most of those sites, to present a balanced picture of the Spanish Colonial period without discussing the interaction of Hispanic and Native American peoples. Some examples of sites where facets of the "encounter of two worlds" can be interpreted are:

Biscayne National Park, Florida

The Tequesta were a strong presence here when the Spanish came to the Biscayne area. The existence of the Spanish may have been a factor for political consolidation among them, and Spanish goods, acquired through trade or from coastal shipwrecks, became part of their material culture. The Spanish attempted to establish a mission north of the presentday park in the latter half of the 16th century, but abandoned it because the Tequesta were hostile to it. By the mid-17th century, though, the Tequesta were experiencing a decline, in which introduced diseases and Creek raids were contributing factors.

Fort Caroline National Memorial, Florida

Established by the French in 1564, the fort was built with the help of neighboring Native American groups. Conflicts between the French and the Timucua Indians soon developed, but the ultimate destruction of the fort came at the hands of a Spanish force from Castillo de San Marcos.

Natchez Trace National Parkway, Alabama, Tennessee, and Mississippi

The Natchez Trace began as a avenue of trade for Native American groups, and was also used for trade and military ventures by the Spanish and French.

De Soto National Memorial, Florida

Hernan de Soto's expedition, the first extensive venture by Europeans into what is now the southern United States, marked the first contact between Europeans and many Native American Groups of the region.

Christiansted National Historic Site, Virgin Islands

Near Christiansted National Historic Site is a site associated with Columbus' arrival at St. Croix during his second voyage. A party of Columbus' men, returning from a venture ashore, attacked a group of Caribs in a canoe. This encounter is believed to be the first recorded armed conflict between Europeans and Native Americans. The site has yielded and still contains archeological evidence of extensive occupation by prehistoric peoples on St. Croix (pre-Taino, Taino, and—by virtue of documentation—Carib).

St. Croix also played a role in European-Native American relations after Columbus' voyage. Juan Ponce de Leon, first Governor of Puerto Rico, made a treaty with the Caribs on St. Croix in 1509, with the intention of securing their goodwill and cooperation in providing agricultural produce. The treaty was breached by the Spanish shortly thereafter, when a Spanish ship's crew captured and enslaved a number of Caribs living on the island. Subsequently, the Carib waged war against the Spanish throughout the Antilles. The Spanish in turn attacked Carib settlements on St. Croix, leading to the gradual abandonment of the island by 1600.

Amistad National Recreational Area, Texas

Within the park, which lies on the U.S.-Mexico border, are archeological sites representing occupation of the area from approximately 8,000 BC up to the time of the first Spanish expeditions here. A wealth of pictographs includes historic ones that depict missions, horses, and people wearing European-style clothing.

Arkansas Post National Memorial, Arkansas

The Arkansas Post National Memorial commemorates the establishment by the French in ~686 of a post intended to provide a vital link between the Illinois country and the Gulf Coast, and to provide for trade with Indian groups of the Arkansas country. After the transfer of Louisiana to Spain, the post served the Spanish as a point of contact with American Indian allies in the economic and political struggle for control of the lower Mississippi Valley.

Big Bend National Park, Texas

When Cabeza de Vaca traveled in the Big Bend vicinity, the area was controlled by groups known to the Spanish as the Chisos. No Spanish settlements were established in the present-day park area, but conflict developed between the Chisos and Spanish as Spanish settlement in the region grew. As a result, the Spanish subdued the Chisos, and Apache groups then began to dominate the Big Bend.

Padre Island National Seashore, Texas

The Spanish attempted to convert and control the Coalhuitecans and the Karankawas, groups believed to have occupied the island seasonally, through the establishment of missions such as San Antonio de Bexar. By 1821, the Coalhuitecans had all but disappeared from Texas due largely to warfare with the Lipan Apache. After years of bloody hostilities between the Karankawa and Anglo-Americans, the Karankawa had all but vanished by 1846.

Pecos National Historical Park, Pecos, New Mexico

Long a center of trade between pueblos and plains because of its location, this was among the largest of the pueblos in 1540, when Francisco Vasquez de Coronado's

expedition entered present-day New Mexico. Spanish efforts to Christianize the residents of Pecos began in earnest around 1617. Today, the existing ruins of churches and pueblo testify both to the long and complex history of cultural exchanges here and to the strength and continuity of the pueblo before it was finally abandoned in the 19th century. Disease, raids by groups of Comanche and Apache, and growing pressure by the Hispanic population on the area's land and water resources were factors in this abandonment.

Salinas Pueblo Missions National Monument, New Mexico The park includes the ruins of three pueblos in the Salinas Valley, and remains of the missions established by the Spanish at each of them. Thriving communities at the time of the Spanish entry into New Mexico, each of the pueblos was abandoned in the 1670s, following years of cultural and economic change, raids by Apache groups, drought, and epidemics of introduced European diseases.

San Antonio Missions National Historical Park, Texas Here, the Concepcion, San Jose, San Juan, and Espada Missions stand in testimony to Spanish efforts to inculcate their religion among the Coahuiltecan and other Indian groups of this area, and to extend their political dominion. Established in the early 18th century, today they still serve congregations for worship and other community purposes.

Channel Islands National Park, off the coast of South

California (Anacapa, San Miguel, Santa Barbara, Santa Cruz, and Santa Rosa islands) The arrival of the Spanish had a profound impact on the Island Chumash, though they maintained their institutions longer than did some mainland groups. The majority of the Island Chumash migrated from the islands, many of them absorbed into Spanish mission communities, around 1814-16. Changes in their exchange system and drought were probably contributing factors in this migration.

Coronado National Memorial, Arizona

The expedition of Francisco Vasquez de Coronado marked the first intensive contacts between the Spanish and peoples native to the Rio Grande Valley. Pueblo groups resisted Coronado's demands for food and provisions for his men, resulting in bloody hostilities.

Tumacacori National Historical Park, Arizona

The Tumacacori mission was in the northern end of the chain of missions established to further Spanish religious, economic, and political influence in the Sonoran region. Tumacacori was designated a *visita* of a mission established among the Pima in 1701, and was also a center for Papago settlement. After the mission was secularized, Tumacacori's Papago residents remained until Apache raids forced them to depart, in 1848.

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NPS Spanish Colonial Heritage Symposia in San Antonio

Arthur R. Gomez

"You have gathered together more experts on the Spanish missions of America than have heretofore ever been assembled," noted Charles Polzer, S.J., in acknowledging the National Park Service symposium held in San Antonio, TX, last November. Father Polzer delivered a stirring keynote address before an enthusiastic assembly of academicians, government employees, and other devotees of Spanish colonial history. He noted further that the quality of the papers presented, and the responses they generated among the more than 300 people in attendance, clearly indicated that the field of mission history has evolved beyond the confines of triumphalism and polemical analyses evidenced in much of the scholarship published during previous decades.

Father Polzer's observations, however, were not to suggest that the conference failed to stimulate a spirited intellectual exchange between presenters and participants. Indeed, the variety of topics, ranging from comparative mission architecture in Texas and New Mexico to archeological excavations in California and Florida, evoked thoughtful—and on occasion emotional—responses from the diverse, well-informed audience. One session, in which a descendant of a California Indian tribe focused on resistance patterns among mission neophytes, drew strenuous challenges from several Franciscans. During the course of the symposium 32 scholars, representing the southwest and southeast regions of the United States, discussed and analyzed virtually every facet of the missionary experience on the northernmost frontier of Spain's colonial empire. According to Father Polzer, the missions were depicted as "cardiograms of western history" that recorded the moments of stress and relief in the cycles of social life.

This 1990 symposium was the first in a series of three on the Spanish colonial heritage. "The goal of these symposia is to encourage new research," commented Bob Amdor, superintendent of the San Antonio Missions National Historical Park. "What we heard presented today is on the cutting edge of the most up-to-date academic scholarship in the field," he said with notable satisfaction. The National Park Service cohosted the event with Los Compadres de San Antonio Missions, the park's active and vitally supportive friends organization. "The Spanish Missionary Heritage of the United States" was the first of the three that the Federal agency proposes to sponsor in San Antonio in conjunction with the Columbus Quincentennial observance. (The published proceedings should be available at the second symposium in November 1991.) Each of the three conferences has received official National Park Service endorsement from Washington and the Southwest Regional Office in Santa Fe, in addition to the recognition of the Christopher Columbus Quincentenary Jubilee Commission.

One disappointing note, however, was the relatively poor attendance of National Park Service personnel. Less than 10% of the attendees at the symposium were Service employees, despite the fact that Southwest Regional Director John Cook authorized the fall event as a Servicewide training program. In a recent essay, historian William E. Brown, NPS Southwest Regional Coordinator for the Columbus Quincentenary, stressed the importance of increased field unit participation in agency-sponsored events such as these. "The critical moral objective of our Quincentennial," writes Brown, "must be the inclusion, fully and fairly, of all those people heretofore left out of our history." "The parks—the places where people go to recall their history—are ours to improve and enhance, with the help of those whose turn has come, whose true stories we must tell," Brown concluded. Informational bench marks such as the Quincentennial symposia held in Santa Fe in October 1989 and in San Antonio the following year, offer National Park Service

personnel rare opportunities to increase their understanding of—and enhance their appreciation for—the global chain of events resulting from the historic voyages of Christopher Columbus. The increased attendance of Service personnel at these symposia, therefore, is essential.

November 7–9 are the dates for the 1991 symposium, which is entitled "The Community Heritage in the Spanish Americas." On the final day of the initial conference, San Antonio Missions issued a "call for papers," and the response has been impressive. As we near the 1992 Columbus Quincentenary, the San Antonio symposia are assuming an international dimension. Superintendent Amdor anticipates that there will be participants in the 1991 conference from northern Mexico, the Caribbean, and perhaps Spain and Latin America. Papers and workshops will be on such topics as: Law and Community in New Spain; Economic Change in Northwestern New Spain in the Late Colonial Period; The Roots of Community: Spanish Florida and the Caribbean; The Early Spanish Colonies: The African Presence; Canary Islanders in Spain's Northern Colonies; the Columbus Quincentennial: American Indian Perspectives; and, Techniques for Evaluating and Preserving Cultural Landscapes.

For additional information about the 1991 symposium, contact Ms. Sandy Flowers at the San Antonio Missions National Park, 2202 Roosevelt Avenue, San Antonio, TX 78210; Telephone: (512) 229-5701; FTS Fax: 730-5701; Commercial Fax: (512) 229-5704.

The November 1992 San Antonio symposium will be on "The Encounter of Two Worlds: The Continuing Process." *CRM* readers who wish to submit papers for that meeting should contact the above immediately.

Dr. Arthur R. Gomez formerly was a historian at the San Antonio Missions and is a member of the symposia planning committee. He is now a historian in the NPS Southwest Regional Office in Santa Fe.