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EDITOR

Rick Hendricks

ASSISTANT EDITOR

Cameron Saffell

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Making Wine Along the Rio Grande: An Overview

By Shan Nichols

Making wine has been a tradition along the Rio Grande since our earliest days of colonization. There have been “good years” and “bad years” along the way, but it has always “been there” somewhere, perhaps in shadows, especially during the years of Prohibition. Southern New Mexico has been identified as being the oldest commercial wine-growing region in the United States, a fact many may find incredible due to our desert environment. My goal is to give an overview of our oldest industry and to provide some understanding of how it arrived where it is today.

Priests in the Mesilla Valley were growing grapes for the production of wine almost a hundred years before grapes were ever planted in California. Agustin Rodriguez, a Franciscan friar, is credited with bringing the Mission grape, *Vitis vinifera*, possibly from Mexico, to southern New Mexico in 1580.

At that time, sacramental wine was incredibly difficult to obtain. The *Camino Real* (“Royal Road”), a route for trade, had not become a reality. Communities were, essentially, isolated from one another. Each had to be independent in providing for their needs. Mass could not be said without using wine in the ceremony, so having enough on hand was a necessity.

After the *Camino Real* was forged by Juan de Oñate in 1595-98, supply trains came only about every three years and could only bring forty-five gallons each trip. Each monk in the region was given a portion from this supply that was expected to last until the next delivery. It seemed prudent to be able to raise grapes to produce wine to supplement this small ration. The closest source for wine was a thousand miles away.

Actually, the Spanish government had prohibited the raising of grapes in the Spanish New World. The goal was to protect and control the price of wine to the benefit of the growers in Spain, especially in the Andalusian Region that depended so heavily on it for their livelihood. Exports of wine represented a fourth of all foreign trade from Spain at that time. Vine roots were brought here in direct violation of Spanish Law.

However, the Catholic Church chose to ignore this ban in remote parts of the Spanish Empire, especially in the isolated regions now known as New Mexico. By the time Oñate arrived in 1598, he found abundant vines loaded with grapes and other crops very similar to those found in Europe.

Oñate’s expedition and ultimate colonization provided access to areas of New Mexico that had never been explored before. The area known as “Socorro” was named by Oñate. Wherever the colonists went, the monks followed to bring Catholicism to the indigenous people of New Spain and “New Granada,” as the area of New Mexico was first called. Wherever the monks went, vineyards were soon planted.

When Oñate came to colonize, he brought six priests. The ones assigned to the pueblos soon put the Indians to work building missions and wineries with the tools that was the latest to that day — hammers, chisels, wedges, and saws. The *Vitis vinifera* vines that were planted were thought to have come from Mexico from a Spanish variety called “Monica.”

In 1629, a Franciscan, fray Garcia de Zúñiga and a Capuchin monk, Antonio de Arteaga (Ortega), were credited with bringing the vines to the Seneca Pueblo, an area the Piro Indians inhabited south of Socorro now known as San Antonio. By 1633, the vines were mature and the production of wine began at. Sacramental wine was produced there for more than forty years.

The Church was originally the only participant in wine production. The practice spread more readily after the Pueblo Revolt in 1680. The current location of Ciudad Juarez, Mexico, called “Paso del Norte” at the time, had been settled in 1659. The Franciscans had planted the first rootstock there a year later. In 1675 Indians attacked and killed all the missionaries and some of the Indians who worked at Seneca as an extension of the Apache war against the Saline Missions. Some of the survivors abandoned the mission and the winery and fled to Socorro. When the Pueblo Revolt escalated in 1680, most survivors went south to Paso del Norte with the Spanish.

Governor Antonio de Otermin, who had lived in Santa Fe, the seat of government, fled south to found Socorro del Sur south of the current location of El Paso. Other survivors fled from Isleta Pueblo and founded Ysleta near El Paso where their decedents remain today. Others founded Seneca in the same area. Vines were planted and the making of wine was resumed in those new areas.

Diego de Vargas re-established Spanish sovereignty over New Mexico in 1692 and once again planted vines all over the kingdom. In the 1700s, Albuquerque had been founded. Wine and brandy was used there in lieu of money. Church tithes could be paid in wine. Irrigation

helped vineyards flourish in the mid-1700s. Vines were said to give abundant yields of fruit with a very good flavor. The wine that came from them was said to have been as good as that made in Spain, if not better, and some felt the brandy was far superior. There was some concern that not enough corn was being grown because so much of the land was used growing vines. An inventory showed that 250,000 vines were under cultivation.

By the late 1700s, it was found that crops grew better south of Albuquerque than north. Vineyards at Española had not grown well. Grapes grown at Sandia Pueblo could rarely be harvested because frost came early there most years. The Sandia Pueblo was considered to be the very most northern limit of viticulture.

The Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776. By then Spanish Franciscan priests, with the help of local Indians, had been harvesting grapes and pressing wine for nearly 140 years at most of the twenty-six missions that were scattered up and down the Rio Grande. A little over ten years later, it was recorded that 139 shippers sent six hundred barrels of wine, brandy, and vinegar down the *Camino Real* to Mexico.

In the early 1800s, wine, wool, and pelts were the top exports in New Mexico. Vineyards were well established in the valley areas between Bernalillo and Socorro (which had been resettled in 1815) and between Mesilla and El Paso. Wine, brandy, and raisins from the Sandia and Isleta Pueblos were traded from Santa Fe to Chihuahua. Each barrel of wine sold for \$15.00. When nomadic Indians began attacking supply trains, there was a dramatic effect on trade. Around 1812, wine became the only revenue-producing product.

Mexico declared its independence from Spain in 1821. Before this, there had been no communication or commerce between the Spanish Territory and the rest of the United States. The opening of the Santa Fe Trail in 1821 brought Americans from the East into the Rio Grande Valley for the first time. Wine from New Mexico began to make its way to the East and South. Before the opening of the Santa Fe Trail, wine produced had been mostly for local consumption since there had been no means to transport it. With the opening of the trail, "Pass Wine" (so called because it was produced in the El Paso area) became cargo.

At two dollars a gallon, "Pass Whiskey" was a version of grape brandy. Some added tobacco, red hot peppers, and black gunpowder to give it more 'kick.' It was a favorite of Indians who complained that Kentucky Whiskey was very weak by comparison.

During the mid-1800s, over 200,000 gallons of wine that some considered to be the richest and best of all was being produced. Wine became the principle revenue for the city of El Paso.

John T. Hughes, a private in Col. Alexander Doniphan's military expedition to New Mexico, advised the War Department that the production of wine could



increase tenfold if "an energetic, American population could displace the languid Mexicans and if a link, e.g. a road, canal, or railroad, between the valley and the United States could transport wine to a ready market." He proposed making the Rio Grande into a canal from the Gulf of Mexico to El Paso. No canal was ever dug, and the vineyards in El Paso declined for the rest of the century under "Gringo" supervision. Few vineyards had been established on the American (El Paso) side of the Rio Grande, further decreasing American yields.

Others complained of lack of consistency in the wine along the border. Wine would sometimes turn to vinegar en route. There were no systems that were followed by all, no one of sufficient ingenuity to devise equipment to mechanize part of the process, and no one had the experience, intelligence, or capital to produce dependable wine on a large scale.

New Mexico was annexed as a territory in 1850 following the Mexican-American war. It became conceivable that the state could begin to supply the nation. The middle and southern portions of New Mexico had the best climate in the world for raising grapes. The market could now be expanded to include the whole United States. Most farming had been done by families on fewer than 125 acres. Of these, one or two acres were devoted to grapes. In good years, they could harvest three tons an acre. Farmers then took the grapes to the large landowners' wineries to be made into a few barrels of red wine. The total output of Rio Grande wineries was less than 10,000 gallons around this time.

A lot of things happened in the mid-1800s that were conducive to the expansion of wine making. Louis Pasteur investigated poor sugar utilization in a distillery. He found that the conversion of alcohol to acetic acid was the cause of poor yields in alcoholic beverages. He demonstrated that the spoilage of wines was due to aerobic micro-organisms. He also demonstrated a number of anaerobic diseases of wine and prescribed treatments for controlling them. After his applications were applied, the conversion of alcohol to acetic acid was gradually and

completely brought under control. It became possible to process wine more rapidly, with less cost, and greater success. Pasteur represents the introduction of scientific principles to the wine industry that are practiced today.

Other influences were introduced around this time. Italian Jesuits came in the 1860s and brought their experience and European methods of making wine with them. A vintner from France by the name of Joseph Tondre came at the invitation of Archbishop Jean Baptiste Lamy, who was also a Frenchman, to settle at the Isleta Pueblo, where he planted 30,000 vines, opened a winery, and set up a distillery. Following their success, farmers in the Rio Grande Valley began to convert more acreage into vineyards. The town of Tularosa had grown large enough to withstand attacks by Indians. The residents began making a sour wine called “cerque” that they used freely.

In 1864 the Rio Grande flooded the area between Mesilla and Las Cruces, cutting a new channel three miles to the west. The bank of the river was now west of Mesilla, not to the east as it had been before.

By 1870 New Mexicans were producing 16,000 gallons of wine each year. The Jesuits founded a winery in Albuquerque around that time. Their winery could produce, by itself, eighty barrels or about 4,000 gallons a year. They produced enough wine to supply all of the missions and churches and have some left over to sell.

In 1875 a vineyard was planted in Mesilla, New Mexico, by Dan Estrada’s grandfather. This became the oldest, continuing vineyard in the state. Dan Estrada still lives on the property. The vineyard was plowed under about twelve years ago when Dan felt he was getting too old to tend it, that fulfilling governmental regulations had become expensive, and he did not find the vineyard profitable enough to warrant the amount of work involved.

Five years later production in the state surged from 16,000 gallons in 1870 to 908,000 in 1880. New Mexico had 3,150 acres dedicated to vines — twice the acreage and amount produced in New York State.

The railroad came bringing more European immigrants with skills in. The quality of wine was improved wherever they settled. One of the immigrants was Louis Alway, from Bordeaux, France, who planted *Vitis vinifera* roots in Corrales. The Alway’s Wine Ranch became the largest in the state and produced wine and brandy for more than fifty years.

The railroad replaced the treacherous overland routes of the *Camino Real* and the Santa Fe Trail, allowing New Mexico grapes and wines to be shipped as far away as New York City faster and safer. In the next twenty years, almost every small farm along the Rio Grande Valley went into the business of growing grapes.

Gathering around the wine barrel at the country stores became a popular pastime. Most stores kept a barrel of wine and a barrel of whiskey. No nickels were in circulation, so a drink cost a dime with a choice of either barrel.

The first issue of Las Cruces’ first newspaper, the Rio Grande Republican, 21 May 1881 described grapes in the Mesilla Valley.

The Mesilla Valley grape has no equal in the world and wine growing is the principle industry of the people. It seems unreasonable, but it is nevertheless true that every 5 acres of land in this whole valley, if put into grapes, is capable of supporting handsomely a family of 5 persons. The product is already famous under the name of El Paso or “native” wine.

The population of Las Cruces was about 2,000 then, augmented by about a hundred families in Mesilla and Mesilla Park. The largest cash crop in the Mesilla Valley was grapes. Wells Fargo carried almost a half-million baskets of grapes at \$10 each in 1894 with two hundred casks of wine per week.

A couple of years later a ditch company was organized at Polvadera, north of Socorro, where 100,000 grapevines were planted. By 1884 New Mexico was fifth in the nation in the production of wine, producing almost a million gallons of wine annually. One acre of land with 1,000 vines was worth \$1,000. There were ten wineries in Albuquerque’s Old Town. Old Town became the wine making capital of the state.

Between 1890 and 1920 several events crippled the industry. Over-production became a big problem. The ability to store and transport wine to markets was limited. Transportation itself was costly. There was no wood in the region to use in manufacturing casks. There was no factory to make bottles for storage. New Mexicans used the stump method when pruning vines, a method that was labor-intensive without a proportionate increase in production. Then, a series of droughts followed by floods destroyed many vineyards.

The Rio Grande had rampaged over its banks and washed away thousands of acres of vineyards. The settlement of Chamberino in southern Dona Ana County was washed away in 1892. All the vineyards were lost before the people had a chance to relocate the town. The great flood in 1897 washed away the majority of vineyards in the El Paso area. El Paso never again regained prominence in viticulture.

The floods deposited enough sediment along the river bed of the Rio Grande to elevate the channel so that it was above the surrounding terrain. Ground water turned once fertile land into a swamp. Grape vines developed root-rot and alkaline deposits coated the fields, resulting in lower yields. The California wineries began to enter the market increasing competition for our wine and brandies. Wine production that had once been almost a million gallons a year plunged to 296,000 gallons in 1890, to 34,208 in 1900, to a pathetic level of 1,684 in 1910.

In 1912 New Mexico was accepted into statehood. By then, an economic depression was beginning to



damper the financial markets. War against Germany was anticipated. The Elephant Butte Dam was completed in 1916 to help regulate water flow along the Rio Grande about the time that Prohibition put an end to legal wine production in 1919.

Wine making continued in defiance of the law, but there was no commercial market. The wine market went underground. Family wine making actually doubled in production during those years. The number of vines doubled in the state from 1920 until 1930. At \$4 a gallon, it was a moneymaker.

Experimentation in making wine continued. The vintner at Christian Brothers Winery in Bernalillo was Rinaldi. He enlisted the help of the agricultural staff at New Mexico A & M College (now NMSU) to help him improve his wine production. Zinfandel wine was the result of the collaboration between Rinaldi and N.M. A&M College in the 1920s.

A vintner from France wrote to Fabian Garcia, the director of the NMSU Agricultural Experiment Station, in 1933. He reported that the practice of growing *Vitis vinifera* grapes on their roots, as done in New Mexico at the time, had been abandoned in France fifty years before. The French had also produced hybrid stock that could grow under any circumstances in places where growth would not normally take place.

A few wineries reopened along the roadside as soon as prohibition was repealed in 1934. However, the California wineries had taken the market before New Mexico became a state, and New Mexico wineries began to dwindle again because of a limited market.

Dan Estrada's family had to get a permit to make wine for the first time in 1940. This may have been the first time wine production became a subject of legislation in New Mexico, other than "for" or "against."

The greatest flood along the Rio Grande's history occurred in 1943. Wineries that had been in production for more than years in the northern Rio Grande Valley

were destroyed and went out of business. The commercial wine industry in New Mexico never recovered from these floods.

More legislation took place in New Mexico around 1950. Dan Estrada's family had to get more than a permit to make wine, but a license that included more regulations that meant an increase in production costs. The legislation served only to discourage the production of wine at a time when it most needed help.

By 1977 only three of the wineries that reopened after Prohibition were left: one at Corrales, one in Albuquerque, and Dan Estrada's in Mesilla. Some of these were making wine with grapes from California because there were not enough being grown in the state to fill the market.

In 1977 Dr. Clarence Cooper founded La Viña Vineyard and Winery in Chamberino, heralding a renaissance in the wine industry in New Mexico. Another winery, the Viña Madre, near Roswell, opened but did not survive to see the end of the millennium.

European vintners, frustrated by small plots, high land prices, and government regulations at home, came to New Mexico where land in large tracts was less expensive. By the 1980s, acreage in grape vines was up to five hundred, the number of wineries increased to ten, and New Mexican wineries were producing 20,000 gallons of wine annually.

A big help came from the New Mexico Legislature in 1982 when new liquor laws were passed to allow restaurants to have beer and wine licenses

Before then, liquor licenses were limited in number and were incredibly expensive — too expensive for a small restaurant owner to have. Passage of this change opened up a wider choice of wines to more sophisticated consumers.

Another boost to the industry came from the New Mexico Legislature in 1988 when it passed a bill that allowed wineries to have a special celebration permit license to give free tasting and to sell their own wine by

the glass or the bottle.th

La Viña Winery in Chamberino hosted the first wine festival in the state in 1982. Since then, others are held around the state and have been extremely well attended. Over 40,000 people attend the wine festivals in some part of the state. The festivals have given the state's win-eries an opportunity to acquaint the public with their products in a "fiesta" atmosphere...the kind New Mexicans love most.

By 1997 New Mexico had twenty-one wineries with a production of almost 350,000 gallons of wine each year. Since then, some have closed while new ones have opened. In 2001 twenty-seven commercial wineries had 5,000 acres in vines. The industry is beginning to come back with slow, but steady growth.

Some of the problems to still be overcome in New Mexico are the isolated, underpopulated character of the state, the imperfect blend of Mexican and Indian menus and wine as compared to other beverages, and the growth of the California wine industry. The market is still limited to one that is more local. New Mexico may face short-ages of water in the future that may pose a problem for large vineyards.

The vintners in New Mexico are optimistic. They have some advantages today that their predecessors did not. They have been developed rootstock that is not only more disease-resistant but are better suited for the area. They have regrouped and organized to develop a more solid market for their grapes and wine. Vintners today are scientists. Providing a superior product is their goal. The key for some will be quality rather than quantity. The restoration of wine making in New Mexico may be one of the most interesting ventures in the history of American wine.

SHAN NICHOLS came to Las Cruces in 1949. She attended schools in Las Cruces and graduated from Hotel Dieu School of Nursing in El Paso in 1959. Shan authored "Our Heritage, Our People," in 1974 with Ella Banegas Curry, is a Life Member of the Dona Ana County Historical Society. She received the Heritage Award from the society in 2001 for various civic projects. Shan

collaborates with Chuck Miles and Gordon Owen to produce historical maps in tiles that appear in City Hall as gifts to the City. She also created the tiles for Tony Pennock's design, "La Entrada Monument," on the Downtown Mall. Recording events of the past are her special interest. "We have to preserve our heritage so that future generations will know their 'roots.' Our history as a city is fairly new but too much is already being lost."

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Infectious Disease in Eighteenth-Century El Paso del Norte

By Rick Hendricks

For the last three decades, ethnohistorians and historical demographers have debated the role of infectious diseases on the populations of Spain's New World colonies.¹ Completely lost in this scholarly discussion is the impact of such illnesses on the El Paso del Norte area, which today includes the greater El Paso-Ciudad Juarez area. This is true, despite the fact that it is possible to discern a number of outbreaks of infectious disease, several of which reached epidemic proportions. These episodes — along with a variety of other historical factors, such as destruction of prime agricultural land through flooding, Indian uprisings, and increased Apache raiding — had a dramatic effect on the population of Spanish colonial El Paso and on the importance of the area to the rest of New Mexico.

From its establishment in 1659 until 1680, the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe was the southernmost outpost of the colony of New Mexico. There Franciscan friars ministered to a population consisting almost entirely of local indigenous peoples, principally Mansos, and a handful of Spaniards (meaning in this context mestizos, peninsular Spaniards, and AfroHispanos). The outbreak of the Pueblo Revolt upriver in New Mexico in August 1680 brought a flood of more than a thousand Spanish refugees and several hundred Pueblo Indians, swelling the population of El Paso to many times its usual size. After a failed attempt at reconquest in 1681, another group of Pueblos relocated to the El Paso area. Although the documentary evidence is sparse, it appears likely that infectious disease accompanied the refugees south to El Paso.

Even by defining an epidemic narrowly as a mortality crisis with a death rate three times the norm and factoring in the characteristics of an increased population, there seems little doubt that an epidemic struck El Paso in 1682.² While it has not been possible to identify this disease, documents reveal that it killed Native Americans almost exclusively. Incomplete sacramental registers and anecdotal mentions in other archival records indicate that another unnamed epidemic beset El Paso in 1728.³ Epidemics notwithstanding, El Paso grew in importance in the New Mexico colony. By the 1730s it had begun to emerge as an important agricultural and trade center astride the Camino Real that stretched from Mexico City to Santa Fe. Known for its wine and brandy, El Paso's economy literally floated on the products of local grapes. Still, wave after wave of illness rolled over the riverine communities strung south from the Guadalupe mission

along the Rio Grande.

The first episode of infectious disease for which the sacramental records are complete occurred in 1733.⁴ This unnamed illness struck with deadly suddenness in late winter-early spring and had subsided by early summer. Its victims were overwhelming Apache Indian children. Slightly more females died than males. Although it is always problematic to attempt to name unidentified diseases in a historical context, the combination of winter onset and age and ethnicity of the victims suggests that this event was an outbreak of measles or some other rapidly communicable, directly transmitted infection. It is also interesting to note that Apaches, who traditionally did not live in settled communities alongside Spaniards and would therefore be less likely to have immunity, were the principal victims of this outbreak. It is unclear whether they were in El Paso to trade or had settled at the mission where they became infected, or whether they had traveled to El Paso in search of medical attention, having become ill through some other means. While the mortality of this incident was much higher than normal, it did not reach the threshold required to be considered an epidemic; unrecorded deaths of non-Christian Apaches may well have pushed this episode over the threshold.

Infectious disease forcefully attacked El Paso in 1748.⁵ Almost all the deaths associated with this epidemic were recorded in the months of May and June. Among the victims, children outnumbered adults by more than two to one, and Indians outnumbered Spaniards by the same ratio. Although most victims were simply identified as Indians, the single largest named group in this category was that of Piros. Almost half again as many females died as males in this epidemic. Two years later, another disease event took place that closely mirrored the 1748 epidemic, strongly hinting at a recurrence. Mortality peaked in April and May of 1750. The records are not as specific regarding ages of the victims as in 1748, but children probably outnumbered adults by almost two to one. Twice as many Native Americans died as Spaniards, but mortality did not attain epidemic proportions. In addition to the toll exacted by disease, unusually severe flooding and Indian uprisings in 1749-50 marked the beginning of El Paso's decline in importance relative to such population centers as Albuquerque and Santa Fe.⁶

In October 1763 an El Pasoan fell victim to typhus, the only clearly identifiable disease to strike El Paso in the eighteenth century.⁷ Two years earlier, epidemic typhus

erupted in Mexico City in the last major outbreak of this disease in eighteenth-century New Spain. Throughout 1761 and 1762, typhus and a concurrent smallpox epidemic ravaged the viceregal capital. Together they claimed between 14,600 and 25,000 people (depending on the estimates). By the summer of 1763 the epidemic had spread to Puebla and by the fall it had arrived in the far north, in El Paso.

Known to Spaniards as tabardillo, typhus was recognized as a distinct disease in Europe by the late fifteenth century. Apparently, Fray Diego Zapata, to whom the grim task of ministering to the dying fell, knew well the classic symptomatology of typhus, which includes headache, loss of appetite, fever, and malaise, as well as a rash of rose-red macules appearing at four to six days on the lower chest or upper abdomen, spreading to the back, shoulder, upper arms and thighs. Doubtless, too, he would have noted the onset of high fever so characteristic of typhus. Thus, he carefully inscribed a capital T over the name of each victim of the disease in the burial book for the El Paso church.

More than 40 percent of the households in the Guadalupe parish lost members to typhus, and in twenty six of them multiple deaths were recorded. Because eighteenth-century El Paso's communities were characterized by isolated homes built in the middle of agricultural fields rather than in urban clusters, individual families were particularly hard hit by typhus, while others escaped entirely. Once present in a given household, the disease often claimed many victims. This was because of the vector for transmitting typhus. A zoonose, typhus is caused by *Rickettsia prowazekii*, a microorganism living in the lining of the intestine of *Pediculus humanus*, the body louse. The louse survives infestation for twelve to eighteen days, then expels the microbe in its feces. Lice bite and defecate on human skin, leading to irritation and scratching. In this way the microorganism enters the human body through cuts or abrasions and incubates for ten days to two weeks. Then in the febrile period of the disease, the microorganisms in the blood spread to other lice that bite an infected person. Poor sanitary practices, such as infrequent changing of clothes and bathing, and the general acceptance of body lice (together with lack of knowledge about preventing the spread of infectious disease by destroying infected clothing and bedclothes) fostered a perfect breeding ground for typhus. The only treatment considered effective at the time was administering juices, phlebotomy, and purges.

Unlike other eighteenth-century epidemics, typhus struck adults harder than children, and more Spaniards than Indians died, reaching 9.5 percent of this sector of the population. Given the dwindling indigenous population, however, this statistic is misleading. More than 25 percent of the El Paso mission Indians fell victim to typhus before the scourge ended in early 1765. A recrudescence lasting from March to August of 1767 took the lives of even more victims before subsiding. While typhus typically kills more men than women, in the epidemic of

1764, almost 15 percent more women died than men. Notably, twenty-six women who were pregnant when they contracted the disease miscarried.

As in the case of the epidemic typhus that traveled from Mexico City to El Paso, smallpox made a similar journey, departing the Valley of Mexico in 1779 and arriving in the El Paso area and points north in 1780.⁸ Before it had run its course in the following year, this pathogen carried off around five thousand Pueblo Indians upriver in New Mexico then it diffused, presumably by horse, to Indian peoples living along the Missouri River system. Unfortunately, the sacramental registers for El Paso for 1780-81 have not survived, and we therefore lack the detailed information available for this disease episode. The evidence that does exist for the effect of the smallpox epidemic, however, seems to indicate that smallpox decimated El Paso. Census data demonstrate that, largely independent of other factors, the combination of epidemic typhus and smallpox were sufficient to effectively halt population growth in El Paso between 1760, when the Bishop of Durango, Pedro de Tamarón y Romeral, conducted a census of the region, and 1784, when the first household census of El Paso and the surrounding communities was taken.⁹

In the century from 1682 to 1781, El Paso suffered five epidemics, or one every twenty years. Interspersed among the epidemics were several other serious outbreaks of infectious disease, two of which produced mortality rates only slightly below that of a true epidemic. Over all, more Native American children died than any other group. While the area's Spanish population relocated with remarkable fluidity among its several communities and, indeed, among other more distant communities in New Mexico, during this hundred-year period, El Paso neither received a major influx nor experienced a major exodus of inhabitants. This makes it possible to study clearly the role of infectious disease on the population.

Had El Paso's population continued to grow at an average rate, statistical projections show that by the end of the eighteenth century it would have been almost exactly twice the actual recorded figure, but each time the population began to recover its losses naturally, another wave of disease swept over the area.¹⁰ To be sure, Indian raiding produced loss of life over the years on the frontier, but nothing on the scale of that which infectious disease produced. Had it not been for the devastating effect of epidemics and near epidemics on the area, El Paso would not have seen its importance to the New Mexico colony diminished. Ironically, then, as the southern gateway to growing towns to the north, a regional trade center, and an important stop on the Camino Real, El Paso became a way station for infectious disease. For just as surely as exotic goods from all over Spain's far-flung empire made their way to El Paso, so too did most of the major diseases of the day.

RICK HENDRICKS, an adjunct associate professor of Anthropology at New Mexico State University, is the editor of the Southern New Mexico Historical Review.

ENDNOTES

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Charles W. Haynes and Roswell's "Haynes' Dream"

By Elvis E. Fleming

Charles Wesley Haynes was a prominent businessman, cattleman, and public official in Southeast New Mexico for about twenty-five years around the turn of the twentieth century. As sheriff of Chaves County he presided over Chaves County's only legal hanging in 1896. Haynes also served as a county commissioner, Roswell town alderman, and Roswell school board member at one time or another. His most lasting accomplishment was founding "Haynes' Dream" Park. The city renamed it "Cahoon Park," and it remains Roswell's principal park to the present.

Haynes was born 29 August 1841, in Liberty, Clay County, Missouri, to Milner and Susan Haynes. He had two brothers, Henry and John, who lived out their lives at Liberty.¹ Haynes was known to be a veteran of the Civil War and was addressed as "Captain" after the war. His great-granddaughter, Carol Milner of California, believes Haynes served in a Confederate unit.² However, the military records of most Confederate soldiers from the Union state of Missouri have not been preserved. A search of the usual sources for such information has failed to turn up anything about Haynes' military career. The United Confederate Veterans had a rather large chapter in Roswell, Valverde Camp No. 1419, but Haynes' name does not appear on the membership lists.³

Little is known about the personal life and family of C. W. Haynes. He married Bettie Ewing in Lafayette County, Missouri, on 21 March 1866. Their first child, Jennie, was born in 1867. Dola was born in 1873, Charles W. (Jr.)² was born in 1879, and William was born about 1880.⁴

Charles W. Haynes came to New Mexico Territory in 1883. He settled in Las Vegas and operated a cattle ranch for five years near Fort Sumner. In 1888 Haynes moved to Lincoln County and took up a ranch located some thirty miles north of Roswell. His ranch was in Chaves County after the new county was organized in 1891.⁵ Apparently, Mrs. Haynes returned to Missouri for the birth of Maimee on 6 November 1886, in Nevada, Missouri.⁶

In the election of 1892 Haynes won election as Chaves County Commissioner of District One, and the other commissioners chose him as chairman. Those on the board with Haynes were Walter Chisum, A.B. Allen, and L.M. Long. Frank Lea was county clerk, and W.M. Atkinson was sheriff. The main concerns of the commissioners during Haynes's tenure seemed to be hearing tax valuation protests, holding elections, and paying bills. On

7 January 1895, Haynes was re-elected chairman.⁷ Later that year he moved into Roswell.

Charles Perry was elected sheriff of Chaves County in 1894. With encouragement from the press, Perry fancied himself to be another Pat Garrett. However, his behavior became quite aberrant and he engaged in heavy drinking and gambling. In June 1896, Perry and Dee Harkey of Eddy County as deputy U. S. marshals were in a federal posse that was trying to catch "Black Jack" Ketchum and his gang. One of the outlaws was apprehended in Mexico and was to be turned over to Perry and Harkey at Presidio, Texas. The plan was for Perry to travel to Santa Fe to get the needed papers and meet Harkey in El Paso, and they would then go pick up the prisoner. Perry did not keep the appointment.

Perry failed to show up because in the meantime he had fled with \$7,639.02 in Chaves County tax funds to Mexico City and rendezvoused there with a woman. He later went to Johannesburg, South Africa, where someone killed him in a casino.

J.C. Lea, Pat Garrett, Dee Harkey, and other leading men of Southeast New Mexico prevailed upon Governor William T. Thornton to appoint a responsible man to fill the sheriff's office. Chairman Haynes and the County Commissioners sent a message to the governor on 10 July 1896, urging him to name a sheriff promptly. He obliged by appointing Haynes on 23 July 1896, "a man who neither drinks nor gambles."⁸

Haynes's appointment came just in time to preside over Chaves County's only legal hanging. Two men convicted of murder were in the charge of deputy/jailer Fred Higgins: Eugenio Aragón and Antonio Gonzales. They were charged with killing Charlie Van Sickle at the Zuber Ranch in far northern Chaves County (now a part of DeBaca County) on 12 February 1894.

Aragón and Gonzales were found guilty in trials in November 1895. They appealed to the State Supreme Court, so the sentence was carried out more than two years after the murder.

Aragón cut his own throat with a sharpened spoon on 14 September 1896; but Gonzales was hanged as scheduled on the 24th. The execution was carried out on the southeast corner of the courthouse square, and a high fence was put up to keep the event from becoming a spectacle.⁹

The Democrats of Chaves County held their primary election on 29 August 1896, and Haynes, who was the

popular independent opponent, J. B. "Billy" Mathews, a former chief deputy under Sheriff William Brady of Lincoln County.¹⁰

Haynes' incumbency no doubt helped him to defeat Mathews, and he served a single elected two-year term. Many of his routine activities were reported in the Roswell newspapers at the time. For example, Sheriff Ed Hooper of Fisher County, Texas, wrote to Sheriff Haynes and asked him to arrest a certain cowboy on the LFD Ranch for horse stealing in Texas. This was done, and Hooper came to Roswell to fetch the prisoner. He took some Roswell peaches with him back to Sweetwater, but the local citizenry there refused to believe the large fruit came from New Mexico until the sheriff's prisoner affirmed it.¹¹

Haynes seemingly did not let the job of being sheriff interfere with his cattle-raising business. In addition to his ranch north of town, he also had a 680-acre stock farm on the Rio Hondo some ten miles southwest of Roswell. In October 1897, he moved 350 cattle from the Hondo farm to alfalfa pasture on land he leased from J.J. Hagerman's Roswell Land & Water Company. He made a major improvement on the Hondo farm in February 1898 when he installed a \$700 Eclipse windmill from the Seay, Gill & Company hardware store in Roswell. The 16-ft. windmill wheel operated a "pump with a Cook cylinder," for a deep well that was predicted to fill the reservoir rapidly. In April 1898, Haynes moved some eight hundred cattle from the Capitan Orchard pasture south of town up to his Hondo farm.¹²

In his role as sheriff, Haynes had some major work done on the Chaves County Courthouse in March 1898 in preparation for court under Fifth District Judge Humphrey B. Hamilton. Haynes had a platform built in the courtroom area inside the railing which made it a foot higher than the floor. The witness stand and the jury box were raised further above the platform. About that same time, Haynes and Higgins traveled to Santa Fe to deliver one Manuel Ruiz to the state penitentiary. Ruiz had been convicted of cattle rustling.¹³

The sheriff's job in those days included the role of tax assessor-collector. Haynes brought suit against some large companies in the county for the collection of taxes. The matter was not settled until a couple of months after Haynes' term ended, but he was duly notified that the court had found in favor of the county. The case was considered a major accomplishment of Sheriff Haynes because of the amount of property involved.¹⁴

Haynes did not run for re-election in 1898. He left office as sheriff at the end of that year, but the local press continued to report on his activities. In January 1899, he fenced a new pasture on his ranch and moved three hundred cattle there from his Hondo farm. He also vaccinated 210 yearlings against blackleg disease. In March 1899, Haynes sold the Hondo stock farm to Zenas Leonard of Pleasant Hill, Missouri. Leonard was one of the owners of the well-known Bar V Ranch, located sixty miles northeast of Roswell on Cedar Canyon. Leonard immediately placed three hundred high-grade cattle on

the farm, where he also raised alfalfa.¹⁵

In July 1899, Haynes completed a new house at 512 East Albuquerque Street, which the Roswell Record allowed would be "one of the most commodious homes in the city." Haynes built a dam across the Pecos River on his ranch in 1899-1900. In January 1900 he took seven men with him from Roswell to complete the work.¹⁶ Presumably the dam was to impound water for his cattle. That would not be the only dam he ever built.

From 1899 until 1901, Haynes served as an alderman on the Roswell Board of Town Trustees. On 29 July 1899, the chairman of the board, J. C. Sheridan, resigned.

The board appointed Haynes to replace Sheridan as a member and J. P. Church to replace Sheridan as chairman. In April 1900, Haynes announced that he was a candidate for the alderman position, and he was duly elected. There was a lot of turnover on the board in those days, with annual elections and frequent resignations. Haynes did not run for re-election in April 1901.¹⁷

Haynes' marital status seems impossible to unravel, because no marriage or divorce records show up in Chaves County for him. The county deed records list a new wife for Haynes some five years before his first wife, Bettie, died, which suggests the possibility of a divorce. The family, however, knows of no such divorce. When Bettie died in February 1909 she was buried in the family plot at South Side Cemetery in Roswell.¹⁸

Haynes must have married Eva Burrus of Roswell by 21 July 1904, which is when her name first shows up in the deed records as his wife. Jennie Haynes married W. C. Burrus,¹⁹ and there has been some speculation that Eva Burrus may have been related to W. C. Burrus, but research has not turned up any documentation.

Haynes' second daughter, Dola, married Charles S. Whiteman, who was one of Roswell's first firefighters and a long-time fire chief.²⁰ Maimie Haynes first married a man named Rash, who died. She later married (Herman?) Eminger and still lived in Roswell in 1914. She later mar-



Charles W. Haynes (1841-1914), Chaves County commissioner and sheriff, developer of Riverside Heights Addition, and founder of "Haynes' Dream" Park, the forerunner of Roswell's Cahoon Park. *Photo courtesy of Historical Center for South east New Mexico*

ried two additional times.²¹

Around the turn of the century, Haynes went into business with C.D. Bonney, an old-time businessman and horse rancher. Their main business was real estate development, but they also provided water and electricity for the residents of their development and the public. "Riverside Heights Addition" was a large area located on the slopes just north of the North Spring River; Haynes and Bonney divided it into blocks and hundreds of lots for their real estate business. The development extended from North Montana Avenue on the west to North Main Street on the east, with West Eighth Street being the north boundary at the west end and West College Avenue being the north boundary on the east end. Haynes also established the commercial "Haynes' Addition," which was between Second and Third along the north side of West Second from Union to Sunset.²²

It is said by old-timers that the North Spring River was from forty to sixty-five feet wide in those days, and it ran ten to twenty feet deep with clear water. From 1900 to 1903, Haynes bought several parcels of land on both sides of the North Spring River and west of North Washington Avenue. Haynes and Bonney started building a dam on the beautiful river and completed it on 17 January 1902. It was located about a hundred yards upstream from the present location of the swimming pool in Cahoon Park. Haynes had started building the "Haynes Power Canal" on 8 November 1901, taking water from the north bank of the river and running it to the Haynes and Bonney power plant. Bonney's son, Cecil, described it in his book as being made of native rock. Bonney writes, "The old... electric plant was located just north and west of what is today Cahoon Park, on West 7th Street, west of Union Avenue... [The] water [was] conveyed in a ditch to the... electric plant, where it dropped into a deep wooden shaft. A large turbine waterwheel was located in the shaft. The force of the water turned the wheel, developing sufficient power to operate the... plant, produce enough electricity for the city, and pump water. From the shaft, the water was conveyed back to the river by another ditch..." The official documents show that the ditch was 2,200 ft. long. The canal was fifteen feet wide at the bottom, twenty-four feet wide at the top, and three feet deep. It carried 150 cubic feet of water per second.²³

Haynes and Bonney's power dam on the North Spring River gave Haynes the idea and inspiration for developing a recreational park. There were already trees along the stream, thanks to a large group of farseeing early settlers who had gathered there on 2 April 1892, for fellowship and to set out cottonwood trees. However, the area by 1902 was "...practically a dump-ground, in a mesquite and weed area, in the western limits of the little cow-town of Roswell."²⁴

The area destined to become a park comprised about twenty acres along both sides of the North Spring River and west of North Union Avenue. It was at the west end of

gia B. Redfield, "it became known, from constant joking by early residents, as 'Haynes' Dream,' of developing a modern recreation park." There was nothing that Roswell old-timers would rather reminisce about than Haynes's Dream. The park went by that informal name for about twenty years, but the official name of it was "Haynes' Park and Natatorium."²⁵

In almost the same location as the present Cahoon Park swimming pool, Haynes built a "cement swimming pool, with a long row of clean, light bathhouses on the south side of the pool" according to Redfield. An early eyewitness to the park was Earl Dixon, who first saw Haynes' Park in 1915. Dixon described the pool as large, and "at the east end was an oversized gazebo with the high diving board on the top floor for the stronger at heart and the lower one for the band concerts on Sunday afternoons."²⁶

At the dam west of the swimming pool Haynes had a landing for the main attraction of the park, a powerboat called "Katie." Dixon states,

An awful loud shrill whistle would signal its arrival to take on another load of passengers for a two-mile ride up the river. The Katie was a small steam-boat that could handle about 20 passengers, and as the fares were 15 cents for adults and five cents for the kiddies, all ages took part.²⁷

Cecil Bonney describes Haynes as "a short, heavyset man with a genial benevolence toward us kids who for a dime apiece could embark on ten-minute trips aboard the M.S. Katie, a tiny naphtha launch."²⁸

Haynes also had rowboats or canoes for rent. A small zoo was one of the most popular features among his attractions at Haynes' Dream. It included coyotes, raccoons, badgers, prairie dogs, deer, antelope, a black bear, and numerous New Mexico birds and fish. Haynes's park was the first picnic ground provided for Roswell people, and had seats under the big trees that were enjoyed by teachers as well as children on school outings.²⁹

Dixon describes the scenery at Haynes' Dream. Trees were everywhere... Wild flowers were in abundance and gave out with all their colors to add to the greenery of the grass, water, and trees of Haynes' Dream... On the ride up the river the larger cottonwoods reached across the river with their shade and in the hot weather this was certainly an enjoyable cool ride on the Katie and a fine way to spend a Sunday afternoon. Along the sides of the river were walk-ways which were well traveled and those trails took you by old Indian camps... Plenty of fish were still in the streams.³⁰

In the summer of 1906, Haynes & Bonney had a representative of the Frick Refrigeration Company to determine the plausibility of adding an ice plant to their electric plant. O.J. Morris concluded that the plant had power to spare. Morris moved his family to Roswell for the winter of 1906-07 so he could supervise the

of twenty tons of ice per day.³¹

Involvement in the community seemed to be second nature to Haynes. On 7 September 1905, a large group of early settlers got together at the Chisum Grove at the South Spring Ranch and organized the “Old Settlers’ Society of Chaves County.” Herbert J. Hagerman, Thomas Catron, Judge A.A. Freeman, and Judge Granville A. Richardson made speeches. The group elected officers, including J.P. White as president and James F. Hinkle as secretary-treasurer. The board of directors was made up of C. W. Haynes, W. M. Atkinson, Milo Pierce, and J.J. Rasco. This group eventually became the Chaves County Archaeological and Historical Society in 1930.³²

On 7 May 1906, Haynes officially became a member of the Roswell Municipal Schools Board of Education following his earlier election. Dr. William T. Joyner was board president and other members were L.K. McGaffey, Rev. C.C. Hill, J.R. Ray, and Dr. E.H. Skipwith. C.D. Thompson was superintendent. Haynes’ tenure on the school board apparently lasted less than a year. The oldest extant minutes of the board are for 6 May 1907; Haynes is not listed as a member.³³

After the death of his second wife, Haynes apparently moved in with his widowed daughter Jennie Burrus and her child at 510 South Virginia, where he lived out his life. Haynes died at home on 16 December 1914 of a stroke. He was seventy-three years old. Rev. William Flanders of First Baptist Church conducted the funeral at Dilley’s funeral parlor. Only the three daughters are mentioned as survivors in C.W. Haynes’ obituary and probate records in 1914; so perhaps Haynes’s two sons died young.³⁴ Haynes was buried in South Side (now South Park) Cemetery in a family plot that also contains the grave of his son-in-law W.C. Burrus.³⁵ Only Burrus’s grave was marked until the spring of 2002, when the Historical Society for Southeast New Mexico erected a stone there.

By the time of his death Haynes’s finances apparently were slipping, and he mortgaged his park property. There were efforts to acquire the park and make it a city park. The Brown-Vicker Land Company held an option on the park, and approached the City of Roswell and the Roswell Commercial Club about converting Haynes’ Dream into a city park to be called “Haynes Park.” On 6 January 1914, the city council passed a resolution agree-



Sunday afternoon outing at the boat landing in Haynes’ Dream Park, c. 1920s. The boat Katie lies just beyond the island on the right, with a sign painted on it that reads, “Take a Trip on the Katie 10¢.” Photo Courtesy of Historical Collection for Southeast New Mexico

ing to acquire the land at the appropriate time.³⁶

The Roswell Ministerial Alliance was concerned with several issues in the community, a major one of which was the encroachment of worldly activities into the Lord’s Day and other traditional meeting times for the churches. They endorsed the idea of making Haynes’ Dream a city park, but they insisted that it be a true recreation park for all the people. It must not be used “...for the promotion of such things as tend to lower the morals of the city and desecrate the Lord’s Day.” The pastors stated that they wanted liquor and dancing banned, and they wanted Sunday bans on movies, shows, and baseball games. If the city would meet these restrictions, the Ministerial Alliance recommended that the city council approve the proposal.³⁷

Whether or not the ministers’ demands had any effect is not known, but the 1914 proposal for the city to acquire Haynes’ Dream fell through. Haynes’s family continued to operate the park through the 1915 season, 26 May to 21 September. The land then was turned over to several creditors. Others continued to run the park and swimming pool until about 1922.³⁸

The status of the park from 1922 to 1935 is not clear. Apparently, local folks continued to use the grounds for picnics and other recreation; but there was nobody to take care of the park. The river began to dry up around 1924 to 1928; and Clarence S. Adams, prominent local historian, believes the park was more or less abandoned because the river ceased to flow and a flood washed out the dam and the swimming pool.³⁹

In several land acquisitions around 1929, the City of Roswell began to assume control of the former Haynes’

Dream as a city park and future golf course. Other parcels were added from time to time.⁴⁰ There is some evidence that the park area was referred to as "Central Park," but research has turned up nothing official. The name of C.W. Haynes was no longer in the picture.

Edward A. Cahoon founded the Bank of Roswell and opened for business on 26 July 1890. Through his bank, which in 1899 became the First National Bank, Cahoon contributed much to the development of Southeast New Mexico by financing farms, ranches, and houses.⁴¹

Following Cahoon's death on 23 December 1934, the Roswell City Council passed a resolution to express the respect, admiration, and love for him by the people of Roswell. The resolution (No. 455, 1 January 1935) concluded, "BE IT RESOLVED That the parks along North Spring River from Washington Avenue to the city limits on the west, be named CAHOON PARK."⁴²

Cahoon Park was more fully developed in 1936, when the Works Progress Administration (WPA) workers built the rock walls, fences, sunken garden and other rock structures that have characterized the park ever since.⁴³ And it all started out as "Haynes' Dream."

Charles W. Haynes was a respected rancher, businessman, and office holder in the Chaves County area from 1888 until his death in 1914. During that time, he served as a county commissioner, county sheriff, town alderman, school board member, and county chairman of the Democratic Party. His most well known achievement was a park/swimming pool that was widely revered as "Haynes' Dream." Roswell seems to have forgotten C.W. Haynes, but his work still benefits residents today through the existence of Cahoon Park.

Elvis E. Fleming, a frequent contributor to the Southern New Mexico Historical Review, is Professor of History, Emeritus, from Eastern New Mexico University.

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New Mexico in World War II

By Rafael Valadez

On 1 September 1939, the world saw the invasion of Poland by Germany's dictator Adolf Hitler, prompting France and Great Britain to immediately declare war on Germany. Italy and Japan, under the rule of Benito Mussolini and Hirohito respectively, joined the conflict in June 1940 and September 1940. Germany then proceeded to launch an offensive invasion against the Soviet Union on 22 June 1941. Although the struggle was branded as mostly European, within six months this European war would turn into the Second World War. After a preempted attack by Japanese forces on the U.S. Naval Base in Pearl Harbor, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt sprang into action asking Congress to declare war on Japan and this "unprovoked and das-tardly attack" on "a date which will live in infamy." The Americans had entered the war, and it would not be long before New Mexicans left their impressions of patriotism, bravery, and strong will in this war.

New Mexico would soon leave behind the legacy of some two thousand, three hundred men from the 200th and 515th Coast Artillery, also known as "The Regiment." On 17 August 1941 the Regiment was notified that it had been handpicked for an overseas assignment of immeasurable importance, and that the choice had been made on account of the high satisfactory state of training that had been laboriously attained. As a reward for all the hard work showed in federal service the 200th was to officially be named as the best Anti-Aircraft Regiment (Regular or otherwise) then available to the United States Armed Forces for use in an area of critical and strategic military importance. During the next ten weeks, the 200th finally got a chance to settle down and unpack its equipment, get set in position, and even plan for some target practice. However, no target ammunition was available or could be obtained. As a consequence, the first shots fired by the 200th were aimed at enemy aircraft. They fought the war without ever having had any firing practice.

Eight hours after the surprise attack and utter devastation of the U.S. Pacific Naval Fleet at Pearl Harbor, Japanese plans for Pacific Rim domination extended into the Philippines. On 8 December 1941, Japanese fighters and high-altitude bombers flying at over 23,000 feet raided the Philippines, destroying most the U.S. Air Force while it was still on the ground. General Douglas MacArthur, who was in command of the Filipino-American forces and the USAFFE, or United States Armed Forces Far East, received news of the attack and awaited a similar attack on Clark Field and Ft. Stotsenberg. They had expected the attack to come from the north so the northern area was scouted, but after some time the pilots, convinced that the enemy would be a no show, went

out to lunch. It was with this impeccable timing that the assault finally came. The 200th was quick in launching a counter defensive, they readily fired the first shots, but it was relatively ineffective against the high altitude Japanese bombers who were flying three thousand feet above the Regiment's artillery range. When all the smoke from the muzzles had cleared away, the outfit had shot down five enemy aircraft and had two of its men killed in the action. Over the next two weeks, under the command of Lieutenant General Masharu Homma, Japan intensified the air raids and began landing on Luzon. A strategic military decision to withdraw Filipino-American forces to Bataan was reached. It was the 20th's and the newly formed 515th's mission to give cover to this retreat. They were successful in holding off the enemy from destroying the bridges, so the North and South Luzon Forces were able to reach the peninsula. The strategy became simply defensive. General MacArthur had planned to go on an all out defensive initiative and buy enough time for the U.S. Naval Pacific Fleet to recuperate from its losses and be able to send reinforcements to the ongoing struggle, which went on for approximately four months. To make a bad situation even worse, food scarcity and dysentery began to run rampant among the divisions. The soldiers were dying, and a lack of munitions was extremely detrimental to the defense initiative.

General MacArthur was given direct orders from Roosevelt to leave the Bataan Peninsula immediately and assume command of U.S. forces in Australia. In his place at Corregidor was General Jonathan M. Wainwright, and in Wainwright's place, General Edward P. King, Jr., was put in charge. Shortly afterwards, on 9 April 1942, Bataan finally fell to Japanese forces as the generals surrendered their command and forces. By leaving his command, General MacArthur was able to avoid capture along with the other 67,000 American and Phillipine men and women serving in the armed forces or being unfortunate enough to be in the wrong place at the wrong time. About seventeen hundred of those men and women were from the 200th and 515th Coastal Artillery Regiments of New Mexico.

The prisoners of war were forced to go on a grueling five- to ten-day hike over ninety miles of torturous, unforgiving terrain. American trucks were available for the transport of the detainees to Japanese POW camps, but they were forced to march nonetheless. Many of the detainees were in no physical condition for the march after the testing and tiring struggle to defend the Bataan Peninsula. Once the soldiers started the hike, they were not given anything to eat or drink. They were occasionally beaten, battered, and killed by Japanese

soldiers. Many American and Philippine soldiers died at the hands of Japanese soldiers during what came to be known as the "Bataan Death March." The March led them to Camp O'Donnell. Only about 58,000 survived the starvation and the wretchedness and cruelty of the Japanese throughout the "Death March." Approximately, sixteen hundred Americans perished in the first forty days in Camp O'Donnell and almost 20,000 Filipinos died in their first four months of captivity in the camp. The healthier prisoners took turns burying their fallen comrades in mass graves, just as they, themselves, would be buried, days or weeks later.

One of the survivors was Fred Meza Brewer, who is now eighty-two-years-old and served in the New Mexico's National Guard 200th Coastal Artillery Regiment. He was one of the seventeen hundred Americans in the Regiment that was taken prisoner by Japanese forces with the fall of Bataan. "We got beat up, kicked around," Brewer recalls the horror and humility of being at the hands of the enemy. Brewer experienced first hand the harshness of Japanese cruel and unusual punishments. They were beaten almost daily and not given enough to eat. "We got one bowl of rice a day, sometimes less." Brewer thinks that the treatment of POW's in this day in comparison to the way he was treated is very different. "You just can't compare," he says. Brewer was held as a prisoner for a long, unimaginable forty-two months - three-and-a-half years. He spent all that time cramped up in a dark cell with hardly anything to eat and constant beatings at the hands of inhospitable Japanese prison guards.

Cohen Thomas Roland was nineteen when he fought to defend the Bataan Peninsula. The battle was an eye-opening experience. He grew up on a farm and ached to see the world and experience life. When he learned of the acts of war committed by Japan, he voluntarily enlisted in the army not quite grasping the seriousness of the situation but hoping to get away. He was readily shipped off to the Philippines to join the Battling Bastards of Bataan in their plight to fend off the imperialistic Japanese invaders. Roland was also captured and forced

to walk the "Death March." He witnessed the beatings administered by their captors and experienced the fatigue, hunger, and humility. And like Brewer, Roland was freed as the thunder of the first atomic bombs had rocked Japan and it surrendered.

Until now I had not realized what an important role New Mexico regiments had affected the War of the Worlds. I didn't even know about the 200th and 515th Coastal Artillery Regiments. Now I know that the "New Mexico Brigade" was a highly decorated asset to the U.S. in World War II. It brought home four Presidential Unit Citations and the Philippine Presidential Citation. Through the efforts of many of the Regiment's veterans and supporters many memorials and foundations have been established to commemorate those who fought and lost their lives for their country during the war. The Bataan-Corregidor Memorial Foundation of New Mexico was founded in 1997. Since its establishment the Foundation has organized annual ceremonies at Bataan Memorial Park in Albuquerque to honor the victims and survivors of the fall of Bataan and Corregidor. Currently the Foundation is working to add the names of all the members of the 200th and 515th Coast Artillery (AA) units at the existing memorial located in Bataan Memorial Park in Albuquerque, New Mexico.

RAFAEL VALADEZ was a student in the eleventh grade at Santa Teresa High School when he wrote this paper. His father is Salvador Valadez.

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The New Mexico Home Front During World War II

By Marie Tighe

World War II was a watershed event in the history of the United States. It changed the country in ways people could never have imagined. Women entered the workforce in large numbers as men enlisted or were drafted for war. Industry geared up to produce weapons, planes, tanks, and ships for the armed services. Rationing of food; clothes, especially shoes; rubber; and gasoline were commonplace throughout the nation. People were encouraged to buy war bonds to help support the war, and patriotism was at an all-time high. In many respects New Mexico was like the rest of the country, taking part in rationing, purchasing of war bonds, and sending men off to war. It was unlike the rest of the country, however, in that there was very little in the way of major industry in the state at that time. The state was primarily agricultural, with strong ranching and mining traditions. Albuquerque was a city of 35,000 people at the beginning of the war, before the growth of the high-tech industry, while Las Cruces was still a small town of around 8,000 people.¹ New Mexico was also unique in that it was the site of the creation of the first atomic bomb, at a laboratory in Los Alamos in northern New Mexico. This laboratory and testing area was the closest thing to a major industry in the state during the war years. Prisoners of war (POWs) from Germany and Italy played an important role in New Mexico from 1943 until after the end of the war. Many of these prisoners were used in agricultural settings throughout the state. With many of the able-bodied men in the military, there was a great need for men to do the hard work of planting and harvesting crops. Without the use of POW labor, many crops would not have been harvested or would have gone unplanted. Native Americans from the various pueblos in the state did their part to help in the war, from conducting scrap drives to sending their men off to war. All the people of New Mexico participated in the war effort, just as did Americans in the rest of the nation.

Even before the United States entered the war, the effects of it were being felt in New Mexico. Just as they had done previously in May 1917, the state legislature in November 1941 created a defense council for the state and appropriated funds to produce the increased amounts of goods and products needed for the public defense. Also, as had been done in the past, the governor appointed a women's committee to delegate some of the home front work to the women of the state. In 1917 the women performed such activities as creating "victory gardens," food preservation, and selling thrift stamps.

They also engaged in home and foreign relief. Children at that time had "earn and give clubs," and instead of war bonds there were Liberty bonds and thrift stamps. In 1917 the United States was already at war when the draft was enacted; in 1941 the draft was in place and men were being selected for military service.² Other efforts to aid war victims were started before the United States entered the war. In Las Cruces Mrs. Carmen Frudenthal was the first head of a program called Bundles for Britain, which knitted sweaters and afghans for the people of Britain. Elsa Frudenthal Altshool, who was in elementary school at the time, remembers herself and other girls helping with this knitting and even teaching some of the boys in school to knit as well.³ Members of the Dona Ana chapter of the Red Cross made shirts, dresses, infant clothes, robes, and pajamas to be sent to Europe for the people of England and France. Soon after the program started, it was learned that the clothes were not reaching the people of France, so everything was sent to England.⁴ Red Cross chapters in the state continued to knit garments for servicemen throughout the war. In 1943 the Santa Fe chapter knitted and shipped more than eight hundred items, including such things as sweaters, gloves, mufflers, and socks.⁵

The people of New Mexico did not wait for the war to begin before they started scrap drives to collect all kinds of metal. As early as 4 December 1941, citizens of Las Cruces began donating aluminum pots and pans to be melted down for national defense needs. The College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts (as New Mexico State University was then known) initially began to smelt the aluminum into bars but found the procedure impractical because of the need to sort the metal into different grades. The aluminum was instead shipped to a foundry better equipped to handle the sorting and smelting processes.⁶ Collection of scrap metal, rubber, cooking fats, and tin foil continued throughout the war. Everyone participated in these drives. Metal and rubber were needed for making tanks, planes, ships, and guns for the war. Nothing was wasted that could be reused to be made into something else.

Albuquerque held its first salvage drive of the war in May 1942. Everything from scrap metal to rubber to paper to rags was collected in this drive. Some people requested trucks to pick up large items such as discarded furniture, hot water tanks, stoves, and refrigerator freezing units.⁷ In July 1942 Governor John E. Miles proclaimed 8 July "scrap rubber day"⁸ and asked businesses

to allow their employees to take a half a day off from work to search for any scrap rubber. He also encouraged mayors in other parts of the state to do the same.⁹ In addition to scrap rubber, scrap metal drives were held. The Albuquerque Journal ran an advertisement from the War Production Board asking people to put their scrap metal out to be picked up for the war effort. The ad stressed the need for all kinds of metal for vital war machinery. These items could either be picked up in a drive or sold to a junk dealer.¹⁰ Even old keys were collected to be melted down into usable metals. Some keys contained 80 percent nickel silver, which was in great demand for the war industry. Other keys containing copper, brass and steel were needed as well.¹¹

Native Americans from the different pueblos did their part for the war effort. The Albuquerque Journal reported that the Zuni Pueblo collected 40,000 pounds of scrap metal and 13,000 pounds of rubber, and Laguna Pueblo collected 60,000 pounds of metal in a single drive. Cochiti, Santo Domingo, Santa Ana, Sandia, Zia, Jemez Pueblos, and ten other pueblos participated in the drive and collected a total of 25,000 pounds of scrap rubber.¹² In 1944 the people of Isleta Pueblo conducted another scrap drive. Everyone in the pueblo — even toddlers — participated in this effort. An Army platoon went out with trucks to collect the old automobiles and other pieces of salvageable metal the Indians pointed out to them, which even included a rusty boiler in Hell's Canyon in the Manzanos Mountains east of the pueblo. A total of ten truckloads of material were collected the first day of the operation.¹³

Scrap paper was in great demand throughout the war. As late as 1944, the Santa Fe New Mexican reported that the collection of waste paper was below the needed quotas for the mills to continue to operate to meet the needs of the military.¹⁴ In September the American Legion and the Boy Scouts had drives to collect waste paper and asked people to have their contributions ready for pickup at curbside. The paper was to be used to make boxes to transport necessary war materials.¹⁵

Other household items, such as fats from meat, were in demand for military use. The War Food Administration published an ad in the Santa Fe New Mexican in October 1944 to remind women that used fats were still in demand. Although the war in Europe had ended by this time, the government still required used cooking fat for the continuing war. This ad reminded women that the Japanese still controlled the areas in Asia and the Philippines that the United States had depended upon for oil.¹⁶

Therefore, more than ever, salvaging used cooking fats is an important resource on which the country must continue to lean in order to tide us over. Saving used fats is not a glamorous task. It takes effort. But it is one that only you, the American housewife, can perform for the country. We ask you to continue the wonderful job you are doing to help

speed final Victory.¹⁷

As a child, Elsa Altshool recalled taking a wagon around the neighborhood every week, collecting bacon and beef fat in a lard can for the war and also remembered collecting the tin foil from cigarette packages and making it into balls and turning it in for scrap. The Frudenthal family drove around on weekends looking for old rusted farm machinery, which they turned in for scrap.¹⁸

War bonds were another important part of the war effort at home. People were encouraged to purchase bonds and stamps throughout the war as a means to finance the war. On 9 December 1941, the Las Cruces Sun-News reported a noted increase in the amount of bonds and defense stamps purchased. Bonds could be bought at banks, while the defense stamps were carried at many retail stores, as well as the post office.¹⁹ A week later the Las Cruces city council voted to invest \$8,000 in national defense bonds. In the time since the attack on Pearl Harbor, Doña Ana County invested a total of \$93,894.45 in defense bonds and stamps, double what it had been before the United States entered the war.²⁰ In Santa Fe citizens were asked to give half a day's pay for the Red Cross war drive in order to meet the quota of \$3,700.²¹ In January 1942 a quota amount of ten million dollars for defense bonds was set for the state of New Mexico. Each county was given a goal amount of Series E bonds they were to sell, with the more populous counties having larger quotas. Bernalillo County was expected to raise \$835,000, while De Baca County only had to raise \$1,000. Doña Ana County's quota was \$45,000.²² Santa Fe County reported in August that it had surpassed its bond quota by a large margin. They were expected to raise \$193,300 in bond sales but instead sold \$231,265.50 in bond and stamp sales.²³ Bond drives continued throughout the war years. In 1944 the Fifth War Loan drive was started in June, but in Albuquerque, news of the D-Day invasion of Normandy on 6 June started the drive early. The drive was not scheduled to begin until several days later, but people began calling the chairman of the drive wanting to help with this latest effort.²⁴

Patriotic advertisements in the newspaper were common as a means to promote sales of bonds and stamps. Scenes of soldiers, sailors, and air corpsmen were popular images in these ads, which were sponsored by stores and utility companies encouraging the public to do their part for the war by purchasing war bonds and stamps.²⁵ They were visual reminders of who and what these bonds were supporting — the men in the military, fighting for America to defend our freedom. One advertisement from Albuquerque Gas and Electric Company showed a caricature of Admiral Yamamoto with a statement in Japanese, and the question "How are YOU answering the Admiral's threat?" The ad goes on to encourage people to help win the war by buying U.S. defense bonds and stamps.²⁶ It was not only advertisements that promoted



“My Pledge,” New Mexico Extension Service News, Rio Grande Historical Collections, New Mexico State University Library.

the sale of bonds. In 1943 the miniature Japanese submarine captured at Pearl Harbor was brought to New Mexico and put on display, with the admission price the cost of a war bond or stamp. In Las Cruces children could see the inside of the sub with the purchase of a \$0.25 war stamp, while adults could pay one dollar if they could not afford the price of a bond. If they could they were expected to buy a bond as their admission price.²⁷ This submarine was also put on display in Albuquerque, at which time they sold \$175,000 in war bonds and stamps. The Santa Fe New Mexican reported that one of the largest crowds in history came to see the submarine, and those who purchased large bonds were given souvenir pieces of the sub.²⁸ In 1944 a Japanese Zero fighter shot down at Guadalcanal was put on display in the plaza in Santa Fe to help raise funds for hospitals, canteens, and other activities for the Naval Auxiliary, which benefited the sailors, marines, coast guardsmen, and their families from the eleventh Naval district. The adult admission was \$0.35, and the cost for children was \$0.14.²⁹

Adults were not the only ones who could purchase bonds and stamps. Children were also encouraged to do so. Elsa Altshool remembered going to the movies, which cost a dime, and buying war bond stamps for \$0.10 as well.³⁰ Another long-time Las Cruces resident, Wanda Parton Beman, recalled bringing a dime to school every

Wednesday to buy a stamp to fill a war bond savings book.³¹

Santa Fe County held a War Fund drive in October 1944 to raise money for National Agencies through the State War Fund, which included relief for POWs and other foreign relief agencies. They used a sketch of an American POW with the caption “Where Time Doesn’t March On...” as the centerpiece for their ad in the newspaper.³² This was a powerful reminder of what some soldiers were experiencing and the need for the people at home to support these worthy causes.

Rationing of food and other everyday items was commonplace throughout the war. In January 1942 grocery stores in Albuquerque hoped to avoid rationing sugar at the time, as they had sufficient supplies, but by early February supplies had started to run out, and they asked consumers not to purchase any more than what was necessary for immediate use.³³ Residents of Bernalillo County began registering for their first ration books of the war on 4 May 1942. These were for their sugar ration, which entitled consumers to purchase a pound of sugar every two weeks. Individuals were allowed to have two pounds of sugar on hand at the time of registration. For every pound over that, a ration ticket would be torn from their book when they registered. If they had more than six pounds of sugar at the time, they would be allowed to register but would not be issued a ration book.³⁴ In Las Cruces the retail sale of sugar ended at midnight 27 April 1942. The use of ration books for sugar began on 4 May with residents registering for those books at the local grammar schools.³⁵ In Santa Fe the schools closed for a day to enable teachers to issue the sugar ration books, since they did not have enough time to handle all the people registering for the ration books in the time allotted after school hours.³⁶ Elsa Altshool remembers her family sometimes going to Ciudad Juarez, Mexico, to purchase sugar for themselves and their neighbors.³⁷

The Santa Fe New Mexican carried an advertisement sponsored by eight food stores to explain to people how to use their ration books. This ad listed the ration rules for consumers, as well as emphasizing the importance of rationing for the war effort, how it would control waste and prevent hoarding of items so everyone would have their fair share. It also reminded people to be familiar with how the ration books worked and to not lose them.³⁸ For anyone who lost his or her ration book the wait for a replacement could be quite long. In Bernalillo County officials announced that anyone who lost their book could apply for a replacement, but the replacement would not be made for two months after the application was made.³⁹

Sugar was not the only commodity rationed during the war. In New Mexico farmers were asked to increase their production of vital food products and to decrease less essential crops. Increases in beans, peanuts, potatoes, corn, sorghum, and long-staple cotton were requested. The state also asked for an increase in pigs, chickens, eggs, turkeys, beef cattle, and calves and a decrease in sheep and lambs.⁴⁰ The Secretary of Agriculture offered

incentive payments to farmers as a means to meet or exceed the 1943 Victory Food goals. Incentives were for crops such as soybeans, peanuts, grain sorghums, flax, sweet potatoes, and dried peas. Such crops were needed to make up for deficiencies in vegetable oils and proteins. The state war board believed that sweet potatoes, and to a lesser degree, peas and beans were the best hope for crops in the Mesilla Valley.⁴¹ One crop that fell under the rationing guidelines was pinto beans. Governor Dempsey of New Mexico asked the Secretary of Agriculture to exempt pinto beans from rationing restrictions or for export for civilian use. He contended that there was no adequate substitute for pinto beans and rationing them would cause great hardship to people within the state.⁴²

Because Las Cruces was an agricultural area, getting food was less difficult than in other parts of the country. Elsa Altshool recalls most people not having much problem obtaining food,⁴³ although Wanda Beeman remembers having a coupon box for the ration tickets, and people using ration stamps at the grocery store.⁴⁴ People were still encouraged to stretch their food points by home canning fruits and vegetables. The Southern Union Gas Company sponsored an advertisement to encourage such activities, promoting the fact that gas fuel would make the canning process easier.⁴⁵

Gasoline and automobile tires were among items rationed during the war. As early as January 1942 the government prohibited the sale of new automobiles and trucks until a rationing system could be established. Under the plan that was being worked out by the government, only essential civilians would be able to purchase cars.⁴⁶ Tire quotas were assigned as well. For the month of January, Dona Ana County was assigned a total of "thirty-nine new tires and thirty-three tubes for passenger cars, fifty-seven tires and forty-eight tubes for trucks and busses."⁴⁷ The county tire rationing board issued certificates for tires to people with urgent needs, such as physicians, surgeons, and visiting nurses, for the vehicles they used for professional needs, and for police, garbage disposal, mail service, and firefighting services vehicles. Farmers were able to get tires for farm machines, and ranchers could get tires for light trucks needed for ranching operations.⁴⁸

Rules to help save tires were published in the newspaper. They suggested such measures as checking air pressure in the tires every week, making sure there were valve caps on all the tires, inspecting each tire for any damage, rotating the tires regularly, and driving under forty miles an hour.⁴⁹

People who owned vehicles kept them for a long time because of the shortage of rubber and steel to make new cars and trucks. Wanda Beeman recalls her family having a car, either a 1938 or 1939 model, which they

kept until the late 1940s. Her father also owned a truck for his business, a dry cleaning store.⁵⁰

Elsa Altshool, whose father owned a farm, remembers farmers having ration cards for gasoline but said that downtown business owners did not get gasoline ration cards; instead they used bicycles for transportation.⁵¹ Another long-time Las Cruces resident, Dell Stern Zuckerman, whose father owned a department store, remembers the family having a car and a ration card for gasoline, but due to the gasoline rationing, they were not able to go to El Paso every week for temple services.⁵² Gasoline rationing was of great concern to many people in the state. New Mexico continued its national advertising campaign in the beginning of 1942, as the ads had been scheduled before the war began, but the tourism director cancelled later ads until the effects of the gasoline and tire rationing on tourism could be assessed. Governor Miles had other concerns as well. He was afraid that severe rationing would damage the economy of New Mexico. In addition to the loss of tourism, the state would also lose revenue from gasoline taxes, severance taxes, and income taxes.⁵³

The state Office of Price Administration director, S.M. Graf, promised that farmers, businessmen, and those who had the most urgent need for gasoline would receive preference when it came to gasoline rationing. Taxi drivers in Albuquerque were more concerned with getting rubber, car parts, and enough drivers. They had more business than they could handle. They were unable to add more cabs to their fleet because of regulations from the Office of Defense Transportation.⁵⁴

In Las Cruces gasoline ration cards were not issued until November 1942. At that time residents of Doña Ana County went to the schools to register for their ration cards. Those who owned tractors and cars had to get gasoline ration cards.⁵⁵ This need to conserve gasoline continued to be a matter of concern throughout the war. In 1944 an advertisement from the oil industry in the Las Cruces Sun-News reminded people that the needs of the military came first. The military need for gasoline had increased four times since 1942 in direct proportion to increased military activity. This ad asked people to ride share and not take more gasoline than was absolutely necessary. It was the only way to ensure everyone had the gasoline they needed.⁵⁶

The rationing of gasoline and rubber tires had some other effects on citizens of New Mexico. Cattlemen in some parts of the state returned to the practice of driving cattle to shipping points because of the problems in obtaining the necessary vehicles and gasoline to have them transported to the loading point. Ranchers in Roosevelt County were the first to begin this practice, but cattlemen in other counties soon followed suit.⁵⁷



Swastika, *New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts Yearbook, 1943*, Rio Grande Historical Collections, New Mexico State University Library.

Another effect that came from rationing vehicles, gasoline, and rubber was the bicycle ration that began in Bernalillo County in July 1942. People had to demonstrate that they had a legitimate occupation or were involved in war work to obtain certificates to purchase a new bicycle. Some eligible people were: those in messenger services; someone who had to walk at least three miles to and from work; those who spent at least one and a half hours commuting to work, which included walking and the use of public transportation; and those who could prove that public transportation was overcrowded.⁵⁸

The loss of transportation capabilities also affected the ability of families in Albuquerque to have their traditional fir trees for Christmas. Until 1940 people in Albuquerque could drive to Tijeras to purchase trees cut down by the Forest Service and sold as Christmas trees. Because of the great demand for trees, the Forest Service no longer allowed the cutting of trees in the Sandia Mountains. In 1941 trees were shipped from the West Coast and other areas in New Mexico, such as Mountainair and the Jemez district. Since the railroads were transporting war goods, and gasoline was rationed, the supply of trees

was severely restricted. People were allowed to cut piñon shrubs for Christmas on a cut and carry basis. Schools and churches were able to cut their own fir trees with permission from the Forest Service.⁵⁹

In addition to the difficulties caused by gasoline and rubber rations, clothing and shoes were rationed as well. People made over clothes into different outfits, especially for children. In July 1943 *Parents magazine* ran an advertisement advising women how to make over worn clothes. Old shirts could be turned into pinafores; worn wool bathrobes could be made into a nice suit for a child. Upholstery from an old car could be taken out, washed, and made into snowsuits. These were but a few suggestions for creating something useful from used fabrics when new material was not available.⁶⁰

Wanda Beeman recalls making do with old clothing because new clothes were not available, although they had the money to purchase them. She also remembers children having holes in their shoes because new ones were not available.⁶¹ Rationing affected everyone in the country. All kinds of foodstuffs and materials were needed for the war effort, so people made do with what they had so the country would have enough materials to make the necessary guns, planes, tanks, ships, uniforms, and shoes for the troops.

Women in New Mexico also had the worry about their family members who had been stationed in the Philippines at the beginning of the war. In Albuquerque eighty members of the Mothers Service Club had sons in the Philippines. When word of the fall of Bataan came, these women continued their war work while waiting to hear about the fate of their children.⁶² Once it became known that more than fourteen hundred men from New Mexico had been officially listed as lost at Bataan, people in the state began working to find ways to send food and supplies to these men. A group called the Bataan Relief Organization was set up to coordinate the effort. Almost two thousand dollars in contributions for the group was collected within the first week of the formation of the organization.⁶³ The Bataan Service Organization continued to send out information about men who were captured by the Japanese during the war. In April 1944 they mailed five thousand bulletins with information about prisoners of the Japanese to relatives in every state as well as to Cuba, Panama, and South America. The group tried to glean information about prisoners from any possible source, including returned men and from letters, to pass along to anxious family members.⁶⁴

In September the city of Albuquerque held a bond and stamp sale in honor of the men of New Mexico who were killed or captured at Bataan. They wanted to collect \$35,000 in war bonds and stamps "a sum equivalent to a \$25 bond for each of the 'Men of Bataan.'"⁶⁵

Women in New Mexico worked outside the home in non-traditional jobs during the war. They were needed to replace the men who enlisted or were drafted into the



Soldiers during Fourth of July Parade, Las Cruces, New Mexico, 1942, Rio Grande Historical Collections, New Mexico State University Library, Horton-Ballard Studio Collection, A74-88.

armed services. In Albuquerque one woman whose husband was in the Army worked as a machinist on bombers in the repair and maintenance shop at the Army Air Base. She had been working as a machinist in the East for thirteen years before moving to Albuquerque. The shop foreman believed that women were better for some jobs, particularly the machining of small, precision parts.⁶⁶ In Santa Fe a woman took over a laundry route for a man who went to work for the government during the war. She drove the truck and hauled the laundry without difficulty. The owner of the laundry company was impressed with how quickly she learned the job, and as the remaining men in his employ left, he stated he planned to replace them with women.⁶⁷

Another effect of the war was in population changes within the state. In 1943 the Census Bureau estimated that the state had lost over 34,000 people at the time. The biggest losses were in counties with agricultural or civilian occupations. McKinley County, with its coal mines, had a population increase of 34.2 percent. Other counties with air bases or other wartime industries also had population gains.⁶⁸

Shortly after the beginning of the war, Japanese who were not American citizens and Japanese-Americans were rounded up by the government to be interned during the war. In February 1942, the acting governor of the state, Ceferino Quintana, ordered the New Mexico

State Police to investigate reports that Japanese were coming to the state from California, where the FBI was in the process of raiding their homes. The governor was concerned that they would take jobs from citizens of New Mexico at a time when he claimed there was not enough work for the people who already lived here.⁶⁹ He was not the only person concerned with Japanese immigration to the state. The Santa Fe Woman's Club and Library Association opposed any colonization of Japanese-Americans in New Mexico.⁷⁰ The editor of the Santa Fe *New Mexican* went on record to oppose Japanese-Americans moving to the state. In part he stated,

No longer would we be able to boast of local color, of Spanish and Indian romance and influence which has proven such a valuable drawing card for this section of the southwest in years past.

However, the fact remains, that no matter how much we might oppose such a colonization plan, if the federal government selects New Mexico as a place in which to settle the Japanese-Americans; if the federal government considers such a plan of settlement to be in line with national defense and national policy, then it would be our duty as loyal, patriotic Americans to accept the decision and treat our unwanted fellow Americans with as much con-

sideration as possible under the circumstances.⁷¹

At the end of February 1942 Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camps were being readied for use in different parts of the state, although at the time no one would confirm or deny that such camps were to be used as internment camps for Japanese-Americans.⁷² In mid-March the first trainload of Japanese-Americans arrived in Santa Fe by train and was immediately taken to a detention camp under guard. The planned arrival of the train had not been announced in advance. People were not allowed to take any pictures of the arrivals and newsmen were not permitted to speak to them. A total of 425 Japanese-American internees were in the first group to arrive in Santa Fe. The camp was designed to hold five hundred CCC workers, but the Immigration Service expected an eventual population of at least fifteen hundred people.⁷³ Santa Fe was not the only location in New Mexico that held Japanese internees during the war. The camp at Lordsburg held Issei, first-generation Japanese who were not citizens of the United States. According to Molly Pressler, author of an unpublished manuscript on the Lordsburg camp, the first group of internees arrived in Lordsburg in June 1942. Only men ranging in age from teen-agers to the elderly were sent to this facility. The people of Lordsburg did not have much problem with having Japanese men at the camp, since many of them were older. One thing that upset some people was the fact that the internees received the same food, as did the men in the military. Things such as beef, sugar, butter, and shortening were readily available to them. The internees also had access to a canteen where they could purchase toiletry items and cigarettes with the three dollars a month in canteen coupons they were provided. There was some difficulty when a group of Japanese POWs were mistakenly sent to the camp. These prisoners were uncooperative and sat without speaking. They also ran up a Japanese flag over their barracks, which the guards removed. Once the War Department realized its mistake, the prisoners were sent elsewhere. The Japanese internees remained at the camp until they were relocated to camps in Idaho, Santa Fe, or Crystal City, Texas, in the summer of 1943 where they were reunited with their families.⁷⁴

In 1942 a group of 350 Japanese families asked permission to move to Deming, New Mexico, to begin farming. Dr. M.M. Nakadate, a Japanese-American citizen who had served in the Naval Reserve and been a detective for the Los Angeles police force, wrote for permission to settle in the area and for an Army escort for the move. The county sheriff was not in favor of such a move but promised to see that things remained peaceful if the government allowed them to come. At the same time, the residents of Maxwell, a farming community near Raton, were meeting to decide whether Japanese families would be allowed to move to that area to farm.⁷⁵ Governor Miles was opposed to any Japanese settlement in New Mexico and promised to use whatever legal means he could to

stop such an action. He noted that a 1921 amendment to the state constitution prohibited aliens ineligible for citizenship to own land in the state.⁷⁶ In May the attorney general of Colfax County filed a suit to prevent Japanese-Americans from buying land in that county. The suit was brought at the request of Governor Miles. The option to purchase the land expired soon after the suit was filed, and the purchase was never made.⁷⁷

Anti-Japanese sentiment was prevalent in Las Cruces as well. In 1943 and 1945 a thousand land owners in the Mesilla Valley signed pledges not to sell land to Japanese-Americans. An Anti-Jap Association was formed in Doña Ana County to prevent any Japanese immigration to the county.⁷⁸

In addition to having Japanese internees in New Mexico during the war, Italian and German POWs also were housed in camps within the state. The two largest camps were at Lordsburg and at Roswell. Before the United States entered the war, little thought had been given to what to do with prisoners captured on the battlefields. Some thought was then given to the internment of enemy aliens in the country, and plans were made for camps to house these people. Funding for such internment camps came on 8 December 1941. By the summer of 1942, the government decided to transport Axis prisoners to the United States. Construction of the camp outside of Roswell began in late spring 1942, and on 7 September the first group of 250 German prisoners arrived. The camps at Lordsburg and Roswell each had the capacity to hold forty-eight hundred men. In 1943 more than 175,000 German and Italian prisoners were sent to the United States. From then until the end of the war, both camps were almost continuously at their capacity.⁷⁹

Before the POWs arrived in New Mexico, students were used to harvest crops in the state. In July 1942 girls from the State College in Las Cruces indicated their willingness to help pick cotton.⁸⁰ Wanda Beeman remembers the cotton recess from school, which lasted for one to two weeks, when the children helped with the cotton picking.⁸¹ The United States Employment Service asked businesses to close four afternoons a week to allow employees to help with the cotton harvest. The employers would pay the employees their regular wages, while money earned from the picking would go to war bonds or stamps.⁸² The Albuquerque Chamber of Commerce also helped in this effort to find laborers to pick cotton. They appealed to area businessmen to aid in locating unskilled workers to help in the harvest.⁸³ Students in Portales were utilized to help with the harvest of the bean and broomcorn crops. Farmers were concerned that much of the bean crop would be lost if they did not have enough pickers for the harvest.⁸⁴

When the Army announced that POWs would be available for contract labor, farmers all over the state

applied to use them. Distance from the camps was a problem, so branch camps were set up throughout the state, frequently in old Civilian Conservation Corps camps, although school buildings, warehouses, and armories were also used. Camps were eventually established in Artesia, Dexter, Mayhill, Albuquerque, Melrose, Clayton, Carlsbad, Portales, Santa Fe, Clovis, Las Cruces, Hatch, Fort Bayard, Deming, Anthony, and Alamogordo. Employers had to agree to pay an hourly wage equal to the prevailing minimum wage for free labor in the area.⁸⁵ In August 1943 the first group of 125 Italian POWs arrived in Las Cruces to begin working on farms to pick cotton. They were housed in the old CCC camp east of town. The following week an additional forty-five Italian POWs were expected to begin work in the Mesilla Valley as well.⁸⁶ Later that month, the POWs were unexpectedly withdrawn from the Mesilla Valley by order of the Army. The lieutenant in charge of the camp announced he had been ordered to return the prisoners to Lordsburg. In early September the War Department eased the ban on Italian prisoners working so close to the Mexican border and by 7 September the prisoners were returned to the valley to help with the cotton harvest.⁸⁷

Prisoners of war were also used for agricultural labor in Bernalillo County. The old CCC camp in Rio Grande Park in Albuquerque was readied for prisoners by September 1943. Initial reports indicated they would receive 150 Italian prisoners for farm labor, but in October word was received that Germans would be substituted for the Italians. Germans were at Camp Roswell, which was closer than Lordsburg, where the Italians were kept. People in the area did not like the idea of German POWs being housed at Rio Grande Park because it was in a residential area. The issue was settled when it was learned that Italian prisoners would indeed come to Albuquerque. By 1943 the Italians were considered friendly, while animosity toward the Germans increased. On 15 October 1943, 165 Italian POWs arrived in Albuquerque from Texas. In addition to farm labor, the prisoners also cleaned hundreds of miles of irrigation ditches in the Rio Grande Conservancy District.⁸⁸

Not all the farmers who hired POWs were happy with the work done by the prisoners. One farmer in Carlsbad complained that the prisoners only picked on average sixty-five to seventy pounds of cotton per day, while women and children picked 150-200 pounds in the same time period. Other farmers voiced similar complaints and the Army had to look into the situation. The Army said the poor performance was due to lack of supervision by the farmers, but they did allow farmers to pay lower wages for the work until productivity improved.⁸⁹

Memories of POWs in southern New Mexico are varied. Elsa Atshool, whose father owned a large farm in Las Cruces, recalls that her father would not hire any POWs laborers because the family was Jewish.⁹⁰ John Augustine, who became the Dona Ana County agriculture extension agent in 1937, remembers the Chamber

of Commerce and the Farm Bureau actively working to get prisoner labor for the Mesilla Valley. Italian prisoners came first and were later replaced by German POWs. He recalls the Germans required more guards and had to be watched more closely than the Italians. "And a lot of them would refuse to work."⁹¹ Other people had different memories of the German and Italian prisoners. Marcel Mortensen recalled the camp being built in Lordsburg, and he and some friends were hired as apprentice carpenters to work on the camp. Once it was completed, he returned to work on his uncle's farm. His uncle grew onions, potatoes, and grain and required extra help during harvest. He recalls driving his uncle's pickup truck to bring POWs, most likely Italians, from the Lordsburg camp. He has a vivid memory of the prisoners singing as they drove through town.⁹² John Navar's family owned a dairy farm during the war that employed German and Italian prisoners. He recalls the Germans as diligent workers and thrifty, picking up bent nails and straightening them for reuse instead of throwing them away. He remembers the Italians as singing and playing the guitar. The prisoners did general maintenance work, fed cattle, and cleaned the barn. He recalls it as a good experience.⁹³ Felipe Guzman worked on Stahmann Farms during his summer vacations starting at age fourteen. He remembers working with German POWs picking melons that were planted between the pecan trees. He found ways to communicate with one German prisoner named Walter Schmid. Although they had a language barrier, he learned some phrases in German. After the war, he wrote to Schmid but never received the letter Walter wrote in return. They eventually met fifty-four years after they had worked together on the farm.⁹⁴ Alfonso Guzman was a paperboy who delivered the Las Cruces Sun-News newspaper to the camp on Lohman Avenue twice a week. He recalls the addition of barbed wire and spotlights to the CCC camp to make them into a camp for the POWs. He also recalls the Germans and Italians arriving close together. He said the Italians sang and played soccer, while the Germans were quiet. The Germans were more feared than the Italians, as they were "believed to be a mean people," while "the Italians were considered to be nice guys, who didn't want to fight."⁹⁵ Morgan Nelson left his parent's farm and joined the service in 1941. There were still German prisoners working on the farm when he returned in 1945. He recalls the Germans helping to put in an underground pipeline from the reservoir while he supervised. He said there were both Italian and German prisoners working on the farm, but his dad preferred the Germans. His parents kept in touch with some Germans by letter, and in the 1970s they went to Germany to visit with Karl Dresser, who had worked on the farm during the war. He also said that one German prisoner, Rudi Poethig, immigrated to Roswell after the war, where he still lived.⁹⁶



German Prisoners of War, Roswell, New Mexico, ca. 1942-45, Rio Grande Historical Collections, New Mexico State University Library, RG94-009.

Not all the POWs worked on farms. Some Italian prisoners worked on the Bar T Ranch near Lordsburg during the war. They learned how to be cowboys. They helped with the cattle branding, throwing and holding calves for branding and castrating, and roping and dragging cattle. They also helped build corrals, one of which still stands. Rex Kip also remembers prisoners quarrying limestone for use in camp sidewalks and later taken by townspeople for other things.⁹⁷

Prisoners of war also worked on a number of different projects within the state. They worked on Roswell's flood control project and helped with construction of the Artesia Servicemen's Club. They also repaired buildings and planted shrubbery at the state fairgrounds in Albuquerque. Others worked on the municipal golf course in Santa Fe, while still others worked for the State Fish and Wildlife Service at the Dexter Fish Hatchery. Some even worked at state military installations in order to free up service men for other duties.⁹⁸

There were escape attempts by prisoners in the New Mexico camps. Molly Pressler, in her manuscript, attributes some of these attempts to "overcrowding, Nazi

influence, uncooperativeness and boredom."⁹⁹ Escape attempts were relatively rare, and usually did not involve more than a few men at a time. In the main camps security was extensive, with the perimeters being guarded by armed men. It was easier to escape from the work camps around the state, as prisoners could simply hide in the fields. There were escapes that ended in violence, such as an escape from the Camp Roswell. A rancher from Artesia shot and killed one escapee and wounded another when he caught them trying to steal his truck. Escapees who did get across the border to Mexico were caught by the Mexican authorities and returned to the United States.¹⁰⁰

When the war in Europe ended the camp in Lordsburg was closed. Along with the closing of this camp came the realization that the socioeconomic structure of the town would change as well; enlisted personnel and prisoners left by the thousands. On 15 June 1945, the War Department made the Lordsburg camp surplus property and the camp stood empty, a sign that the war was finally coming to an end.¹⁰¹

When the war ended in May 1945, so did the ship-

ment of POWs. The repatriation of prisoners became a controversial issue. Organized labor leaders demanded that all POWs be returned immediately, while others opposed this move. Farm laborers were still in short supply, and with German prisoners still under contract, removing them at that time would have caused great hardship to farmers who relied on them to harvest crops. Nor was the American military government in Germany prepared to handle an influx of well-fed Nazis to their homeland at that time. On 26 January 1946, President Harry S. Truman issued a sixty-day stay on the repatriation of prisoners working in critical areas of the economy, which included agriculture. The POWs working in Albuquerque were removed in March 1946 with no advance notice. Suddenly the prisoners were gone with little evidence of having been in Albuquerque.¹⁰²

Both the base camps in New Mexico, as well as all the branch camps were closed by the beginning of March 1946, which quietly closed a chapter in New Mexico history. The buildings at Lordsburg and Roswell were sold as surplus or taken over by the military for the air base in Roswell. Some POWs continued to correspond with families after the war, and some offered to return to work for their former employers if they could help them obtain the necessary immigration forms and help with the cost of transportation. Still others came back as tourists in the 1950s and 1960s, and a couple returned as permanent residents of the state.¹⁰³

In addition to agriculture, New Mexico contributed to the war effort in another, very different sphere of activity. Much of the work of the Manhattan Project, the building of the atomic bomb, took place in Los Alamos, a town that did not exist before 1942. Late in that year the Army took over the Los Alamos Ranch School, a school for boys, on the Pajarito plateau, northeast of Santa Fe. Here the Army Engineers created a town for the workers on the project and their families. Women shopped for food and used ration books just like people all over the country. People lived in dormitories or in apartments. A mess hall and cafeteria were available for meals. There was an elementary and high school for children of the workers and a nursery school for younger children. Outdoor activities were available both summer and winter. In the summer baseball, tennis, and golf were played, the latter on a nine-hole course built by volunteers. In the winter people could ski or skate. There were two movie theaters and a local radio station. There were even different social organizations formed by people with similar interests.¹⁰⁴

Secrecy was everything at Los Alamos. The site was called Manhattan District in Washington, in Santa Fe it was Site Y, and on the mesa, Los Alamos. Other than those places, it was not to be mentioned. For the workers and their families, the only mailing address they could give was P.O. Box 1663, Santa Fe, New Mexico.¹⁰⁵

It was not until after the first atom bomb had been dropped on Hiroshima in August 1945 that the public

learned about Los Alamos and the secret project scientists had worked on since 1943. Speculation about what was happening at the site had been rampant. Guesses and rumors about the project ranged from gas warfare to rockets to jet propulsion to death rays and atomic bombs.¹⁰⁶

When the atomic bomb was tested at a remote corner of the Alamogordo air base on 16 July 1945, the blast was heard and felt over a wide area. In various parts of the state the blast was attributed to an earthquake, a meteor, and an airplane crash. Windows were rattled in Gallup, more than two hundred miles away from the test site. In Silver City, 135 miles west of Alamogordo, windows rattled and a forest ranger at a tower on Lookout Mountain saw a flash of fire followed by an explosion and smoke. No lives were lost in the testing and property damage was reportedly negligible.¹⁰⁷

After the war ended, the parents of Dr. Richard P. Feynman, one of the scientists who worked on the project, released a letter their son had written, describing the sight of the explosion.

after the first blinding flash, he wrote, the sky was lit up with a bright, yellow light — the earth appeared white. The yellow gradually became darker, turning to orange. In the sky I saw white clouds form above the gadget, caused by the sudden expansion following the blast wave. The expansion cools the air and fog — clouds form — we had expected this. The orange got deeper, but near the gadget it still was bright, a big orange flaming ball-like mass. This started to rise, leaving a column of smoke much like the stem of a mushroom. The orange mass continued to rise, the orange to fade and flicker. A great ball of smoke and flame three miles across like a great oil fire billowed and churned, now black smoke, now orange flame. Soon the orange died out and only churning smoke remained, enveloped in a wonderful purple glow. Gradually this disappeared, the ball of smoke rising majestically, slowly upward, leaving a trail of dust behind it. Then suddenly there was a sharp loud crack followed by a resounding thunder. What was that? cried a man at my left, a War Department representative. That is the thing! I yelled back. He had forgotten that sound takes much longer than light to travel. What he had seen so far was a silent picture — the sound track for which was one minute and forty seconds late.¹⁰⁸

This same scientist reported in the same letter that pictures taken later showed that the melted sand created a green, glass-like glaze that covered an area almost a mile in diameter.¹⁰⁹ A reporter that visited the site two

months later described the “rapidly disintegrating glass fused on the surface of the soil” and the depression where the bomb exploded as being a saucer with the center ten feet deeper than the edges twelve hundred feet away. He said Dr. J. Robert Oppenheimer explained that the earth was pushed down rather than being excavated. The time the reporter had at the site was limited due to the continued presence of radiation from the test. No animal life, such as grasshoppers, ants and other insects commonly found in the area were present.¹¹⁰

In early September 1945 Secretary of Interior Harold L. Ickes took steps to make the test site of the first atomic bomb a national monument. Secretary Ickes cited the success of the bomb in ending the war and the skills and ingenuity of the scientists and workers involved in the project. He stated, “It is only fitting, therefore, that a national monument be established at the site of the first non-laboratory use of atomic power to commemorate that great historic and scientific event.”¹¹¹

When the war in Europe ended, residents of New Mexico celebrated with restrained joy. In Albuquerque churches planned to conduct special services and to keep their doors open throughout the day. Liquor stores were to be closed after the official announcement and to remain closed the next day. But people were reminded that there were still men fighting the Japanese and they were not getting a holiday. In Santa Fe the cathedral bells were rung and special services were held. Some stores in Las Cruces closed, but the city was waiting for the official announcement before planning any celebration.¹¹²

When the war finally ended with V-J Day, the people of New Mexico celebrated with parades, whistles, fire sirens and traffic jams. For New Mexico, it was atonement for the sixteen hundred men from the 200th Coast Artillery Regiment who were lost on Bataan and Corregidor. In Albuquerque initially there was silence until a single car sounded his horn, which quickly set off the celebration. Confetti was thrown from office windows and strangers smiled at one another. Office workers on their way home gathered on corners and in the streets. Within half an hour of the announcement, bars and liquor stores began closing and planned to remain closed for the next day. Federal, county, and city offices closed the next day and federal employees had a holiday the following day as well. Retail stores were to close the next day per previously made plans. Special religious services were planned all over town. Japanese internees at the camp in Santa Fe received the news of Japan’s surrender quietly, and the routine of the camp was not changed, according to the camp spokesman.¹¹³

With the war over, people began to return to their homes after being laid off from their war jobs. The numbers of automobiles traveling through Albuquerque increased in the week following V-J Day. Tourist courts reported they were full and a number of cars would turn into them until they saw the “no vacancy” signs. One

lodge reported that people were sleeping in their cars along the road and they were turning away people every night. The Chamber of Commerce reported they had an increase in the number of inquiries from people who wanted to visit places they had been unable to do so because of gasoline rationing. Others who had been traveling to specific destinations now wanted to see scenic sights in New Mexico now that gasoline was no longer limited.¹¹⁴

People in New Mexico made sacrifices during the war, not buying new clothes or shoes, but bought bonds and stamps for the war effort. The POW program that brought Germans and Italians to the state proved to be of great assistance for the farmers, allowing them to plant and harvest crops. Native Americans within the state did their part for the war effort, participating in scrap drives and sending men to war. The building of the town of Los Alamos and the labs brought jobs and high tech industry to the state. The state lost a number of its sons on Bataan and Corregidor, and while the number may not have been as great as that of other states, it was still a great loss to the people of New Mexico. New Mexico did recover from the war and continued to grow and attract industries, and also continued its agricultural traditions.

MARIE TIGHE is a graduate student in the History Department at New Mexico State University.

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The Bataan Death March

By Paul Smith

When I was walking down the road sixty years ago, to think some day there would be a monument out there eight feet high, commemorating what we did and what happened so that people can see it, my name is going to be up there in bronze.” Weldon Hamilton, an Air Force veteran of WW II, laughed and said, “I mean it’s incredible!” What was Mr. Hamilton involved in that compels someone else to write his name in bronze? What road did he walk down? The war in the Pacific began abruptly in December 1941 with the bombing of Pearl Harbor and nearly simultaneous bombing of the Philippines, Malaya, Guam, and Wake Island by the Japanese. The imperialistic Japanese government, having already expanded west into China, wanted to establish their presence east in the Pacific. The military presence of the U.S. and Great Britain stood in their way. Part of the reason for the timing of the attacks was that Great Britain was already involved in the war with Germany. Japan’s Admiral Yamamoto had said at the beginning of the war that for his country to win the war, they would have to take over the Pacific in six months. Japan would make a great effort to occupy the Philippines because of the strategic bases it offered for the invasion of Australia. As soon as Japan attacked the Philippines, the U.S. rushed troops over to retake the islands. The U.S. plan was to attack the superior Japanese forces and then withdraw into the Bataan Peninsula where they would hold out as long as possible. The mix of American and Filipino troops held out for five months to prevent Japan from accomplishing its six-month goal. The valiant effort of the troops in the Philippines changed the whole direction of the war. But in the end the largest number of Americans, (approximately ten thousand), ever surrendered.

With the capture of the 76,000 American and Filipino troops, the Japanese needed to move the prisoners. On 11 April 1942, hundreds of Filipino officers were tied to poles and executed with bayonets. Soldiers were then formed into columns and forced to march. Survivor and Las Cruces resident Weldon Hamilton says there were many marches, since groups of five hundred or fewer were started at different times (he had been walking for two days before reaching the starting point of the march.) Given no food and often bayoneted if they tried to get water, many died of thirst in the hot tropical sun. Mr. Hamilton recalls, “You had to be ingenious to get water. I worked with two other guys to get water. We had an old army pitcher and one of us would run up with the pitcher and while the other guys were getting their canteens under the spigot we’d get a pitcher under there. So we always got a little bit of water. It was canteen washings but it was water.” Another survivor, Abie Abraham, wrote about a big rain that relieved their thirst.

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If any soldier got tired and lagged behind, he was instantly shot or bayoneted by the Japanese guards. Mr. Hamilton and another soldier carried a Filipino soldier for a whole day. He also remembers running through an area where Americans were shelling Bataan from Corregidor, a nearby island. After six days and sixty miles, the 56,000 troops (about 20,000 fewer than started) made it to the prison camps. Many more would die in the camps from effects of the March. The Bataan Death March impacted New Mexico in a deep way. Twenty percent of the Americans who marched were New Mexicans. “Totally out of proportion” compared to other states, says Mr. Hamilton. Nine hundred New Mexicans died on the March. Because they were mostly National Guardsmen, they were a close knit group. They’d gone to school together. They knew each other’s families.

Doña Ana County decided not to forget. Probably the biggest example is the annual re-enactment march near White Sands. More than three thousand people are expected this year, the tenth year the march has been held. Alan Fisher, a participant in the march for the last five years, says the reasons he marches are to commemorate the dead and to encourage others to get a glimpse of the suffering. Mr. Hamilton marvels, “All these people, you just can’t believe that they’re young people, most of them. They’re so thrilled about it, willing to do twenty-six miles. They get enormous blisters on their feet. And they know why. That’s the amazing thing.”

A permanent reminder has been constructed at Veterans Park on Roadrunner Parkway in Las Cruces. It features the footprints of actual survivors with their names in bronze, more leading up to the monument than going away from it.

Mr. Hamilton concludes, “I feel just totally honored to have the opportunity for us the survivors to talk about it. But to think all those guys that died, that somebody’s thinking about them. They just didn’t die over there on the ground without somebody knowing.”

PAUL SMITH is home schooled by his parents Geof and Lynn Smith. Paul’s award winning paper on the Home of the Good Shepherd was published in the *Southern New Mexico Historical Review* in 2001.

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Return To The Battlefield: Former Enemies Retrace Their WWII Footsetps Together

By Donna Eichstaedt

Introduction

Two World War II veterans from Las Cruces, New Mexico, one a former member of the German Luftwaffe Flak Corp, the other an American infantryman with the 63rd Infantry Division, meet for the first time in Professor Donna Eichstaedt's U.S. History class in April 2001. They discover they fought within 5 kilometers of each other, first in France and then in Germany during the final months of the war. A bond is forged, correspondence with German residents of the region in which both served is begun, and the result is the publication of their book, *Once Enemies, Now Friends*. Within months, it is published in German (*Einst Feinde — huete Freunde*) and the two veterans, Charles S. Miles and Felix Pfaeffle, prepare to return to the places in Germany and France where they fought, this time together, as friends.

It is 11 May 2002, fifty-seven years and three days after V-E Day. The two veterans, Miles and Pfaeffle, leave their homes in Las Cruces, New Mexico, and fly together on a nostalgic trip to Germany. Visits to the villages and towns where each man served are planned, as well as evening programs, book signings and dinners. Their historic return to Europe to retrace their WWII footsteps is becoming a reality.

(THE FOLLOWING IS AN ACCOUNT BY THE BOOK'S EDITOR, HISTORY PROFESSOR, DR. DONNA EICHSTAEDT, WHO, ALONG WITH HER HUSBAND, DR. CARL EICHSTAEDT, ACCOMPANIED CHUCK AND FELIX TO EUROPE IN MAY, 2002.)

Saturday, 11 May

We drive to the airport in the wee hours of the new day. Security is efficient but non-invasive so our waiting time is minimal. Soon we are heading for Dallas, Texas to catch our plane to Frankfurt, Germany. Once inside the Dallas airport, we enjoy a light lunch at "TGI Fridays." Ironies begin early, as Chuck Miles notices a Southern Cal University pennant on the wall directly in front of him, his alma mater. After lunch we head for our gate, only a short distance from the restaurant. Soon we're allowed to board and the realization that "this is it" sets in. Chuck, with his usual wry sense of humor, looks back over his shoulder at the rest of us as he steps onto the plane and quips, "Well, I suppose it's too late to back out now!" And it is. We have planned this trip for many months while writing the book — we are all committed! Each of us has important reasons for making this pilgrimage, and there is no hesitation.

We leave Dallas around three p.m., and our huge Boeing 777 rises effortlessly to 32,000 feet. Personal TV screens and one large one in front tell us exactly where we are and how long before we land in Frankfurt. Soon the outline of Cape Cod comes into view from the window. Shortly we're somewhere over the Atlantic Ocean near Halifax, Nova Scotia. Land disappears and there is only a massive sea below us. Dinner is served as we near Iceland, and afterwards a calm sets in among the passengers; for many it's time to sleep. We had left Las Cruces at 6 a.m., just as the sun was rising over the Organ Mountains. What a sight! It is clear why many of us love living in Las Cruces. But off we go to Europe — we have people to meet, places to visit and re-visit, and later another story to tell.

Our seats are near each other, Carl and I together in a two-seat row; Chuck in front of us and Felix across the aisle on the end of a middle row. Chuck's seat partner is a lovely German woman who brings yet another irony to his life. As Chuck was fighting in France during December of 1944 and January 1945, her father, a German soldier, was making the "supreme sacrifice" for his "fatherland" in the last great German push of WWII. "The Battle of the Bulge," a hundred miles to the north in the Ardennes region of Belgium.

It's getting dark, and it's quiet in the cabin except for the drone of the two huge engines. The TV screen tells us we'll be in Frankfurt in about six hours — unbelievable! On-screen movies and music on our headphones make the trip time pass quickly.

Sunday, 12 May

It's early morning as we descend through billowy gray clouds over Frankfurt. It's raining lightly as our plane floats down to a graceful landing on a wet runway. We follow the crowd, pick up our luggage, walk painlessly through customs, and soon spot our host and book's translator, Dr. Karl Heinz-Kraft.

Accompanied by his fourteen-year-old daughter, Thea, Dr. Kraft hustles us through the airport to a large passenger van he has borrowed for our arrival. Soon we are speeding along the autobahn (and I do mean speeding!) toward the ancient city of Heidelberg. We drive around the city, catching a glimpse of the historic University, while looking for a parking place. When none is found, Dr. Kraft drops us at what looks like a strip mall adjacent to the Bahnhof (railroad station) for a bathroom

stop. But in Europe, WCs, (water-closets/public toilets) often cost money, and none of us has any Euros (New European money). Fortunately there was a money exchange booth nearby and we're able to get our hands on the shiny, new European coins. We give up on Heidelberg, and once again are tearing along the Autobahn toward our "soon to be adopted town"... Moeckmuehl, Germany.

Shortly, we leave the Autobahn (for which I, for one, am thankful!) and are meandering along winding roads through one small hamlet after another. Wheat, clover, and grass fields surround each village and bright yellow "oil seed" (rape seed) meadows color the landscape. Before long we arrive at Moeckmuehl, Dr. Kraft's hometown and check into the charming eighteenth-century Hotel Wurttemberger Hof directly behind his house. After a delicious lunch of asparagus (Spargel) soup, Spaetzle and Schnitzel, we embark on a tour of Moeckmuehl led by Dr. Kraft. This is Chuck's second visit to Moeckmuehl, having entered the town with his I Company, Sixty-third Infantry Division, U.S. Army, in April of 1945. He is now back - this time under more pleasant circumstances. We walk several blocks to the village cemetery where Dr. Kraft, a researcher of local history, points out the locations of the invading Allied troops. Just above the cemetery the remains of an old orchard can be seen. Chuck remembers that he moved cautiously through that orchard on that day in April and took cover behind a wall marking the edge of the cemetery. The wall is no longer there, but a smaller one sits exactly where the taller one once was. Chuck is thinking hard about that day and remembers enemy bullets and artillery shells sailing overhead. He is sure it is the exact spot where he hid behind the wall and later entered a house nearby. Dr. Kraft confirms that the house next to the cemetery is indeed the same one there during the war. A local account tells of a German 88mm artillery shell entering the front door of the house and exiting from a side window. This matches Chuck's memory, as two of his fellow soldiers were killed by the shell in spite of it being a dud. Chuck remembers being in the cellar with his squad and escaping injury. Another villager had told Dr. Kraft she remembered the day the "Amis" (Americans) arrived in Moeckmuehl and recalled that they looked like rabbits coming down the hill above the cemetery. I Company continued on through Moeckmuehl to Lampoldshausen by way of Zuettlingen - only a few miles away through a thick forest. Tomorrow should bring more memories!

We're tired from the long flight, but not too tired to enjoy cake and coffee at Dr. Kraft's house with his lovely wife Birgit and two very sweet daughters, Thea (fourteen) and Nora (nine). Later still, the men retreat to the hotel bar and enjoy a nightcap with Ilse Saur, a local historian who is to be our guide for a tour of Moeckmuehl tomorrow morning.

Monday, 13 May

We all sleep well and in the morning enjoy a delicious

European breakfast of fresh hard rolls, breads, cheeses, cold cuts, jams, juices, coffee and soft-boiled eggs (on request). After breakfast we are met by Dr. Kraft and Ilse Sauer who are attired in full eighteenth-century century regalia and proceed with them to the Rathaus (town hall) for a meeting with the village Burgermeister (mayor) Herr Ulrich Stammer. Parts of the building date back to the 1500s. The Burgermeister is attentive to us and seems interested in why we are in Moeckmuehl. After a treat of juice and pretzels, we depart with gifts of champagne and wine, four-color brochures of Moeckmuehl, and a hearty handshake. It is a great welcome to our stay. From the Rathaus we follow Dr. Kraft and Ilse through the streets of Moeckmuehl and into one of the towers attached to the wall that surrounds the town. In the tower we are shown a twenty-foot deep hole, where witches were kept until their executions in medieval times. We now follow Dr. Kraft and Ilse up the hundred stairs to Moeckmuehl's Goetz von Berlichingen castle, which now uncharacteristically houses a software company. From the castle one has a view of the whole town, and once again the war is brought back into focus. It seems natural that invading troops would aspire to high places from which to observe movement in the village. It was Chuck's I Company that climbed the hills to the castle, and it was one of his fellow infantrymen who remembers being wounded while standing against that castle wall. We conclude our tour in Ilse's garage where her jovial husband produces his own William's Pear Schnapps. The most courageous of our group sample his product.

After our tour, we have time for a little personal shopping and enjoy a stroll through Moeckmuehl's small but interesting downtown sector. We try to find gifts for family and friends back home and visit the local bookstore to see if our book is displayed. It is... but when Chuck pantomimes to the clerk that it is he on the cover of the book prominently displayed next to the cash register, he quickly notices she is unimpressed. Perhaps she just doesn't understand what he is trying to tell her, or perhaps she doesn't believe him, or perhaps she is just unimpressed. We hurry back to the hotel and get ready for a five p.m. drive on the backroads to the town of Eckartshausen. As we wind through forests and villages, Chuck is earnestly surveying the wooded areas on each side of the road. He recalls that when leaving Moeckmuehl, his unit passed through a dense forest. Dr. Kraft believes this was probably their path. We are moving fast now, winding through hamlets, around sharp curves and over hills. Suddenly we are at the rail station in Eckartshausen, a prominent place mentioned in the book for two reasons.

It was between 2 and 5 April 1945, at this rail station where three boxcars of concentration camp prisoners were stalled for several days without food or water. In the story, "Three Days in April," Allied bombers had strafed the train, forcing the engine to move on to the next town leaving the boxcars on a side rail in Eckartshausen. Fear

of more bombings of the town resulted in the train being pushed down an incline to the next village. Meeting us at the station was Hans Roth, a boy of seventeen in April 1945, and the son of Karl Roth, one the people in the town who finally brought food and water to the victims in the boxcars. Mr. Roth speaks extensively to us about those days and explained in detail how the boxcars were manually pushed off the main track and onto a siding for the three days prior to being pushed out of town completely. He remembers the suffering of the people in the boxcars and his eyes fill with tears as he recalls their cries for help. We are moved by his memories and his compassion.

It was also in the outskirts of Eckartshausen where Chuck was wounded on 20 April as the Americans entered the town. Had they arrived fifteen days earlier, the prisoners in the boxcars would no doubt have been saved. From the station our entourage is taken to the edge of Eckartshausen to an open field next to a narrow road. It is here, Mr. Roth tells us, that Chuck's I Company approached the town, facing small arms fire from several directions.

Chuck quickly realizes this is the spot where he and his squad were progressing forward, "shooting from the hip" in a tactic called "marching fire." Today, as on 20 April 1945, Chuck steps into an open and freshly planted field toward a line of small trees. The trees were not there on that fateful day in 1945, but the road to our right was. "This is it," he tells us, "I was wounded right here and tried to crawl to the road on the right." Unable to reach his goal then, he slumped into a German foxhole and was joined by an American medic. It was right here that the war, though not military service, was over for Chuck Miles. And here we are on the exact spot Chuck has pictured in his mind and contemplated for some fifty-seven years. As in the book, Chuck tells our group that he has not fired a weapon since that day. It is another moving moment for us all.

Also meeting us in Eckartshausen is Dr. Wolfgang Schlauch, professor emeritus of history from Eastern Illinois University and a resident of Las Cruces. Professor Schlauch was raised in nearby Baechlingen and, like Felix Pfaeffle, immigrated to the United States in the 1950s. He is visiting family near Eckartshausen and will share most of our week of activities with us. Also joining us is the publisher of the German edition of the book, Siegfried Baier, and his charming wife, Dietlinde.

After several hours in Eckartshausen, we speed toward Ilshofen, the site of our first evening presentation. The room is packed, we are seated at a speakers' table complete with our scripts, microphones, and bottles of sparkling water and fruit juices. The Lord Mayor of Ilshofen talks longer than expected, but eventually we are introduced and begin our stories. Dr. Kraft highlights the book, and I speak on the origin of Chuck and Felix's historic meeting. Chuck and Felix read excerpts from the

book, evoking intense listening from the audience. Professor Schlauch serves as interpreter and fields questions from the audience. One of the first questions directed to me is in German, but it is obvious from the tone of voice and the familiar words "Hiroshima" and "Nagasaki" the questioner is asking why the United States felt the need to drop the atomic bombs. I begin to answer his question but another member of the audience stands up and makes it clear to the first that these kinds of questions are irrelevant to the purpose of our meeting. Dr. Schlauch agrees that it need not be discussed and more questions follow. The evening progresses quickly and afterwards we stay to sign books. Many of the eighty-some people in the audience speak or understand English, and there are a couple of Americans in attendance, one of whom is an exchange student from New York.

Afterwards, we are ushered down the street to a charming inn where we are treated to an excellent German dinner. Tall beers and white wine are enjoyed by all!

Tuesday, 14 May

We are up early and on our way to Lampholdshausen, another town in which Chuck fought before being wounded. At the edge of town we are met by several local "historians," two of whom were young boys when the Americans arrived. They take us to the thick woods on the west edge of town, a forest in which both Germans and Americans took refuge during the final bitter months of the war. It is dark in the woods and the trees are close together and gigantic. Our local guides, Rolf Meister, Adolf Frank, and Hermann Henninger, want to show us old German foxholes they remember playing in as children. We crunch through leaves and pine cones until we come to several low areas, under which are the more than fifty-year-old "shooting holes" as the Germans call them. One tree has a Swastika slashed into its bark. It's eerie in here and damp — a place of history and of death.

At the exact spot where the forest stops is an open meadow, spilling gently down to the first houses in the town. Chuck well recognizes this field, as he and his squad placed themselves in great danger and were in full view of the enemy, as they moved across it and downhill into the village. Once in Lampholdshausen, we walk through town with a group that grows larger by the minute. Chuck remembers that while fighting house to house in Lampholdshausen, he entered one of the homes and found a postcard addressed to the homeowner with a black and white photo of Lampholdshausen as it was in 1930. He put it in his pocket and somehow saved it all these years. And here we are, walking through Lampholdshausen with some of the very people who remember those frightening days. It is at this moment that

Chuck pulls out the postcard and shows it to one of the town historians. They read it with interest and suddenly point to a woman coming down the street. They explain to us that we are not only standing directly in front of the house in which Chuck found the postcard fifty-seven

years ago, but the widow of the man who lived in the house then and to whom the postcard was addressed, is coming toward us down the street. They call her over and she reads the card with interest. She explains in German who wrote it and what it says. Our guides translate her explanation to us. She shakes hands with Chuck and her eyes moisten, yet another irony in our study of those times.

From this point we continue our walk to the east end of town to the last farmhouse. It is here on this spot, in the original house, that Chuck remembers eating dark German bread and marmalade and enjoying a long overdue shave. It was a brief moment of pleasure amidst constant danger. The Germans had retreated beyond the farmhouse, and Chuck's commanding officer ordered him and his squad to venture toward the enemy on a reconnaissance patrol to see how many there might be. At this time, we are all walking with Chuck up a hill to an open field, a field he crossed on that reconnaissance patrol to search for the enemy he never found. He remembers looking down into a deep ravine but seeing no one. He also remembers seeing a small barn forward to his left. A local resident in our group points out such a building, still there, forward to our left! As for the ravine, it too was off to the right but, according to one of the town historians, it was much deeper then. Upon finding no one, Chuck and his squad returned to the farmhouse, but a counter attack by eighty or ninety soldiers of the Seventeenth SS Panzer Grenadiers followed. Chuck still wonders why they didn't shoot him when he was on the reconnaissance patrol, as they surely saw him. Perhaps it was because they were planning the attack and did not want their location known. The German counter-attack was repulsed and the Americans held full control of Lampholdshausen. Chuck wondered in those harrowing days why, when the war was all but lost to Germany, did the SS fight on so vigorously. In this case, the SS troops in Lampholdshausen were primarily Volksdeutsche, Germans who had lived in German settlements in eastern countries for many generations and who had been drafted without much enthusiasm into the Waffen-SS. Their unit was called the "Goetz von Berlichingen" division and once in Lampholdshausen, after many months of heavy fighting, they were without food and adequate supplies. Back home, the Russian Army had already occupied their homes, the local population did not welcome them, and they feared being shot if captured by the Americans. Thus, in Lampholdshausen as elsewhere they resisted. Still another irony exists regarding this SS unit. These SS troops had been trained in Nienburg, Germany. Today, Nienburg is the sister city of Las Cruces, New Mexico, the city in which both Chuck Miles and Felix Pfaeffle reside.

As we continued our walk, others come out of their homes and offer stories about American troops and the war. One woman stops gardening as we pass by to say she was only eight years old and remembers American soldiers giving her candy. Another man in our group tells

us that he was in the cellar in the farmhouse Chuck and his squad occupied and saw the Americans shaving and eating dark bread and marmalade. Several point out the houses that were damaged or burned and we learn that eighty-percent of the town was destroyed by both Allied and German forces. We are taken to an intersection believed to be where an American lieutenant had been killed by enemy machine gun fire. Chuck confirms that it was Lt. Peters, an officer he admired and respected. Chuck noted that it had taken us a half day to walk from one end of Lampholdshausen to the other, a distance that took American troops two days to cover. Our passage today is much easier.

Later that evening we visit the town of Kirchberg where some thirty some people listen as we repeat our "program" about the book. Afterwards we are treated to another feast in the school's cafeteria. Included in the repast are German cold cuts, frankfurters, Maultaschen Soup mit dumplings, rolls, breads...and of course, tall beers and white wine.

Wednesday, 15 May

Dr. Schlauch meets us in the magical village of Langenburg in the Hohenlohe region of Germany. The village, perched atop a bluff overlooking the vast countryside dates back to the thirteenth century. It is built along a single road which runs eastward from the schloss (castle) now occupied by Prince Kraft of Hohenlohe, a first cousin of Prince Philip, husband of England's Queen Elizabeth. It is a storybook village, with shops, cafes, hotels and an antique car museum gracing its main street. Professor Schlauch went to school with Prince Kraft and points him out to us as he walks down the street near the museum with another man. Professor Schlauch remembers staying in the castle when his village, Baechlingen, was being shelled by American troops.

Again World War II looms large in our minds as we stand on the walkway by the Langenburg castle wall and look down over Baechlingen, the pristine village below. He explains that the Americans placed their tanks on this exact spot in order to rout three defending teenaged German SS troops from the church tower in Baechlingen. At the request of Prince Kraft's father, Prince von Hohenlohe, the American officer moved the residents of the village to Langenburg to safety in the confines of the Hohenlohe family castle. As a result, the village was badly damaged but its residents were spared. The shelling of Baechlingen served only to damage the town; the young SS defenders got away. Desert and coffee followed in the Bauer café in Langenburg. The owners are also friends of Professor Schlauch, and we are seated at a table overlooking Baechlingen and the magnificent valley below.

Next, we follow Dr. Schlauch to the ancient city of Schwaebisch Hall. We walk around the imposing St. Michael's church in the middle "Market Square," where it appears everyone congregates. Next to an outdoor restaurant across from the church is a pole with steel

neck collar attached — once used as a public display of punishment for misdemeanors. We try in vain to find another member of the Sixty-third Infantry Division who, according to a newsletter from the division association, said he works at the historical archives. We find the archives, but it has closed for the day.

We are off again through thick forests and over winding roads to the city of Crailsheim, the home of our German publisher, Siegfried Baier, and the Verlag-Baier Publishing Company and bookstore. We had brought a change of clothes with us, as there was no time to return to our hotel in Moeckmuehl. Upstairs in the Baier Publishing Company we freshen up, change clothes and enjoy champagne and wine in the boardroom. We are soon escorted to the city hall a few blocks away for our program. This event brings out the largest audience of the week, and the gourmet dinner that follows, compliments of Mr. and Mrs. Baier, is delightful beyond description.

Accompanied by various wines and champagne, the meal is served one course at a time. Dining with us are other Baier company authors, Felix's relatives who have come to Crailsheim from Wuertzburg, Wertheim and Dinslaken, and a variety of local and area historians and dignitaries. And, as we have been experiencing elsewhere, we conclude the evening with tall beers and white wine.

After midnight, Dr. Kraft chauffeurs us on the long drive back to Moeckmuehl. Soon we are all in our rooms enjoying a much-needed rest. The week's activities have been rigorous, but very meaningful, and somehow we are renewed each morning and able to start over again.

Thursday, 16 May

We're up early and heading for Karlsruhe on the Autobahn. An accident involving trucks grinds us to a halt, but traffic eventually begins to move. We arrive at an outdoor café across from the Bahnhof in good time to meet Felix's cousin, Eduard Juengert, for coffee and a day of visiting. Karlsruhe is Felix's hometown; we are now in his "neck of the woods." On the way into town, Felix points out the old Turmberg Tower, next to which was the regional Flak headquarters to which he was ordered to report in October 1944. Nearby, he tells us, was the location of a heavy flak unit where he was assigned to haul forty-pound 88mm shells about a hundred feet from bunkers to anti-aircraft guns. It was also near here in December 1944 that he experienced spending one night in a foxhole watching British bombers drop continuous streams of five hundred- and a thousand-pound bombs over the marshalling yards at the edge of Karlsruhe. Felix's parents also lost their home to Allied bombs and were forced to relocate to Heidelberg.

After coffee with Eduard, we are guided to the city hall of Karlsruhe where he has arranged a meeting for us with the mayor in charge of cultural activities. We visit awhile, take pictures, drink juice and sparkling water and depart with gifts. Eduard takes us to lunch at the elegant Kaiserhof, traditional German restaurant across the street

from the city hall. It includes, of course, tall beers and white wine.

On the way to Eduard's house to rest up for our evening presentation, we stop at Humboldt Gymnasium (high school) in Karlsruhe, Felix's alma mater. Before talking to students we are treated in the principal's office to sparkling water and pastries. While there, one of the teachers surprises Felix with his school records, dug from old archives, no doubt. Soon we are in front of a classroom of about forty students, several of whom ask very insightful questions. We are impressed with their attentiveness in a hot room for well over an hour.

After the school visit, we head for Eduard's house, but stop off en route at the very spot on the Rhine River where Felix, trying to find a little peace amidst the horror of war, had taken a bicycle and ridden to the river's edge one cold December day in 1944. It was here that he felt two bullets whistle past his head and realized he had almost been killed. The irony of this story is that Chuck's Sixty-third Infantry Division was only a short distance away, perhaps five miles across the river in the French village of Seitz. Was it Chuck who fired on Felix that day fifty-seven years ago? Probably not, but it most certainly could have been one of his buddies.

As we stand on the exact spot where Felix was almost killed, he tells us that about forty miles upstream near the city of Kehl, opposite the French city of Strasbourg, he participated in an assault force across the Rhine river designed to penetrate deep into France, and cut off Allied troops in French and German territory west of the river. This maneuver was known as "Operation Northwind," and the crossing for Felix intensified injuries he had suffered earlier. Luckily he was removed to a hospital in Baden-Baden.

After a pleasant rest, coffee and pastries at Eduard's house with his wife, mother-in-law, three of his sons, and two grandchildren we are taken to the American Library in Karlsruhe for our fourth evening presentation. The apartments surrounding the library were once American military housing. There is definitely a feeling of post-war military presence in this neighborhood and the library in which we'll make our presentation is in dire need of a face-lift. About thirty people are in attendance at tonight's program, several of whom are former German soldiers. Some stay afterward to talk to Chuck and Felix and the evening ends with handshakes and photos. After the program Eduard again treats us to a meal, this time at the Burghof restaurant in Karlsruhe. His son Johannes has joined us, and we all enjoy Spargel soup, rye bread and good conversation. There are, as usual, tall beers and white wine.

Friday, 17 May

While Felix and Chuck speak to students at the Moeckmuehl gymnasium, (grade school) my husband Carl and I hike the bike trail to Ruchsen and beyond.

Later while having lunch in an outdoor Italian café in Moeckmuehl, Chuck, Felix and Dr. Kraft join us and help eat the one too many pizzas we have mistakenly ordered. Dr. Kraft agrees to take us to Heilbronn in order to secure a rental car. Chuck chooses to stay behind to get some much-deserved rest. On the way, we stop long enough to meet “Nino,” the horse Dr. Kraft’s daughter, Thea, rides at a local stable. Within an hour we arrive in Heilbronn, hustle throughout the downtown area, enjoy some ice cream and a little shopping and drive off behind Dr. Kraft back to Moeckmuehl in a rented Fiat.

Heilbronn is bustling and very cosmopolitan. We’re happy to get back to peaceful Moeckmuehl.

We only have time to shower and prepare for our evening presentation at Moeckmuehl. We walk together across the street from our hotel to a bank where our program is to be held in a large conference room. A friend of Mrs. Kraft’s, Birgit Spohrer, is our hostess and she presents us to an audience of about fifty people. We discover later there are about eight WWII German soldiers in the crowd. Some identify themselves and talk to Felix and Chuck; others remain silent. The message from several of those who wish to talk is loud and clear that their suffering at the hands of the Russians was severe. We receive more gifts: wine, champagne and flowers. Afterwards, we all walk together about a block to the same Italian restaurant at which we had lunch. Dr. Kraft hosts others and us to dinner and of course, the evening includes tall beers and white wine.

Saturday, 18 May

Carl and I are up at seven a.m., have breakfast with Chuck and Felix at eight, and borrow the Kraft’s bicycles at nine. We head out north of Moeckmuehl and manage to cover about twenty kilometers. In one village we indulge in chocolate pastries, fully aware that any calories we are burning while riding bikes will return immediately. Chuck, Felix Dr. Kraft and daughter Nora head out to the airport for airplane rides after which they have lunch at a local Greek restaurant. We all meet back at the hotel and prepare for another visit to Lampholdshausen. This time we hear a talk about the war by Dr. Kraft, listen to other war stories by the residents and make new friends. We conclude the visit at the local gasthaus for tall beers and white wine.

At seven we follow Dr. Kraft and his family to his sister Ulrike and brother-in-law Adolf’s home in Moeckmuehl. They are former owners of our hotel, the Württemberger Hof, and prepare a special dinner of frankfurters, lentil beans, Spaetzle and ice cream. As if all of this wonderful food and drink were not enough, Carl and I return to our hotel with Ulrike, Adolf, and Dr. Kraft for “one more tall beer and a glass of white wine” (compliments of Frau Folk, the present owner of our hotel).

Our grandson, Gabriel, is expected at any time from Wiesbaden where he is stationed with the U.S. Army. We

alert Frau Folk that he might come during the night and request she give him a bed — somewhere! We leave a note on the locked front door before going to bed and are grateful when he arrives at one a.m.

His journey from Wiesbaden was by train via Frankfurt and Wuerzburg, followed by a bus ride to Lauda and a taxi to Moeckmuehl. It was raining softly when he arrives, and, finding the hotel locked, he concludes he might have to sleep outdoors. (Like Chuck Miles, Gabriel is U.S. Army Infantry — they love to sleep outdoors!!!???) But now, he has the room next to ours, and we sleep better knowing he is with us.

Sunday, 19 May

Gabriel joins us for breakfast and is thrilled to meet Felix and Chuck at last. He has been reading *Once Enemies, Now Friends* off and on since Basic Training in Georgia and has been looking forward to meeting both men in person. Today is Felix’s last day with us, as his brother is picking him up shortly to spend a few days in Wuerzburg. Dr. Kraft, Chuck, Carl, Gabriel, and I head for France to see the areas first hand where Chuck not only saw his first enemy soldiers behind their lines, but participated in activities that won him the Bronze Star. The drive is long, some roads in France are closed off for the holiday (Ascension Day?), and it takes twice as long to get to Gros Rederching and Sarreguemines.

In the outskirts of Gros Rederching, Chuck tries in vain to identify the area in which he found himself behind German lines and was involved in face-to-face combat. What we did find, however, were 20 or more bunkers of the old Ligne de Magino (the French Maginot Line) scattered about the magnificent greener than green French countryside. They are made of concrete, weathered and pockmarked by time and war. Yet, they sit silently amidst rolling French hills and picturesque farms, as if they are serving some useful purpose. Perhaps they should remain as eerie reminders of a more fearful time.

At one large bunker we meet two young men from Nienburg, Las Cruces’ sister city. Dr. Kraft engages them in conversation and soon has sold them one of our books. They seem a bit stunned, but depart smiling, with autographed book in hand.

Before we leave the area, Chuck and Gabriel, infantrymen from long ago and now, stand atop one of the bunkers together looking out over the countryside, one contemplating how it was, the other how it must have been.

From Gros Rederching we drive the short distance to Sarreguemines where Chuck recalls several incidents. We drive and walk around an old flour mill on the river Saar, looking for the point at which Chuck and his squad crossed one night in hopes of capturing some German soldiers. He believes they made their crossing about a hundred yards to our right and that the farmhouse in which the Germans were visiting was on a clearing quite visible ahead. Chuck also tries to find a house that be-

longed to Georgette Leturcq, a French girl he befriended in the same vicinity. An old photo he'd saved all these years helps him isolate a house by the river that he believes was hers.

As we leave Sarreguemines, Dr. Kraft suggests we visit the Lorraine American Cemetery and Memorial in nearby St. Avoird (Moselle, France). St. Avoird is the largest American military cemetery of World War II in Europe; buried here are 10,489 of our military dead. Most of those interred here gave their lives during the advance to the Rhine and into Germany in the spring of 1945. We meet a docent in the office who uses a computer to locate Lt. Thomas L. Peter's grave—the young officer killed in Lampholdshausen. We pay our respects and ponder only minutes before the site. Chuck is ready to leave, and we certainly understand. On our way out, I notice the grave of a Pfc. Rodriguez of New Mexico. Of the 10,489 graves at St. Avoird, I wonder why this one caught my eye and turned my head.

As we make the long drive back to Moeckmuehl, we skip lunch, as most of the restaurants are closed for the holiday. We arrive back at the hotel at 7:30 pm and enjoy another great dinner of Spargel, boiled, parsley potatoes and pork schnitzel. It is all capped off by chocolate ice cream sundaes and accompanied, of course, by tall beers and white wine. Chuck leaves tomorrow morning, 20 May, as do we. He and Gabriel have a long and serious talk about the Army today and yesterday. It's good to see them together. We reluctantly say our goodbyes to the Kraft family, Karl-Heinz, Birgit, Thea and Nora and head

to our rooms. Dr. Kraft will take Chuck to the Frankfurt airport early tomorrow, and we'll head south with our grandson to see more of beautiful Germany.

How can this historic and long-awaited trip be over already? It seems only a few weeks ago that we planned it, read correspondence from our hosts, and walked confidently into our travel agent's office to book our flights. What has this all meant and what have we learned? On a lighter note, Chuck and Felix have made some generalizations about Germany. 1) They saw no pick-up trucks or old cars; 2) they saw no litter; 3) traffic was fast on the Autobahn; 4) and, tap water is not served at restaurants, only bottled sparkling water, which is more expensive than beer.

On a more serious note, this trip has forged new friendships, strengthened old ones, and confirmed to us that it is sometimes fruitful and necessary to remember past and even painful events. It has renewed our belief that war is wanton, wasteful and useless and should be avoided. It has clarified the sad realization that there may always be those who will bring it on and those who will have to end it. As a result, it has deepened our feelings of gratitude for those who fought in it, who suffered, and who died. But most of all, it has clearly shown that **OLD ENEMIES CAN AND SHOULD BE FRIENDS!**

DONNA EICHSTAEDT lives in Las Cruces and teaches in the History department at the University of Texas at El Paso.

Keeping the Peace in Doña Ana County: The Role of Constable, 1852-1966

by Nemecio R. Chavez

Edited By Donna Eichstaedt

A constable was an official in Medieval England, appointed to assist the sheriff. Constables later became British police officers, charged with the responsibility of inquiring into offenses (conducting investigations), serving summons and warrants, taking charge of prisoners and supervising the night watch.¹

Shield

This combines elements from the Arms of Devon and Cornwall County councils with reference to police work. The waves are common to both arms in reference to the peninsular position. The red lion, from the Devon arms, is that of Richard Plantagenet, Earl of Cornwall, who bore it within a black border charged with fifteen bezants or gold roundels. The black area and the bezants appear in the Cornwall arms. Richard's lion wore a gold crown; this is replaced by a crown "vallary", that is, with points resembling the pales of a stockade, which, coloured blue, suggests the security afforded by the Police Authority.

Crest

The "crown vallary" contains a half-length figure of one of the gold lions which support the Plymouth arms, furnished with the white and blue barred wings of Exeter's pegasi, and wearing at the neck its blue naval crown recalling the long connections of the area with the Royal Navy.

Motto

"For the Assistance of All." Expresses the role of the Police in the community, and is a combination of the Devon motto, "A uxilio Divino" (Sir Francis Drake's motto, "with Divine Help" and that of Cornwall, "One and All."²

In the late 1200s, the office of Justice of the Peace was established in England. The county sheriff was responsible for policing a county and was assisted by a justice of the peace, who in turn was assisted by a constable. Constables wore cadet shoulder patches during training, but once successfully graduated, wore the Devon & Cornwall police patch on their uniforms.³

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the English colonists who settled in America brought with them the system of policing that existed in England. This system included the offices of justice of the peace, sheriff and constable.⁴

In New Mexico between 1854 and 1965, the justice of the peace was the chief of the petty tribunals of the state. One justice of the peace was elected from each precinct in the state at each general election. They held



office for two years and were eligible for re-election. They received no salary but were remunerated with fees, which were fixed by the state legislature for various services that they performed. Each justice was obligated to reside and hold office in the precinct in which he was elected. If, however, there was a town with a population of two thousand or more in his precinct, resulting in various precincts, he was allowed to have his office anywhere within the corporate limits of the town.

Each court of law had a constable who acted as an executive officer of the justice of the peace and carried out his decisions. He was elected in the same manner as the justice of the peace, held office the same length of time and received a fee for the various types of services performed.⁵

In 1852, New Mexico was divided into nine counties: Taos, Rio Arriba, Santa Ana, Santa Fe, Bernalillo, San Miguel, Valencia, Socorro, and Doña Ana. Within each county were districts, which in turn were divided into precincts.⁶

Listed below are Dña Ana County constables elected to precincts in Organ (1); Doña Ana (2); Las Cruces (3); and Mesilla (4 & 5). Some names may not be spelled correctly, as nineteenth-century handwriting is often difficult to decipher. There may also be names that have been left out, as some constables were not elected in that particular time and year. Where precinct numbers are not given, all constables will be listed.

1876: (all districts) Jose Gonzales, Victor De La O, Anastacio Gonzales, Eufemio Valverde, Julian Guerra, Andrew Apodaca, Santos Rojas, Eufemio Balverde, Juan Dominguez, Romando Maese, Anselmo Herrera, Jose Rivera, Victor Barela. (No precinct numbers available)

1878: Urbino Costales (2); Eli Priest (3); Leon Fresquez (4); Silverio Valencia (5).

1880: Melquiades Flores (2); Domingo Luchini (3); Florencio Perez (4); Pedro Onopra (5).

1884: (No precincts listed) Rosalio Baldonado; Lucio Rivera; Canuto Pena; Sabas Carabajal; Margarito Lujan; Jose Serna.

1886: (No precincts listed) Margarito Lujan; Jose Serna.

1888: (No precincts listed) Jose Flores; John Hagans; Jose Angel Sisneros; L.A. Harmon; William Howard.

1889: (No precincts listed) William Gentry; Pedro Jimenez; Tranquilino Rivera; Santos Candelaria.

1890: (No precincts listed) Feliz Torres; Lonjinos Madrid; Jas. H. Bullard; Cesario Duran; W.W. Holder; Herman Greenwal; J.N. Jose Duran, Jr.; Jose Sisneros; Pomfroso Escarciga.

1891: (No precincts listed) Victorio Urriaga; Cesario Duran; John Clarke; John Meadows; Franco Domingues; Ed Hagans.

1892: (No precincts listed) Juan N. Luna; Lorenzo Telles; Franco Mendis; Ramon Nevares.

1893: (No precincts listed) Rosalio Lopez; Juan Nevares; Magdalena Baca; Pedro F. Chavez; C.W. Hopkins; John Meadows.

1894: (No precincts listed) Gregorio Garcia; Juan Benavidez; Manuel Nevares.

1895: (No precincts listed) Diego Lopez, Fidel Sanches; Tiburcio Gomez; Pedro Serna; Henry Ewald; R. Wisney; Francisco Mendez; Felix Torres; W.E. Carmach; Lorenzo Telles; G.R. King; Luciano Tenorio; Pedro Lerma.

1896: (No precincts listed) Julian Barela; Vicente Nanes.

1897: (No precincts listed) Juan Nevares, Vivian Herrera, Jose Sierra, Jesus Borunda; Susano Paiz; B. Williams; Feliz Torres; Susano Tenorio; Andrew Trujillo; Manuel Aldaz; Pedro Serna.

1898: (No precincts listed) Julian Barela; Roman De La O; N. Salcido; Austin F. Lopez.

1909: (No precincts listed) Juan Barela; Isario Aguirre; Elijo Sierra; Susano F. Torres; Macionio Balizan; Jose Chavez; Daniel Miranda; Samuel Costales.

1910: (No precincts listed) Luis G. Arrey; Alvino Renteria; Daniel Fietze; Ernesto Lucero; Ramon Gonzales; Jesus D. Gonzales; Gregorio Fierro; Thomas Allen; Juan N. Luna.

1911: (No return Precinct 1); Perfecto Chavez (2); David Herrera (3); Pablo Telles (4); Juan S. Apodaca (5).

1913: E. Barrigan (1); Rosas Alvares (2); Luciano Duran (3); Ernesto Lucero (4); Juan S. Apodaca (5).

1914: (Precincts 1, 4, 5 not listed) Anselmo Herrera (2); Ignacio Sierra (3).

1915: (E. Barrigan (1); Guadalupe Abeita (2); Victor Roybal (3); Francisco Ruiz (4); Alejandro Bertoldo (5).

1917: Filimon Barela (1); Maximino Barela (2); Pedro Gonzales (3); Adolfo L. Chavez (4); Rafael Aranda (5).

1921: (No return Precinct 1); Frank C. Brito

(2); Maximino Garcia and Santiago Giron (3); Adolfo Chavez (4); Jose Chavez (5).

1922: (No return Precinct 1); Santiago Giron (2); Hilario Gonzales (3); Guadalupe Lucero (4); Luz D. Lucero (5).

1923: (No return Precinct 1); Santiago Giron (2); Jose Maria Nieto and Primitivo Venezuela (3); Carlos Bernal and Ponciano Duran, Jr. (4); Doroteo Valencia, Cresico Alvilar and Lucio Saucida (5).

1924: (No precincts listed) Carlos Bernal; Pedro Garcia; L.L. Benavidez; Francisco Terrazas; Santiago Giron; F.G. Savedra; Julian Bernal; Francisco Madrid; L.L. Benavidez, Doreteo Valencia; Jose Barela; Carlos Bernal; Jose Maria Nieto; Santiago Sierra; Jose Maria Nieto; Julian Bernal; Carlos Bernal; Serafin Barela; Miguel Acosta.

1925: (No precincts listed) Adolfo Chavez; D.L. Gamboa; Juan Estrada; Aurelio Padilla; Foster Beasley; Pedro Garcia; Miguel Acosta; J.H. Ansley; Luciano Duran; Andres Baca; Antonio Torres; Augustin Tellez; Pedro Serna, Sr.; Jose Maria Sarabia; Eliu Sanchez; Santiago Galaz; Juan G. Estrada; Santiago Sierra; Julian Bernal; Santiago Giron; Luciano Duran; Albert Brown; J.M. Nieto; Serafin Barela; W.F. Beasley; Juan G. Estrada; Pedro Serna, Sr. Pedro Garcia; A.E. Brown; Aurelio Padilla; Augustine Telles; Antonio Torres; Luciano Duran; Miguel Acosta; Pedro Garcia.

1926: (No precincts listed) J.M. Nieto; A.E. Brown; Luciano Duran; Juan G. Estrada; Antonio Torres; Pedro Serna, Sr.; A.S. Jordan; A.E. Brown; J.M. Nieto; Juan G. Estrada; A.L. Jordan; Antonio Torres; Serafin Barela; Santiago Giron; Andres Baca; J.M. Nieto; Pedro Garcia; A.E. Brown; Luciano Duran; Santiago Giron; Serafin Barela; Antonio Torres; Henry W. Smith; D.L. Gamboa; Juan G. Estrada; Eligio Saenz; Syl Bennett; Jose M. Perea.

1927: (No precincts listed) A.E. Brown; Santiago Giron; Serafin M. Barela; Luciano Duran; Jose M. Pena; Juan G. Estrada, J.M. Nieto; Pedro Garcia; Juan G. Estrada; Peter G. Lopez; Luz Cadena; Pedro Serna, Sr.; Luciano Duran; J.M. Nieto; Albert E. Brown; Serafin Barela; E.A. Weirich; Antonio Torres; Antonio Lucero; Luis B. Martinez; A.E. Brown;

Canuto Reyes; C.L. Banegas; Luz Cadena; Pedro Garcia; Andres Baca; L.F. Walker; Jose Maria Nieto; Tom heifrin; Juan G. Estrada;

Pete Flores; Enrique Castillo; J.H. Ansley; John A. White; Luz Cadena.

1928: (No precincts listed) Albert E. Brown; Guillermo Lopez; Enrique Castillo; Andres Baca; Santa Cruz Alderette; J.W. Moore; Canuto Reyes; W.J. Etheridge; J.A. White; Clemente Martinez; Jose de la Luz Barela; Enrique Castillo; A.E. Brown.

1929: (No precincts listed) Juan G. Estrada; Enrique Castillo; Tom Heifrin; Lusi Gamboa; Jose M. Nieto; Francisco Cadena; Efren Sedillo; A.E. Brown; C.L. Banegas; Canuto Reyes; Andres Baca; W.J. Etheridge; Antonio Torres; Chon C. Alvarez; Francisco Cadena; Albino Renteria; Albert E. Brown; A.V. Silva; Ysabel Carrillo; Decidero Gamboa; Jose D. Gonzales; Roy Lewis, Frank Enriquez; Francisco Cadena; Antonio Silva; Albert E. Brown; J.D. Gonzales; Chon C. Alvarez; H.D. Cantrell; Apolonio Medina; N.E. Glisson; Enrique Castillo; Jose D. Gonzales; Francisco Telles; Antonio V. Silva; Roy R. lewis; Deciderio Gamboa; Albino Renteria; Luis Gamboa; Chon C. Alvarez; Francisco Cadena; Enrique Castillo; Clay Hooker; Pedro Serna, Sr.; Albert E. Brown.

1930: Chon C. Alvarez; Pedro Serna; L.D. Gamboa; Alvino Renteria; J.D. Hooker; Francisco Cadena; Jose D. Gonzales; Fred Brokerson; A.E. Brown; Ricardo Romero; Enrique Castillo.

1931: Chon C. Alvarez; Marcos Saenz; Willie Lucero; Francisco Maestas; Tom D. Provencio; Peter G. Lopez; Luis Lujan; Santos Ramirez; B.W. Russell; Apolonio Medina; S.C. Hooker (Clay); Fred Brokerson; Isidro Velancia; Tomas Jojola; Francisco Jaramillo; Wm. S. Alkire; J.A. Jenes; Pedro Serna, Sr.; Albert e. Brown; Ricardo Romero; Nicanor S. Apodaca; Santiago Barela; Belsan Chavez; W.H. Goodwin; Antonio Silva.

1932: Miguel (Mike) Estrada (4)

1933: E.D. Stuart; Luis Escalante, Jr.; Marcos Saenz; Miguel Estrada; Ernesto Lucero; Tom D. Provencio; A. Tidwell; Luis Lujan; Benito Cardona; B.W. Russell; Rumaldo Benavides; John W. Moore; Clay Hooker; Isaac Rhodes; Faustino Savedra; Lorenzo Jaramillo; H.R. Ludwig; Abdon Aldaz; Fidel Provencio; Pedro Duran; Pablo J. Sanchez; Luis Banegas; Jose Atencio; W.A. Cove; Santiago Barela; J.H. Franklin; A.F. Cunningham.

1934: Miguel Acosta; O.P. Strubhar; Alvino

Altamirano; Jose Vegas; P.J. Sanchez; Benjamin Bouvet.

1935: E.D. Stuart; Pablo Ledesma; Ernest Ruiz; Miguel Estrada; Ernest Lucero; Charles Johnson; L.B. Johnson; Alejandro Benavidez; Rafael Garcia; Geo Pulis; Apolonio Medina; J.B. Bernal; E.L. Gresham; M.M. Flemming; Faustino Savedra; Albelino Altamirano; H.R. Ludwig; Ramon Cadena; Jose clark; Don Sedillo; Luis Banegas; Jose Atencio; Santiago Barela; A.F. Cunningham; Jose B. Lucero.

1936: Ernesto J. Ruiz; Charles Johnson; D.R. Sedillo, Jr.

1937: Pedro Ledesma; Chon Alvarez, Jr.; Pascual Martinez; Miguel (Mike) Estrada; D.L. Gamboa; Charles Johnson; O.L. Page; P.G. Lopez; Luis Benavidez; R.E. Garcia; Florentino Abalos; W.T. Terrell; Alejandro Lopez; Clay Hooker, C.A. Kennedy; Marcus Higgins; Enrique Castillo; Panfilo Briones, Sr.; Herman Jundt; Frank Chavez; Florencio Candelaria; Luis Banegas; Jose Atencio; Rosalio Gonzales; A.F. Cunningham; Milton C. Atchley; Robert Rodriguez.

1940: Antonio Chardon; Pasqual B. Martinez; Antonio Aguilar; Jose Gonzales; Adelfonso Ponce; Charles Johnson; Russell Jessee; Anastacio Valles; A.N. Ault; Daniel Terrazas; W.t. Terrell; B.M. Mitchell; Faustino Savedra; Archie Bond, Jr.; Trinidad Garcia; F.C. Provenzio; Joe Powell; C. Clark; Gabriel Guzman; Louis Banegas; Adrian L. Gonzales Lester Braddy; Luis Barela; Richard D. David; Sam B. Vigil.

1942: Antonio Aguilar; Jose Gonzales; Venselado Telles; Manuel Padilla; Anastacio Vales; Gabriel Flores; Charles Johnson; Ramon Herrera; Bill Terrell; Juan Barrio; B.M. Mitchell; Enrique Castillo; Placido Maynez; E.C. Adams; Eduardo Montoya; Luis Banegas; Adrian Gonzales; R.D. Davis; Francisco Terrazas; Lester Brady.

1943: Arturo R. Apodaca

1945: Minutes do not reflect titles and in some cases no final election report from this year forward is listed. It appears that the constables who were elected continued to hold office. Braulio G. Torres; Ruperto P. Pena.

1946: Vicente D. Guerra; W.A. Dodson; Laza-

ro B. Guitierrez; A.J. Castillo; Nolie V. Ulmer; Yalacio Ramirez; Eduardo Montoya; Alberto B. Montoya; Ramon S. Duran.

1947: Elias Cano; Jose Barron; James B. Corpening.

1948: Lorenzo Rodriguez; Walter Hill; Jimmie G. Herrera; Tony Aguilar; Conceptcion P. Saldana; Brigido N. Tellez; B.M. Mitchell; J. Charley Brookerson; J.P. Castillo; Jose Arteaga; Jose Barron; Pablo J. Sanchez; Gabriel Guzman; Lester Braddy; Alberto B. Montoya; Frank Portillo.

1949: Alberto Garcia (Chapo)

1950: After 1950, it appears that very few people wanted to be appointed or elected to the position of constable. As stated before, it may be that those elected just remained in the position. Angel S. Torres; Miguel Estrada; Alberto Garcia (Chapo); C.P. Castillo; Joe Arteaga; Jose Barron; Gabriel (Gabe) Guzman; Alberto B. Montoya; Ramon r. Montoya; Frank Portillo.

1951: Tomas Cuaron; Guy F. Dunivan; Gabriel Castillo.

1952: Miguel (Mike) Estrada; Guy F. Dunivan; J.P. Castillo.

1953: Alberto Garcia (Chapo).

1954: Luciano L. Ceniceros; Jose Rodriguez.

1956: Ray Sanchez; Joe Romero.

1957: Alberto Garcia (Chapo).

1958: Earl Youngren; Ray Sanchez; Fred Salas.

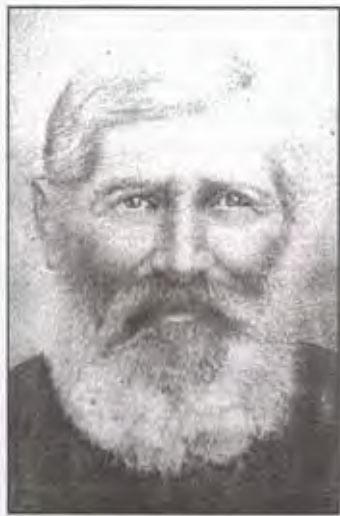
1960: Thomas C. Dorris

1963: Charles H. Miller (Appointed)

1966: Wendell Gambill (Appointed)

After 1961, commission minutes do not reflect constable election results, but rather periodic appointments made by the county commission. Minutes were examined until 1970 and no further entries were found. In 1966 the justice of the peace position was abolished. Section 31 of the New Mexico Constitution, states: "Justice of Peace shall be abolished not later than 5 (five) years after effective date."⁷

There is more information about some of Doña Ana County's constables than for others. One early constable was Domenico Luchini, who was born in San Pedro, Italy in 1838. He immigrated to the United States in 1852 at the age of fourteen and entered the country at New



Domenico Luchini, born 14 February 1838, Constable 1880 (Photo provided by Mr. Leo Luchini, Las Cruces, New Mexico)



Lester B. Braddy, born 30 March 1891 Constable 1940

York. He enlisted in the Union Army at Rochester, New York on 13 June 1860, joining Company H, Seventh Infantry and re-enlisted at Albuquerque, New Mexico, on 24 July 1864, in Company G, Fifth Infantry Regiment. He was discharged at Fort Union, New Mexico, on 17 July 1867.⁸

Luciano Duran was elected constable of Las Cruces (Princinct 3) on 13 January 1913. He was the son of Victor Duran and Victoria Gabaldon and was born in LaJoya, New Mexico, around 13 December 1862. His grandparents lived at Main and Amador in Las Cruces, adjacent to other relatives. In the 1870s Luciano served in the voluntary militia of El Colorado, New Mexico. He married Juana Delgado in 1882 at St. Genevieve Church in Las Cruces. They had two children, Margarito Duran and Victoria Duran.

Juana died in El Colorado (Rodey) in 1895 and Luciano later married Margarita Lujan. They also had two children. Luciano brought his family to Las Cruces around 1900 and was working as a minor. Luciano later farmed in the Hatch Valley for many years.⁹

Others who served as constable include Lester B. Braddy;¹⁰ Miguel (Mike) Estrada, Sr.;¹¹ and Alberto (Chapo) Garcia.¹²



Alberto (Chapo) Garcia, born 1899, Constable 1932

MR. NEMECIO RAMIREZ CHAVEZ, who authored this article, is lead court security officer at the Las Cruces Federal Courthouse. Prior to becoming court security officer in 1991, he served as under sheriff, 1978-90 in the Dona Ana County Sheriff's Department.

Mr. Chavez would like to dedicate this article to Luciano Duran and his great-granddaughter, Mrs. Antoinette Duran Silva. He would also like to thank the following people for their assistance in the research for this article as well as for their guidance: Herminda R. Chavez (my wife); Nemeio R. Chavez, Jr. (my son); Julie Ann C. Rodriguez (my daughter); Enrique M. Romero (my brother-in-law); Charles Miles; Yvonne Aguirre; Leo Luchini; Miguel A. Estrada, Jr.; Isidro A. Garcia; Gussie Mae Braddy; Emma Flournoy; Gwendolyn McKeller, Sheriff Juan Hernandez; and Devon & Cornwall Police Authority.

Nemeio Ramirez Chavez

ENDNOTES

1 Devon and Cornwall Police Authority, London, England.

2 Ibid.

3 Roy Robert, John Crank and Jack Kuykendall, *Police and Society* (Los Angeles: Roxbury Publishing Company, 2000), 34.

4 Thomas C. Donnelly, *The Government of New Mexico* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1947).

5 *New Mexico Counties, 1852*. <<http://www.rootsweb.com/~nmco>> (1852 htm).

6 *Dona Ana County Commission Minutes; Book 1:136*, 9 October 1892.

7 *New Mexico. State Statutes. Annotated* (Sec. 31), "Justice of the Peace."

8 Leo Luchini, Great-grandson, interview by Nemeio R. Chavez, Las Cruces, New Mexico, 5 January 2002.

9 Antoinette Duran Silva, Great-granddaughter of Luciano Duran, Family Papers, Las Cruces, New Mexico, 11 January 2002.

10 Gwendolyn McKeller, Granddaughter of Lester B. Braddy and Mrs. Gussie Mae Braddy and Mrs. Emma Flournoy, interview by Nemeio R. Chavez, Las Cruces, Nw Mexico, 19 January 2002.

11 Miguel A. Estrada, Jr., Son of Miguel (Mike) Estrada, interview by Nemeio R. Chavez, Las Cruces, New Mexico, 5 January 2002.

12 Isidro (Chilo) A. Garcia, Son of Alberto (Chapo) Garcia, interview by Nemeio R. Chavez, Las Cruces, New Mexico, 22 January 2002.

Roswell: Historical Research and the Hispanic Community

by William E. Gibbs, Ph.D.

“Historical Memory Is a Prerequisite For Community” Josiah Royce, *The Problem of Christianity*

Historical memory forces one out of the individualistic present into a pool of common recollections which constitute a community of the past. This community with its sense of place, social interaction, and shared values provides a historical substrata into which one may sink roots.¹ These same roots identify the sources of cultural sustenance. They also serve as anchors against the shifting contemporary currents of social and political change. In time they form the basis of a community's very identity.

Numerous individuals have attempted to survey the historical substrata of the Roswell community experience. Lucius Dills appears to be the first individual who tried to pull together a somewhat comprehensive history of Roswell. Dills, a newspaperman and thus fairly literate, constructed a pretty reasonable account in his 1932 publication, *Roswell: Some Facts and Observations Relative to Its Settlement and Early Growth*.² Maurice Garland Fulton, an English professor at New Mexico Military Institute, used Dills's work to write a more extensive account which he published as “Roswell in Its Early Years” in 1937.³ Certainly the most prolific writer on the Roswell and Chaves County historical experience was James D. Shinkle. Some of Shinkle's works include: “Missouri Plaza”: First Settled Community Chaves County, *Reminiscences of Roswell Pioneers*, and *Fifty Years of Roswell History, 1917-1967*.⁴ Recently, the late Minor Huffman and particularly Elvis Fleming have made significant contributions to recording the area's past with their *Roundup on the Pecos*, Fleming's essays, particularly the latter's exceptional biographical work on the father of Roswell, Joseph C. Lea, are of note.⁵

One thing, however, all these histories have in common is that they appear rather “Anglicized.” By and large they seem to have been written about a culturally homogeneous community. Each acknowledged the existence of a Hispanic population, but none devoted much attention to it. Why? Were these men typical ethnocentric products of the infamous “Little Texas”? Anyone remotely familiar with Shinkle, Huffman, or Fleming could not likely reach such a conclusion. Anyone who has dabbled in writing a little history of this community would know that the problem primarily rests in the dearth of historical documents/data, both secondary and primary, relative to the Hispanic community. In other words, the prerequisite for establishing the substrata of the Hispanic community,

historical memory, has not been readily available in the written or other accessible forms.

An effort over the last two decades largely led by local educator and historian Ramon Burrola has made significant inroads in addressing the problem. But these records compiling the accounts of the ancianos, largely anecdotal, only begin to scratch the surface of the Hispanic past in Roswell and Chaves County.⁶ Essentially, this essay suggests that a comparative use of census data provides an excellent method to use to fill this void especially with reference to the general conditions of the Hispanic community in the late territorial years. It is hoped that the data generated by this study will contribute to the construction of more ethnically balanced treatments of Roswell's past as well as serve as a model for accumulating heretofore unused statistical information relative to the Hispanic presence in other communities in the Southwest. It might, moreover, be an equally effective method to provide data relative to the presence of any ethnic group Hispanic, Anglo, or otherwise. In fact the censuses for 1900 and 1910 in Roswell do show a small Chinese community!⁷

Having been involved in the study of or instruction in the field of history for thirty-five years, it is apparent, at least to me, that the study of this discipline is largely the study of change in human experience. But historical change is not always easy to observe or to explain. Possibly one of the best techniques for identifying and analyzing historical change is through comparison in time. An old picture of a family picnic is an excellent historical record, but it fails to show change over time. Two snapshots taken years apart of a family, a commercial property, or a community street offer evidence of differences that are the manifestations of change. Each snapshot works like a tree ring or a layer of geological strata marking off the passage of time. The advertising world has realized for years the value of before and after images for illustrating change — possibly revealing the favorable effects of Grecian Formula or Ultra Slim.

The decennial Federal Census provides abundant quantities of data which can be subjected to a similar type of comparative analysis. A single census offers a snapshot; another population survey taken ten years later presents an opportunity to compare, to seek out those differences over time which are the essence of change and thus history. Likewise, geological change is estab-

lished through the study and comparison of different epochs, periods, and eras. Clearly, this body of information has weaknesses, most specifically relating to the attitude of the census taker toward the subject and the facility of that same individual with some language other than English. Even with these possible limitations, census information provides an accumulation of data which can be both interesting and insightful. As evidenced by the plethora of articles filling newspapers and magazines based on the 2000 Census, it should be obvious that this compilation of statistical information, even a century ago, did more than simply count people. Census information in 1900 revealed the composition of the family, place of residence, place of birth as well as that of parents, age, date of birth, citizenship, employment, literacy (English), and ownership of property. This paper will use information from the censuses of 1900 and 1910 for Roswell and the immediate area to construct an historical picture of the Hispanic community for both those years. In addition, the project will compare those snapshots to indicate changes experienced by that ethnic community in this first decade of the century, in other words to create a moving picture.

The research approach involved the identification of Hispanics as well as compilation of data relative to the Hispanic population of the Roswell area. The identification process relied upon recognition of Spanish surnames which were then cross-referenced with either the place of birth of the individual or that of his/her parents. In the 1900 Census, the non-use of English (which in most cases one presumes likely meant they used Spanish) helped to establish cultural background. In the 1910 Census the use of Spanish was recognized, and this proved helpful in making identifications. In addition to the population total, this research endeavor compiled information on places of residence, places of birth, family employment, and literacy. Information on matters of citizenship and property ownership was generally incomplete, unreliable and thus not considered in this study. A general summary of these data is included at the end of this paper.

Hispanic Americans had been in the middle Pecos Valley for some years prior to the arrival of the well-known promoters John Chisum and Joseph C. Lea. Tracing the Hispanic existence statistically has been difficult, and historical accounts have depended upon chance contacts and occasional references. The comments by government surveyors that they spotted mud huts occupied by Mexicans as early as 1868 is an example of this. The 1878 Voting Record and the 1880 Census make limited reference, but they are only helpful in terms of identifying individuals here and there. The fact that the census reports of 1890 are not extant really hurts. Consequently, the 1900 Census offers the first real opportunity to look specifically at the Hispanic presence as a community or communities. This follows nicely upon the political organization of the area with Chaves County created out of Lincoln County in 1889 and Roswell recognized as

a municipality in 1891. This study focuses neither upon the entire county nor simply Roswell proper but upon the social/economic unit made up of Roswell and the immediate surrounding area. This would today include East Grand Plains, parts of what is now called Midway, and those unnamed areas immediately north and west of the city. Roswell has always been heavily dependent upon these surrounding lands and their development for its existence as a service-oriented community. As early as 1900 evidence indicates how Roswell functioned as a service and distribution center for the ranching and agricultural operations on its periphery. This not only continued but substantially grew by 1910.

The 1900 census data show Roswell and the surrounding areas to have had a population of 3,433. (This will not necessarily correspond with other references to Roswell's population for that date because this refers to what might be referred to as "metropolitan" Roswell.) Of this number 26 (8 percent) of 3,433 were Hispanic. Further information indicates that 111 (44 percent) of this number were born in New Mexico, 101 (40 percent) in Mexico and 41 (16 percent) in Texas. A substantial majority 224 (84 percent) of the Hispanic population lived within the borders of Roswell. Of those within the community, 130 (49 percent) resided on what was simply referred to as Pecos Avenue. Pecos Avenue later became Virginia Avenue, and the primary location of this concentration of people was on South Pecos (Virginia). Since many streets lacked names, or the enumerator failed to record them, and there were no street numbers, one must speculate that this community on Roswell's southeast side, south of Second Street and east of Main, included what then was referred to as Chihuahua (It should be noted that the area would not be called Chihuahueta until somewhat later.) as well as the areas immediately to the west and south thereof, which might be characterized as Greater Chihuahua. It is surprising that the census data for Precinct No. 1 east of Roswell proper show a very small number of Hispanic peoples. There were, however, Hispanic surnamed 73 (27 percent) in other parts of Roswell, most especially along North and South Kansas as well as along North and South Michigan on what would have then been the west side. A few 19 (7 percent) also resided along Main Street in the south end. It is important to recognize that from as early as 1900 pockets of Hispanic people lived throughout the municipality.

Socially, conditions in these neighborhoods were largely influenced by the operation of the family unit. Almost nine out of ten reported some association with the family unit, with the average size at about five. The nuclear family overwhelmingly prevailed, although there was an occasional grandparent or other relative in-the-home. It should also be noted that frequently more than one family occupied a single dwelling. Contrary to the European experience along the East Coast, single males outside of the family did not compose a large part of the Hispanic population. Granted, a few lived as lodgers or

boarders, but the data suggest these individuals did not constitute more than one in ten individuals.

By far the largest percentage of Hispanic workers in the 1900 Census, 54 (64 percent) of the 84 who reported employment, identified themselves as simply laborers or day laborers. Another 14 (17 percent) identified themselves as farm laborers, and half that number 7 (8 percent) associated themselves with sheep herding. The few remaining worked in service jobs as porters, ministers, grocery drivers, or barbers.

The census additionally pointed out that the Hispanic population not only spoke Spanish but remained basically unfamiliar with English. Only 24 (9 percent) reported they could speak English, and as few as 18 (7 percent) said that they could write it. This should not be construed as any measurement of literacy, for there was no reference to knowledge of Spanish in the 1900 Census.

By 1910 the Progressive Era with a greater role for government was in full swing; the rather robust William Howard Taft occupied the White House; and local politicians showed that they too could rip-off the federal government when the floor of the Hondo Dam, which had been promoted to Washington on the basis of its capacity to transform the local economy, proved as porous as a sponge. Roswell by this time touted itself as more than a mere municipality with the census of that year recording as many as 7,687 souls. Hispanics composed 10.6 percent of the total population. Of that number, 436 (58 percent) were born in New Mexico, 189 (25 percent) in Mexico, and 125 (17 percent) in Texas. A large majority, 682 (87 percent), of the Hispanic residents lived within the boundaries of Roswell proper. Of the number in the city, many continued to reside in the Greater Chihuahua area, with the primary concentration south of the Hondo River east of what is today Garden Avenue and south toward McGaffey. The 1910 Census generally included streets and street numbers, and these established the heaviest concentrations on East Tilden, East Hendricks, East Albuquerque, South Mulberry and East Walnut streets. More than half, 442 (56 percent), of the Hispanic population lived in this area. Hispanics again were dispersed throughout the town, with 42 (5 percent) living north of Second Street and west of Main Street. A somewhat greater number, approximately 81 (19 percent), lived south of Second Street and west of Main Street, most along West Tilden between Lea and Union Avenue.

The 1910 Census statistics again reflected the pervasive presence of the nuclear family. As few as thirty-three men and two women equaling four percent of the population lived outside the family. The data do show that 29 (19 percent) of the 151 recognized families were extended to include relatives outside the nuclear unit. The average family size remained nearly five members.

In the area of economics, the largest number of Hispanic laborers, 47 (20 percent) of the 232 who reported their work, identified themselves as sheep herders in the

1910 census. An almost equal number, 46 (20 percent), stated that they were simply laborers. Another 43 (18.5 percent) responded that they were farm laborers specifically. These three types of work accounted for 58.5 percent of the jobs for Hispanic laborers. Twenty (9 percent) reported that they worked in some kind of domestic service in such capacities as cooks, clothes-washers, servants, janitors. Those stating that they worked for the railroad numbered 16 (7 percent) and another 10 (5 percent) worked as wagon/freight drivers. Thus 12 percent of the workers were employed in some aspect of the transportation industry. Finally, 14 (6 percent) of the respondents stated they were employed in some type of skilled activity such as tailor, teacher, barber, interpreter, plumber, bricklayer, shoemaker, plasterer, and stonemason. Another 10 (5 percent) indicated that they worked at some commercial activity such as sales clerk, storekeeper, or bartender.

The 1910 Census recognized the Spanish language, and 382 (49 percent) of Hispanic respondents reported that they spoke, read, or wrote that language. Of the respondents 398 (51 percent) indicated some familiarity with English. There was a definite difference in responses between those residents of Roswell proper and those living outside the community. Of those living in the city, 269 (67 percent) reported that they used English and 213 (44 percent) Spanish. In the outlying areas, 19 (24 percent) identified English as their primary language and 58 (75 percent) Spanish.

The before (1900) and after (1910) comparative approach readily identifies but does not necessarily explain the changes that operated within the Hispanic historical experience in the first decade of the twentieth century. Comparing these still photos and thus making this a moving picture of historical change is preferably left to the interpretive capacities, sometimes better referred to speculative inclinations, of the historian. Probably the best means to extract some meaning from the data is to respond to two questions: first, what were the most significant changes of the decade and second, why did those changes materialize?

What were the most significant changes of the decade? Probably the increase in the Hispanic population in general, while not extraordinary, constitutes a significant change. While the raw population numbers for the entire region grew 2.2 times in the decade, the Hispanic population grew 2.9 times and increased from 8 percent to 10.6 percent of the total number. It should be noted that as early as the second decade of Roswell's incorporated existence, the Hispanics constituted a significant minority group. The nativity figures reveal that much of this growth might be attributed to migration from within the state of New Mexico, an increase in the local birth-rate, or both. In fact, the percentage of the population from within the state increased from 44 percent in 1900 to 58 percent in 1910. The number of foreign-born

(Mexican) residents increased in raw number from 101 to 189 but actually declined from 40 percent to 25 percent of the Hispanic population. This conflicts with the oft-repeated argument that the Mexican migration into the United States in the period just prior to 1910 picked up as a result of the revolutionary rumblings in that country. It also tends to confirm the contentions of many Hispanic residents that their origins are New Mexican rather than Mexican, that they are simply migrants like most everyone else, not immigrants.

The increase in Hispanic numbers is to a considerable degree explained by improved economic opportunities in the Roswell area. In the first decade of the twentieth century, Roswell experienced significant growth and the statistics reflect more diverse wage-labor opportunity especially in the sheep herding, farming and transportation-related enterprises. Certainly, the sheep operations which employed the largest number of Hispanic workers 47 (20 percent) exhibited the most dramatic increase of the decade. 6.7 times as many Hispanic workers were associated with sheep raising in 1910 than in 1900. Three times as many Hispanics (forty-three) worked in farm labor in 1910 than in 1900. The growth can no doubt be attributed to transportation development. The Pecos Valley and Northeastern Railway Company, which finally rolled in to Roswell from Amarillo in 1899, opened up a few opportunities. In addition to tying the Roswell area more directly to eastern markets, it obviously provided direct employment opportunities not so much in construction as in maintenance. Sixteen (70 percent) of Hispanic workers reported employment with the railroad. In addition another 10 (5 percent) reported they were associated in some way with transportation. Roswell had long been a freighting center tied to Las Vegas by the Puerto de Luna, Anton Chico, Tecele route. As such, it had always afforded opportunities for Hispanic freighters and appears to have continued to have done so even after the railroad, the "Pea-Vine," reached town.

The demand for services, both domestic and skilled, accompanied the transportation-inspired economic growth. Twenty-four (15 percent) of Hispanic respondents indicated they worked in service related work. This is a significant increase over the 9 (11 percent) who reported such work in 1900.

The simultaneous growth of the Hispanic community within the Roswell area also contributed to the appeal of the area. Clearly, the substantial increase in the Greater Chihuahua area from at most 130 (49 percent) located on lower Pecos Avenue in 1900 to 442 (56 percent) in the general area in 1910 reflects a strong community growth at least as far as raw numbers. It is reasonable to assume that this demographic condition would function much as it did in eastern cities with large ethnic minorities, fostering a sense of cultural affinity manifested to a considerable degree through the family and other special organizations. The family remained strong with an

even greater number, 745 (96 percent) of the Hispanic population tied in 1910 to the nuclear unit — the primary vehicle of acculturation. It is interesting to note that while a substantial number 398 (51 percent) responded in 1910 that they had some familiarity with English, these were frequently men who needed the language in the work place and children who picked it up in the community at large. The women and mothers still predominantly spoke Spanish and likely used it exclusively in the home.

The data also reveal that employment opportunities were hardly sufficiently lucrative for Hispanics to create significant class divisions which contributed to a more harmonious social contact. The founding of St. Johns Catholic Church in Greater Chihuahua along with fraternal, self-help organizations such as La Sociedad Union y Fraternidad Mexicana reveal, a growing sense of community.

There needs, however, to be a word of caution, for one must be wary of the easy and frequently empty generalization. It would be historically questionable to conclude that the Hispanic experience simply revolved around the emergence of a single culturally homogeneous area. Some have argued that while the nuclear family has transmitted culture. At the same time it tended to atomize the community socially. It is also true that although more than half, 442 (56 percent), of the Roswell area Hispanics lived in Greater Chihuahua, at least 330 (44 percent) lived outside that area. The Hispanic population from these early years was both diverse in terms of its place of origin and sufficiently dispersed to develop varying commitments by way of shared space and social contact to different local communities such as El Alto, La Garra, and Saragossa. The censuses of 1900 and 1910 clearly demonstrated the permanence of these alternative residency patterns. It is apparent that, like many population centers of the Southwest, from its earliest years Roswell was an ethnically diverse community. This is matter of some sensitivity in Roswell where the construction of the "Pea Vine" railroad track severing Chihuahuita from the remainder of the community symbolized a division and made applicable the metaphor "across the tracks."⁸ This unfortunate us/them dichotomy might have been considerably less pronounced if greater consideration had been given to variations within the Hispanic community — to its heterogeneity rather than homogeneity. This dig via the census data into the substrata of the local Hispanic past contributes substantially to historical memory. Such a research approach can function both in lieu of traditional documentary records and as a clarifying complement to anecdotal evidence. While this paper has maintained that this strategy can prove quite fruitful, researchers employing this methodology must be sensitive not only to similarities within an ethnic community but also to differences within that same entity.

**Hispanics in the Roswell area Statistics compiled from the Federal Censuses of 1900 and 1910
A Summary W.E. Gibbs**

	1900
Population	267 (8%) of a total area population of 3,433
Work	84 reported employment
laborer	54 (64%) of the 84 reported
farm work	14 (17%)
herder (sheep)	7 (8%)
all others	9 (11%) No more than (2) reported in any particular type of work.
Nativity	243 reported place of birth
New Mexico	111 (44%)
Mexico	101 (40%)
Texas	41 (16%)
Location	place of residence in the area
outside Roswell	43 (16%)
inside Roswell	
Pecos Ave.	130 (49%)
Kansas Ave.	62 Combined number 73 (27%)
Michigan Ave.	11
Main St.	19 (7%)
Language	
English	24 (9%) reported some familiarity with
no English	243 (91%) reported no use of English.
	Census made no provision for Spanish.
Social/Family Unit	
single	36 (12%) reported no family association
family	231 (88% identified as a part of a family (primarily nuclear) ave. size
	5

	1910
Population	781 (10.6%) of a total area population of 7,687
Work	232 reported employment
laborer	46 (20%) of 232 reported
sheep herder	47 (20%)
farm worker	43 (18.5%)
service (dom.)	20 (9%)
railroad	16 (7%)
service (skilled)	14 (6%)
transportation	10 (5%)
all others	36 (16%) No more than (2) reported in any particular type of work.
Nativity	750 reported place of birth
New Mexico	436 (58%) of 750 reported
Mexico	189 (25%)
Texas	125 (17%)

Location	place of residence in the area
outside Roswell	99 (13%)
inside Roswell	682 (87%)
	(major concentrations)
North and West of Main	42 (5%) of 781
South and West of Main	81 (10%) of 781
Chihuahuita	442 (56%) of 781
East Tilden	122 (18%) inside of Roswell
Albuquerque	85 (13%)
East Hendricks	73 (11%)
South Mulberry	63 (9%)
East Walnut	56 (8%)
Various identified locations	105 (15%)

Language	
English	398 (51%) reported some familiarity with
Spanish	382 (49%) reported some familiarity with as provided for in the census of 1910

Social/Family Unit	
single	35 (4%) reported no family association
family	745 (96%) reported association with some family unit average size 5.

WILLIAM E. "BILL" GIBBS received his Ph. D. from Kent State University in 1973. He taught history and philosophy at New Mexico Military Institute from 1972 to 2001, also serving as Dean of Instruction during the last years of his tenure. Gibbs was the principal author of *New Mexico Military Institute: A Centennial History (1991)*, together with Eugene T. Jackman. Gibbs retired from NMMI in 2001 and now resides in Lexington KY.

ENDNOTES

- 1 Robert V. Hine. *Community on the American Frontier* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1980), 31-32. Hine defined the basic elements of community as the sense of place, the existence of face to face contacts, and experience of common values.
- 2 Lucius Dills. *Roswell: Some Facts and Observations Relative to Its Settlement and Early Growth* (Roswell: Chaves County Archeological and Historical Society, 1932.)
- 3 Maurice Garland Fulton, *Roswell In Its Early Years*, ed. by James Shinkle (Roswell: Hall-Poorbaugh, 1963). This was first printed in the *Roswell Daily Record* in October 1937. Fulton was widely recognized for his scholarly work in the field of history. Some of his additional work includes: *New Mexico's Own chronicle: Three Races in the Writings of Four Hundred Years and Diary and Letters of Josiah Gregg* both with Paul Horgan, and Pat F. Garrett's *Authentic Life of Billy the Kid*, which he edited.
- 4 James D. Shinkle. "Missouri Plaza": *First Settled Community In Chaves County* (Roswell: Hall-Poorbaugh Press, 1972); *Reminiscences of Roswell Pioneers* (Roswell: Hall-Poorbaugh Press, 1966); *Fifty Years Of Roswell History, 1867-1917* (Hall-Poorbaugh Press, 1964). A retired school administrator, Shinkle did much of the initial historical spadework so important to his successors.
- 5 Elvis E. Fleming and Minor Huffman, *Roundup On the Pecos* (Roswell: Chaves County Historical Society, 1978). See particularly Fleming's *Joseph C. Lea, From Confederate Guerrilla To New Mexico Patron* (Las Cruces: Yucca Tree Press, 2002). Fleming still contributes mightily to enabling Roswell to comprehend its present through his work in preserving and communicating its past.
- 6 *Anciano Survey of 1985*. Product of an oral history research project conducted by Ray Burrola and Bill Gibbs to preserve the recollections of Roswell's Hispanic community at the Center for Southwest Research, University of New Mexico.
- 7 *United States Census, 1900, 1910*. Available on microfilm from the New Mexico Office of Historical Records, Santa Fe.
- 8 Arthur J. Rubel. *Across the Tracks, Mexican-Americans in a Texas City* (Austin: University of Texas, 1966), 24, 99.

From This Side to the Other: The History of the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho

by Cameron L. Saffell

Author's Note: This article is drawn from the historical narrative that was prepared in summer 2002 to document the current status of the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho. The documentation work is a prerequisite to the move required by the state's Historic Preservation Division. The final documents follow the guidelines for the Historic American Engineering Record (HAER) program and include blueprints and photographs in addition to the narrative. The New Mexico Farm & Ranch Heritage Museum is relocating and restoring this structure as a pedestrian bridge at the Museum. There, it will become a centerpiece in the interpretation of transportation and its importance in the agriculture and rural life of the state.

This year, the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho marked its one hundredth “birthday” the same way it has for the last decade — sitting adjacent to US 70 in the Hondo Valley, waiting for something to happen. It has been identified as the second oldest highway bridge in New Mexico. It originally was the middle span of a three-bay bridge built across the Pecos River east of Roswell, New Mexico. When it became outmoded on the major highway east to Tatum and the Texas state line in the early 1940s, the State Highway Department (SHD) relocated this span to its present location, crossing the Rio Hondo just west of the small community of Picacho. It remained in use there until it was bypassed with a new bridge in 1989.

This structure represents one of the earliest and common highway bridge styles used in New Mexico. Its relocation and reuse is emblematic of SHD practices in the mid-twentieth century. Today, it patiently awaits a new era — one where its history and its uniqueness can be seen and interpreted for visitors from around the world. This is the story of the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho.

Background: Local Road and Bridge Building and Maintenance

The first statewide organization to oversee roads and

bridges in New Mexico was created just prior to statehood. The Territorial Roads Commission, consisting of the Governor, the Commissioner of Public Lands, and the Territorial Engineer, was created in 1909. It initiated the first comprehensive survey of roads for improvement or construction, and the Territorial Engineer was required to approve any plans for bridges costing

more than a thousand dollars. After statehood in 1912, the State Highway Commission was organized with much broader power and authority to oversee a state highway system. Prior to these events, however, much of the responsibility for roads and bridges was borne by local county governments and municipalities.¹ Local roads, particularly

those in rural areas, were an often neglected responsibility. A widely scattered populace and low tax revenues often meant there was little work on road or bridge construction. A partial effort to alleviate this was a statutory requirement that able-bodied men between twenty-one and sixty years old perform between two and five days labor on local roads annually or pay the road supervisor a dollar a day so he could hire someone else. By the 1920s statutes provided that counties tax landowners for a “road fund” for the same purpose. Yet, as late as 1938



The Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho. Photo by N. M. Farm and Ranch Heritage Museum.

taxpayers could elect to provide labor for their local road supervisor in lieu of paying the road tax.²

The burden of building bridges was also carried by local residents. With limited funding available, most governments built simple timber beam bridges. Citizens, however, could create a special tax levy for more sophisticated bridge projects by getting a hundred “voters and taxpayers” to sign a petition. This was how the residents of Chaves County, New Mexico, went about getting the Pecos River Bridge — their first steel truss bridge — built.³

Pecos River Bridge, 1902-1943

The Pecos River Bridge was constructed across the Pecos River east of Roswell, New Mexico, in 1902. Located about three miles south of the current US 380 bridge over the Pecos River, at the confluence of the Rio Hondo, this bridge connected Roswell with the eastern New Mexico communities of Tatum and Lovington, as well as the smaller settlements, farms, and ranches of the countryside.⁴ The state eventually designated the route Road 13 and numbered the bridge 1486, probably in the state bridge survey conducted in 1929.

In 1899 a taxpayer petition launched the formal proceedings to construct the Pecos River Bridge. On 3 July the Chaves County Board of Commissioners accepted a petition “asking that a bridge be built across the Pecos River.” It appointed a Board of Viewers, consisting of John W. Poe, H. F. Smith, and W. S. Prager, along with County Surveyor Mark Howell, to determine a specific location for the bridge. The Commissioners’ next action came two years later when they instituted a one-time levy for the 1901 fiscal year of “4 mills on the dollar” for the Pecos River Bridge Fund. In August 1901 they advertised for bids “for the material and construction of a steel bridge across the Pecos river...at a point about eight miles east of the town of Roswell...accompanied by plans and specifications.”⁵

By the 7 October deadline, five companies had submitted a total of fifteen plans for the consideration of the Chaves County Board of Commissioners. These ranged in cost from \$8,896 to \$14,850. All five companies were commercial bridge firms: A. M. Blodgett (Kansas City), Missouri Valley Bridge & Iron Works (Leavenworth, Kan.), George E. King Bridge Co. (Des Moines), American Bridge Co. (New York), and the Midland Bridge Company (Kansas City). After “long prayerful consideration of the various bids,” the commissioners selected the Midland Bridge Company’s Plan No. 2. The final cost, including optional steel guard rails, was \$11,008.6 The *Roswell Record* wrote:

The bridge has long been needed and the board has won for itself an immortal crown by the placing of the contract for a bridge of this class, which will last as long as the hills and solve forever the troubles of those who are making the wilderness bloom over beyond the treacherous Pecos. Considering the grade

of the structure the price is very reasonable indeed, and the board is to be congratulated upon its course.⁷

The Pecos River Bridge was a three-span Pratt through truss bridge with pinned connections, a bridge type popular in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries because of its lightweight steel and ease of assembly. Made entirely of light steel construction with a wood deck of 3x12 lumber, the bridge’s overall length was 438 feet with a width of 16 feet. Each of the three spans was approximately 133 feet long, consisting of seven 19-foot panels. The vertical members consisted of riveted steel lattice beams, while the diagonal members were steel bars and steel rods. The decorative diamond-shaped guardrail extended nineteen feet past each end-span to protect travelers from falling off the elevated embankment before the road dropped ten to fifteen feet to the regular surface.⁸

Photo-documentary evidence shows that the bridge had an abutment at each end and where each of the spans connected (four in total). The *Roswell Register* reported that each pier consisted of large tubular pieces of steel filled with concrete, the middle piers in the river itself being 48” in diameter, while the others were 36” in diameter. The concrete was a mixture of gravel and Iola (Kansas) cement. “Before putting in their piers, piling[s] were driven 15 to 17 feet into the river bed, and left projecting upward at least 10 feet. The tubular piers were then set over these and filled with cement, which on examination at one of the piers...was found to be hard as a rock anchor.” The competing *Roswell Record* offered other details: “These piers are made by driving large steel cylinders through the sand into the clay bed and then driving four piles inside each cylinder and filling the vacant place around the piling with cement. The cylinders at the ends of bridge [sic] are thirty-six inches in diameter and are driven seventeen feet into the sand, while the piling goes fifteen feet deeper into the bed of clay. The center pier cylinders are forty-eight inches in diameter and are driven fifteen feet through the sand and the piling fifteen feet into the clay bed.”⁹

On 11 April 1902, the *Roswell Register* reported the arrival by railroad of components for the bridge, including the cylindrical pier pipes. Six weeks later the newspaper reported on the progress: “Everybody who sees the kind of material and work being put in and the general appearance of that portion of the bridge already in place, is highly pleased, and to a novice it looks like a bridge worth more money than it is to cost the county.” It soon became evident that the bridge, and the community of Roswell, was becoming the envy of many in the state: “With a fine new...steel bridge, the other towns in New Mexico will have to hurry to catch up to Roswell.”¹⁰

Within three months the Pecos River Bridge was completed. On 18 July 1902, the three-member Chaves County Board of Commissioners (W.

M. Atkinson, A. M. Robertson, and T. D. White) was joined by John Poe and Mark Howell (from the original Board of Viewers), attorney G. A. Richardson, and the editors of both local newspapers (R. S. Hamilton of the *Register* and E. O. Creighton of the *Record*) on a ride out to inspect the project. Both papers lavished praise upon both the bridge and the politicians. The *Register* reported:

The party examined the bridge carefully, and so far as they could see, it proved to be a splendid piece of work, and was greatly admired by all... The floor of the bridge is four feet higher than the water was ever known to reach during the highest floods, and it is believed that no flood can ever reach it... [This is] one of the best pieces of bridge work it is possible to put up. The county commissioners have been complimented by a great many persons who have seen the bridge, for its excellence and for their good sense in meeting a long felt need. The bridge will be a great convenience to a large number of people, who many a time, have had to camp on the river bank for hours or days, until a flood would subside so that they could cross, or run the risk, as many have done, of drowning, in attempting to cross before the water had gone down enough to make the attempt safe.

Creighton, of the *Record*, heartily concurred: [I] had been hearing all summer of the substantial character of the structure, but did not anticipate anything nearly so good as was found... The floor of the bridge is about six feet higher than the level of the country, so that there is apparently no possibility of it ever being washed out by high water or damaged by drift.¹¹

Maintenance notes for this structure are almost nonexistent. The bridge received its first paint job in 1906 from the Pecos Valley Lumber Company at a cost of \$170. In 1914 Chaves County removed and replaced the deck for the first time at a cost of \$280.95. This modification used planks of 3x8 lumber sixteen feet long supplied by Kemp Lumber Company. In 1920 the deck was repaired “to stand the heavy wear from the gravel wagons of the contractor” rebuilding Road 13 east of Roswell. A 1931 notation in the *New Mexico Highway Journal* indicates that in 1930 the District Highway Office in Roswell installed new steel stringers and a new timber floor, followed by a fresh paint job for the steel spans.¹²

The Pecos River Bridge survived several flood events over the years. Significant floods took place in the county



Looking West across the Pecos River at the bridge, ca. 1930s
RG81-17/2534, *Rio Grande Historical Collections*, New Mexico
State University, Las Cruces, NM.

in 1904, 1905, 1910, 1914, 1916, 1919, and one of the largest in history in 1913. But there is no mention of the Pecos River Bridge in any newspaper accounts of these floods, even though one resident recalled it was the only bridge not washed out in the 1919 event. The Floods of 1937 took a similar toll. The Acme bridge over the Pecos north of Roswell on the road to Portales lost its central section to the swift currents. At its peak, the Pecos River was reportedly three to five miles wide, as waters of the nearby Rio Hondo and Spring Rivers swept through the community of Roswell. Forty people and eight cars were stranded on or near the Pecos River Bridge. A local resident recalled seeing water all over the valley with the Pecos River Bridge sticking up in the middle of it all. Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) workers were called out first to rescue the stranded and then to rebuild and reopen the road. In the end the district highway engineer wrote to State Engineer Herbert Yeo that the damage totaled \$15,727.¹³

The floods of 1937 marked the beginning of the end for the Pecos River Bridge. Over the next two years Road 13 was replaced by the new, federally funded US Highway 380, which ran directly east from Roswell to Tatum. The new road completed the first fully oiled highway from Roswell to the Texas state line and trimmed 4.4 miles from the route in the area closest to Roswell. The new bridge across the Pecos River, built by Thygesen Construction Company of Albuquerque about three miles upstream from the old Pecos River Bridge, was at the time the longest bridge constructed in New Mexico — just over 1,500 feet long.¹⁴ With the opening of US 380 in August 1939, the old Road 13 was no longer the primary roadway and now carried only local traffic. With the diminished use, the Pecos River Bridge had become obsolete.

Another flood in September 1941 apparently caused further damage and deterioration to the bridge. By June 1943 local residents petitioned the Chaves County Board of Commissioners to repair the approaches and infrastructure of the bridge, “as the bridge cannot be used in its present condition.” By that point, however, the Pecos River Bridge’s future had already been determined. On June 7 the Chaves County Road Board decided to “sell” the Pecos River Bridge to the New Mexico State Highway Department (NMSHD), concurring with the latter’s suggestion that “the next flood, in all probabilities, will wash it out and destroy the whole structure.” The Board agreed to let the NMSHD have two of the three spans of the bridge if they would dismantle the entire structure.¹⁵

The New Mexico State Highway Department systematically began to improve roads and bridges on its main highway systems starting in the 1930s, as it did with US Highway 380 near Roswell. Rather than scrap the old steel truss bridges, however, the state recycled them through federal New Deal projects to improve the state’s secondary and farm-to-market roads. Thus, many bridges were relocated to small county roads. This was a common practice of the New Mexico State Highway Department until about 1950. In the 1987 New Mexico Historic Bridge Survey, one-third of the listed truss bridges and one-half of the through-truss bridges were relocated at least once.¹⁶

Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho (The Green Bridge), 1944-1989

The present historic bridge structure over the Rio Hondo one mile west of Picacho was erected in 1944. According to extant markings on the bridge and the recreation diagrams prepared in 1943, the span over the Rio Hondo was the middle span of the 1902 Pecos River Bridge.¹⁷ The NMSHD moved the central span of the 1902 Pecos River Bridge to [Lincoln] County Road A-4, renumbering the new bridge as #3452. This span was moved to provide better access to the ranch lands south of the Rio Hondo in southeastern Lincoln County.¹⁸

On 16 November 1943, the State Highway Commission awarded a \$14,077.20 contract to E. M. Silver of Albuquerque to dismantle the 1902 Pecos River Bridge. State Project 753 started 29 November 1943 and was completed by 25 March 1944. After dismantling the old bridge, the center truss span was hauled to the new bridge site west of Picacho. Dismantling and re-erection drawings prepared for the project indicate that a new wood 4x4 deck be covered with a layer of bituminous asphalt.¹⁹

Museum staff have so far been unable to locate any further information on what happened to the other two spans of the 1902 bridge and the extension guardrails. The contract specifications detailed that one span of the bridge was to be hauled to the Chaves County storage yard in Roswell. The third span and other salvaged steel and parts were delivered to the NMSHD storage yard outside of Roswell. No records have been located at either the Chaves County Clerks Office or the highway

department’s district office in Roswell indicating what happened to the spans after that.²⁰

The reconstructed bridge at Picacho is approximately 133 feet long, retaining the members and guardrails from the original 1902 bridge. Eight steel stringers and six steel crossbeams support the deck. The base of the present asphalt surface is likely the original overlay called for in the bridge relocation plans. Those plans called for 4x4 lumber flooring. The bridge’s live load weight was calculated to be 1,280 pounds per linear foot, and its dead load at 350 pounds per linear foot. The bridge’s two abutments on either side of the Rio Hondo are set back from the waterway and cut into the bank. The bridge appears to have been painted with a red base primer and a green paint, thus giving local residents the basis for calling the new structure the “Green Bridge.”²¹

The bridge led a quiet life at its new location on the Rio Hondo. Local residents recall those using the bridge as local ranchers in their pickup trucks and big eighteen wheelers moving cattle in and out of grazing areas in southeastern Lincoln County. On this upper portion of the Rio Hondo, flood events occurred much less frequently than near Roswell. However, a major flood in the mid-1960s did rise high enough to cover the deck with several inches of water. Floating debris, including a large propane tank, lodged in the superstructure, causing some minor damage. The bridge continued in operation until the late 1980s, when it was determined that it was a historic structure that should be bypassed and replaced.²²

The first element in that determination was the New Mexico Historic Bridge Survey. That study labels the Pratt through truss bridge type with pinned connections as one of the first “engineered” bridges found in the state. The Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho is an example of this construction. The historic bridge survey identified only five Pratt through truss bridges with pinned connections remaining in the state — four highway bridges and a converted railroad-to-vehicle bridge. The surveyors determined that the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho²³ is the longest Pratt through truss span with pinned connections remaining in New Mexico, the oldest documented steel truss bridge in the state, and the second oldest highway bridge in the state. The National Register nomination narrative states that it is “historically significant for its long association with highway transportation in New Mexico dating to the territorial period... [I]t is also significant as the oldest and highest rated of its type in the bridge survey of 1987, embodying the design, materials and methods of construction associated with that bridge sub-type [Pratt through truss with pinned connections].”²⁴

Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho (The Green Bridge), 1989-present

In 1989 the New Mexico State Highway and Transportation Department (NMSHTD) and Lincoln County constructed a new bypass bridge less than forty feet west of the historic structure. The grades leading to the old bridge were for the most part removed, and the entire structure was fenced in. A small sign on the north side

of the bridge facing US 70/380 provides the only interpretation:

RIO HONDO BRIDGE... Originally built in 1902 over the Pecos River and later moved to this site, this Pratt truss bridge is the longest and oldest of its kind remaining in New Mexico.

Lincoln County is the owner of the historic bridge. It is presumed to have had ownership since the re-erection in 1944. The county put up the fence and “No Trespassing” signs around the site to meet liability concerns. Beyond the current interpretive sign, the county and the Highway Department plan no further interpretation of or maintenance for the bridge.

In concluding the historic bridge survey, the state’s HPD identified over a dozen representative historic bridges that should be listed on the State Register of Cultural Properties, including the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho. Ten of those were subsequently listed on the National Register of Historic Places under the Historic Bridges of New Mexico Multiple Property Nomination in 1997. The Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho was nominated, but was not listed.²⁵

In addition to being mentioned in several articles, a brochure, and a video about the state’s historic bridges, the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho has been discussed in one scholarly publication. The book *Historic Highway Bridge Preservation Practices* discusses the bridge several times as a case study of how New Mexico has judged its historic bridges in comparison to other states. The comments are not always favorable, but are intended to show a contrast in approaches of the fifty states.²⁶

Recent Developments

In the early 1990s, shortly after the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho was taken off the system, the Lincoln County Board of Commissioners offered to donate the bridge to the recently created New Mexico Farm & Ranch Heritage Museum. The Museum elected to pass on the offer at the time since all the efforts were focused on designing and building the main facility. The idea was resurrected, however, in early 2000. Museum staff instituted a new investigation into the feasibility, cost, and appropriateness of acquiring the bridge for the Museum. The general finding was that it fit the criteria for a bridge to cross the Tortugas Arroyo, which divides the Museum in half. Further, with its history and use in rural New Mexico, it was felt that the bridge would be an excellent means to open a dialogue on the role and importance of transportation in New Mexico farming and ranching.

In the summer of 2000 the Museum pursued the idea, with presentations to the Lincoln County Board of Commissioners, staff of the HPD, and the state’s Cultural Properties Review Commission, which has oversight of properties listed on the state’s cultural register. In August 2000 State Historic Preservation Officer Elmo Baca rendered a finding that there was “no feasible and

prudent alternative to the proposed” relocation of the bridge from Picacho to the Museum. With this decision, he directed the Museum, in consultation with HPD staff, to submit a plan to minimize harm before granting final project approval.²⁷

Since that time the Museum has been completing plans and fundraising in order to move and completely restore the bridge to an operable condition. Its primary use will be as a pedestrian bridge connecting the main building with the barns, fields, and livestock pens south of the arroyo. In addition, though, the Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho will serve as a point from which the Museum can present and interpret rural transportation and its role in New Mexico agriculture historically. The bridge reflects not only a time long past, but a story of how the state would recycle and reuse its bridges to maintain and improve the entire highway system.

After the completion of the relocation and restoration project, the Museum and HPD will present the work to the state’s Cultural Properties Review Commission (CPRC) for review of the status of the state register listing, as well as for reconsideration and possible nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.

CAMERON L. SAFFELL has been Curator of Agriculture at the New Mexico Farm & Ranch Heritage Museum since 1999. He has been doing research on this and other historic bridges since early 2000. A native of Lubbock, Texas, Saffell is completing his Ph.D. from Iowa State University with a dissertation on the introduction and spread of cotton agriculture in the American West.

ENDNOTES

- 1 Steven R. Rae, Joseph E. King, and Donald R. Abbe, *New Mexico Historic Bridge Survey* (Santa Fe: New Mexico State Highway and Transportation Department, 1987), 8-9.
- 2 A petition of signed by at least a hundred “voters and tax payers” was required by territorial law. The initial version of the work requirement was for able-bodied men between twenty-one and sixty years old to perform between two and five days’ labor on local roads annually or pay the road supervisor a dollar a day. The 1929 annotated New Mexico Statutes indicates a revision that labor could be provided by a taxpayer in lieu of paying the “road tax.” *Public Roads of New Mexico: Mileage and Expenditures in 1904*, USDA Office of Public Roads Circular No. 52 (Washington, D.C.: GP, 1904); William H. Courtright, comp., *New Mexico Statutes Annotated for 1929* (Denver, Col.: W. H. Courtright Publishing Co., 1929).
- 3 *Idem.*; *Historic Bridge Survey*, 7.
- 4 The author visited the original bridge site in April 2001 to view what remains of the footings and abutments. Today the Rio Hondo has been channeled such that it passes under the location of the westernmost span of the bridge before it enters to Pecos River. A review of photographic evidence to date does not confirm or contradict whether this was the same when the bridge was built in 1902.
- 5 Chaves County Commissioners Proceedings, 3 July 1899 (Volume A, p. 247), County Clerk’s Office, Chaves County Courthouse, Roswell, N.M. (hereafter cited as Chaves County Proceedings); *Ibid.*, 1 July 1901 (Volume A, p. 349); “Notice to Contractors,” *Roswell Record*, 16 August 1901.
- 6 The guard rails were \$660. Chaves County Proceedings, 7-8 October 1901 (Volume A, p. 354-55).
- 7 “Pecos River Bridge,” *Roswell Record*, 11 October 1901.
- 8 “Rio Hondo Bridge at Picacho,” National Register of Historic Places Registration Form, 1996, as found in the Historic Preservation Division files, State of New Mexico (hereafter cited as National Register Nomination); “Pecos River Bridge,” *Roswell Record*, 11 October 1901; “Bridge No. 1487,” *New*

- Mexico State Highway Commission, Plan & Profile of Proposed State Highway Project No. 753 (14 November 1943), p. 6, as found in Records Control Unit, New Mexico State Highway and Transportation Department, Santa Fe, N.M. (hereafter cited as Bridge Relocation Plans).
- 9 "Pecos River Bridge-Roswell, NM"; "The Pecos River Bridge: It is a Fine Structure and would be a Credit to any State or Territory," Roswell Register, 25 July 1902; "The Pecos River Bridge: County Commissioners and Visitors Pronounce it all Right," Roswell Record, 25 July 1902.
 - 10 "Bridge Material Arrives," Roswell Register, 11 April 1902; "It Is a Fine Bridge," Roswell Register, 23 May 1902; Editorial of the Santa Fe New Mexican reprinted in the Roswell Record, 25 October 1901.
 - 11 "Pecos River Bridge," Roswell Register, 25 July 1902; "Pecos River Bridge," Roswell Record, 25 July 1902; Chaves County Proceedings, 24 July 1902 (Volume A, p. 389).
 - 12 Chaves County Proceedings, 1 October 1906 (Volume A, p. 591); Chaves County Road Board, 3 June, 15 August, and 26 September 1914 (Road Board Proceedings volume, p. 16, 19, and 21); Leslie A. Gillett, Fourth Report of State Highway Engineer and State Engineer of New Mexico... ([Santa Fe: State Engineer,] 1920), p. 17; E. B. Vande Greyn, "Work of the Bridge Division in 1930," New Mexico Highway Journal 9 (January 1931): 32. To this point only one source, East Grand Plains resident Morgan Nelson, has recalled what color the bridge was painted; he thinks it was black.
 - 13 Herbert Yeo Papers, Rio Grande Historical Collections, New Mexico State University; Emmett W. York, Interview by Elvis Fleming, 7 April 1975 (Historical Society for Southeast New Mexico, Roswell, N.M.), Tape One, Side Two; "Adj. Gen. Charlton Makes This Estimate After Survey Sunday," Roswell Record, 31 May 1937; Richard Melzer, *Coming of Age in the Great Depression: The Civilian Conservation Corps Experience in New Mexico, 1933-1942* (Las Cruces, N.M.: Yucca Tree Press, 2000), 209; Morgan Nelson, personal recollections to Cameron Saffell, 8 April 2001.
 - 14 The bridge was also one of the costliest construction projects in state history at \$565,011.64. The new highway was seen as a major advance for southeastern New Mexico by its boosters. The dedication ceremony on August 26 was sponsored by the Roswell Daily-Record and the Hobbs News-Sun and was attended by Governor John Miles. Roswell Morning Dispatch, 20 August 1939; and Roswell Daily Record, 14-27 August 1939.
 - 15 The only mention of the bridge during the 1941 floods was a newspaper report about a local rancher who had become stranded on the bridge by rising floodwaters. Accounts mostly focused on how the new roadway and bridge remained open, despite the flooding. "D. R. Britt Rescued From Pecos Bridge," Roswell Daily Record, 24 September 1941; "Petition to the Board of County Commissioners of Chaves County," 28 June 1943, in the files of the County Clerk's Office, Chaves County Courthouse, Roswell, N.M.
 - 16 Descriptive narrative, National Register Nomination; Historic Bridge Survey, 38-39.
 - 17 Descriptive narrative, National Register Nomination, and information provided by area residents and by visual observations of NMFRRH Museum staff Dave Harkness and Cameron Saffell; "Dismantling & Re-Erection Diagram, Bridge No. 1487," Bridge Relocation Plans.
 - 18 Descriptive narrative, National Register Nomination. Lincoln County later renumbered this road as County Road E 028.
 - 19 "Highway Commission Awards Contracts on Five Projects," New Mexico 21 (December 1943): 27; "Projects Starting During November, 1943," New Mexico 22 (January 1944): 46; "Projects Completed During March, 1944," New Mexico 22 (May 1944): 26; "Dismantling & Re-Erection Diagram, Bridge No. 1487," blueprints, sheet 3 of 7, State Project 753(1), as found in the New Mexico Farm & Ranch Heritage Museum archives; "Special Specification for Dismantling and Hauling Bridge No. 1487," as found in files at the District 2 Highway Office, N.M. State Highway and Transportation Department, Roswell. The "State Projects Under Contract" section of New Mexico for the December 1943 through April 1944 issues list the estimated completion at each report interval as follows: 21 November 1943 - 0%; 16 December 1943 - 0%; 24 January 1944 - 16%; 24 February 1944 - 34%; 1 March 1944 - 75%; Bridge Relocation Plans.
 - 20 "Special Specifications for Dismantling and Hauling Bridge No. 1487." Thirty-plus year veterans of the district highway office do not recall the bridge parts being in the yard there. A Museum supporter reports an anecdotal rumor that the Chaves County span was later sold to an area rancher, who erected the bridge on his private property. This story is as yet unconfirmed.
 - 21 Descriptive narrative, National Register Nomination, and information provided by area residents and by visual observations of NMFRRH Museum staff Dave Harkness and Cameron Saffell.
 - 22 Personal recollections told to Cameron Saffell and Dave Harkness during their general research. The flood story was related by Lincoln resident and former county commissioner Ralph Dunlap and was corroborated by a member of the public speaking at a presentation by the New Mexico Farm & Ranch Heritage Museum to the Lincoln County Board of Commissioners on 9 June 2000. Someone reportedly has a picture of the propane tank still stuck in the bridge, but it has not yet been located.
 - 23 A designation apparently made for the bridge survey or as given by the highway department. This Pratt bridge is sometimes confused in discussion with the Rio Hondo Bridge at Tinnie, a Parker through truss, located about ten miles to the west of Picacho near Tinnie.
 - 24 Historic Bridge Survey, 26 and 86; and National Register Nomination. According to the Historic Bridge Survey, the oldest "bridge" is the Hot Springs Boulevard Culvert in Las Vegas, a masonry arch structure built in 1888 (72).
 - 25 The Multiple Property Nomination narrative is available from the Historic Preservation Division and at the Center for Southwest Research at the University of New Mexico. David Kammer, *Historic Highway Bridges of New Mexico: An Historic Context on New Mexico's Highway Bridges* (Santa Fe: New Mexico State Highway and Transportation Department, 1996).
 - 26 William P. Chamberlin, *Historic Highway Bridge Preservation Practices, National Cooperative Highway Research Program Synthesis of Highway Practice 275* (Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1999).
 - 27 Elmo Baca to Mac Harris, letter, 30 August 2000.



Artist's rendering of how the bridge might appear at the New Mexico Farmy & Ranch Heritage Museum

DOÑA ANA COUNTY HISTORICAL SOCIETY

Memorial

Dr. Ira Clark

I first met Dr. Ira Clark a third of a century ago, to be precise April, 1969, when I was interviewing for a position in the Department of History at New Mexico State University. When I arrived to begin teaching in August of the same year, I was assigned an office next to Dr. Clark. Over the years I had the great good fortune to get to know Ira. He was quite literally a legend in his own time.

Ira taught the bread and butter course for history majors known by various names (History and Historians, for example). If students could survive this course they could graduate. The final assignment in the class was to write a major research paper. Ira would check every single footnote in every student's paper. I have never known a professor who was so meticulous. And it paid off for his students who learned the craft from a master historian.

His students who went on to receive M.A. and Ph.D. degrees include distinguished scholars such as Dr. Darlis Miller who succeeded him as the department's western historian when he retired.

Ira was a master professor who did not engage in



historionics but was rather plain spoken. His students knew they were getting it straight from a professor who literally knew it all. Every student who had Ira at NMSU has Ira Clark stories. He would walk in his class writing on the board and revive the same way — if you took a deep breath you would miss a valuable piece of information. He taught probably more than one percent of the state's population during his career. His scholarly productivity was not enormous — two books and a healthy number of journal articles. But my goodness what books they were. His classic *Water in New Mexico* is the standard work on the evolution of New Mexico water law from the arrival of the Spanish to the present. All water lawyers in New Mexico have a well-thumbed copy on their book shelf. I remember reading chapter drafts while Ira was writing it. His first draft ran to 1,800 pages in typescript and his editor at the University of New Mexico Press suggested it needed to be cut. Ira cut the manuscript reluctantly.

Ira was not perfect — ask anyone who ever faced him across the net in a tennis match. He played to win and usually did. But to his students, colleagues and friends, he was an extraordinary man. We shall never see another individual like him again.

Ray Sadler
Department of History
New Mexico State University

[Editor's note: Ira Granville Clark, Jr. died in Las Cruces on 12 June 2002 at the age of ninety-three.]

Alice Gruver

Alice Gruver was a newspaper woman, historian, community activist and a family person. She died at age eighty-eight on 20 October at Good Samaritan Retirement Village, one of many institutions and activities she helped to found and promote during her long career.

Born into the McCorkle family in Weed, New Mexico, she was widowed, graduated from then New Mexico A & M, taught school, and was a freelance writer before going into newspapering in 1948 when she married Homer Gruver, owner of the weekly Las Cruces Citizen and printing company.

Alice reported everything from weddings and tea parties to court trials and politics. She was best in hard news. She had been active long enough and had cultivated enough connections to know the how and who of Las Cruces. And what she did not know, Homer did. She also was a correspondent for area newspapers, which gave her work wider circulation.

Las Cruces was a rollicking town in those days. When the body of Ovida "Cricket" Coogler was found on Easter morning 1949, Alice turned to the El Paso Herald-Post for help. Had it not been for Alice and El Paso reporter Walt Finley, it could have been a two-day story swept under



the carpet where the dust was already thick with tales of area crime and political corruption. The two reporters, both retired, were interviewed extensively for a professional movie produced last year, "The Silence of Cricket Coogler, A Political Murder." Ultimately, this chapter in Las Cruces history rearranged the furniture in Dona Ana County and state politics, government, justice,

and gambling.

Soon, Las Cruces was caught up in urban renewal. It was unfortunate that the Gruvers retired in 1960, in the middle of all of this. The controversial Downtown Mall might not have had so many problems had Alice been around.

Alice could mediate but she would not compromise on accuracy, honesty, integrity, truthfulness. She made politicians and bureaucrats nervous. Her reporting was-

first rate. She was aggressive in asking questions, knowledgeable in using records, and not afraid of anyone. She founded the Las Cruces Chapter of the New Mexico Press Women, served two terms as president of the state organization, was its Woman of the Year in 1972, and served on national committees. She was an honorary life member of both Press Women and the Southern New Mexico Press Club. She is in the Dona Ana County Hall of Fame of the Rio Grande Historical Society and she was Woman of the Year for AAUW in 1967.

A leader in numerous women's organizations, especially the Women's Improvement Association, Alice believed they should work for the good of the community. She made sure their good deeds were properly recognized. Her survivors include daughters Nancy Christmore of Las Cruces and Jacqueline Kelsey of El Paso; a son, Robert Wilbur of Albuquerque; and many grandchildren and great grandchildren.

Barbara Funkhouser
Retired editor of the El Paso Times

Book Reviews

Army *Regulars on the Western Frontier, 1848-1861* by Durwood Ball. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2001. 287 pp., notes, maps, illus., biblio., index. \$34.95, hardcover.

This relatively brief book is useful and very welcome in filling something of a historiographical gap in United States military history: the interesting and eventful years between the Mexican-American War and the Civil War. Many monographs and biographies cover this period, at least in part, as the author's impressive bibliography shows; and many general surveys of military history touch upon this period; but Durwood Ball has given us broad coverage for the first time in a useful, fairly comprehensive, insightful work.

The lengthy introduction and prologue include the army table of organization for 1855 with a discussion of background in terms of politics, post-1848 manpower reduction in the face of new demands on the service, layout of departments, etc. Then Part I, "Defense, War, and Politics," provides three chapters on the role of officers, on how fighting in the West was conducted with special attention to the enlisted soldiers, and finally descriptions of four particularly important campaigns. The first was that of Colonel Edwin V. "Bull" Sumner against the Cheyennes in 1857 (pp. 39-44); second is one by Colonel William S. Harney against the Brulé Sioux in 1855 (pp. 44-47); next one by Captain Earl Van Dorn against the Comanches in 1858 (pp. 48-51); and finally Colonel George Wright's 1858 Spokane Expedition against several tribes east of the Cascades (pp. 51-54).

Some readers will find the fourth chapter of Part I most interesting: "Soldiers, Politics, and Sectionalism." Ball emphasizes the "army hierarchy...a class system coded by ethnicity and education," and that the enlisted soldiers were regarded in this period as "society's flotsam and jetsam." They were "underpaid, abused and under appreciated well into the twentieth century" (pp. 56-57, 60). He comments on the levels of officerdom, noting for starters that there was only one commanding general for the entire period, Winfield Scott, whose striking attributes he describes — favorable and not. He summarizes the personalities and idiosyncrasies of departmental commanders, but also and more interestingly, perhaps, those of the field and company officers, "a middle-class elite," 70% of whom by 1861 were West Point graduates, who had enjoyed "the most rigorous higher education in ante-bellum America" (p. 72). Concern about the issue of slavery and sectionalism in officer ranks has been denied by other writers, but Ball finds that biases were strong, beginning with the U.S. Military Academy at West Point.

Part II is comprised of three chapters describing the

army's role as "Border Constabulary," meaning as enforcer of federal domestic law and policy. First is "Regulars, Filibusters, and Vigilantes in San Francisco, 1851- 1856," a complicated and intriguing story, followed by "Riding the Line, Regulars on the Texas-Mexico Border." The border area of concern is that of southernmost Texas — another complicated story which concludes with a brief account of conflict with the "banditti" headed by Juan N. Cortina. Finally, Ball summarizes the army's role in the dispute with Great Britain over San Juan Island in the far northwest. Encompassed in Part II is a folio of illustrations, chiefly of army officers (pp. 107-126). It is accented by succinct characterizations such as "William S. Harney, the Squaw Killer," "George Wright, the Quiet Destroyer," "David E. Twiggs, the Traitor," and "John E. Wool, the Card Shark."

Part III is entitled "Civil Intervention" and includes masterly, compressed accounts of the army's role in Utah and in "Bleeding" Kansas. The brevity is so severe as to suggest that the usefulness of these accounts is primarily for reference. Finally, Chapter 10 offers a lucid, interesting summary, building on all that precedes it, of the partial breakup of the army when Abraham Lincoln was elected president.

As a work of reference — this is clearly how this study will prove most useful, bringing together and developing relationships with so much that is available already in other published works. The detailed annotation, including many original sources, will support investigation by others, as will the extensive bibliography. Publications as recent as 1999 are included but coverage still might be improved by inclusion, for instance, of the encyclopedic 1998 work by Donald S. Frazier, ed., *The United States and Mexico at War*.

The author's writing is uniformly clear and direct, free of stylistic flourishes, but readability may have suffered from pressure by the publisher for brevity. Thus it seems the more regrettable that the manuscript did not receive more careful editing and copy-editing. The excessive use of quotation marks is notable. One finds occasional odd word usages such as *wringed* for *wrung* (p. 132), and errors such as citing Map 4 (not numbered in the text) when Map 1 is meant (p. 156). Socorro, New Mexico, is located on the wrong side of the Rio Grande in Map 2 but correctly in Map 4. No attempt is made to distinguish between El Paso del Norte, Mexico, and Franklin, Texas, which did not become El Paso, Texas, until 1859. Most disappointing is the index, which for a reference work should be as accurate and complete as possible. Many if not most proper names are omitted, including ones of special significance such as "Cart War," and page citations are incomplete for ones included such as David Atchison,

Sterling Price, and Henry Titus. These disappointments do not detract seriously, however, from the overall great value of this volume, which belongs in the library of everyone seriously interested in ante-bellum and western American military history.

John Porter Bloom
Las Cruces, NM

Pat F. Garrett's *The Authentic Life of Billy the Kid: An Annotated Edition*. Frederick Nolan, ed. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2000, 198 pp., intro. xvi pp., photos, side notes, reading list, index, maps, hardcover, \$24.95.

In April 2001 the Historical Society of New Mexico conferred upon English author Frederick Nolan recognition for the body of work that he has produced concerning our state's Territorial Period, focused on the Lincoln County War. *The Life and Death of John Henry Tunstall* appeared in 1965, *The Lincoln County War: A Documentary History* in 1992, and *The West of Billy the Kid* in 1998. This volume is his fourth major work on the subject.

Nolan's editorship of an edition of Pat Garrett's 1882 *The Authentic Life of Billy the Kid* is most fitting. He follows distinguished editors Maurice Garland Fulton and J.C. Dykes. All concur that Garrett family friend, "Ash" Upson was the ghost writer responsible for most of the volume. As Dykes also observed, the book divides easily into three sections. The section on the Kid's early life is full of literary allusions that clearly indicate Upson's authorship and almost total ignorance or distortion of actual fact. The middle portion of the book is probably a collaboration, although written by Upson, and is based less on imagination and more on fact. Beginning with chapter seventeen the operative pronoun becomes "I" and the authorship becomes Garrett's. Or does it?

What is new in this edition is Nolan's assertion that previous scholars have erred in giving too much credence to Garrett's seeming narrative. He argues that this section's appearance of "unvarnished truth" is carefully crafted. Convincingly, he suggests that Sheriff Garrett's version of Billy the Kid's escape from the Lincoln County jail fails to account for a persistent local explanation that Garrett must have been aware of — that a gun had been left in the privy. But with the killing of the Kid at Ft. Sumner, Nolan embraces conspiracy theory.

Nolan is not the first historian to speculate on a romantic liaison between sixteen-year-old Paulita Maxwell and the Kid. It is her older brother Pete Maxwell's aversion to this relationship which, according to this line of reasoning, allows Garrett to determine the Kid's whereabouts after his escape from Lincoln. Nolan supports this theory.

Nolan takes serious issue, however, with Garrett's

account of the Kid's death. He finds that the Garrett/Upson and John Poe accounts differ "violently" (not his verdict presented in *The West of BTK*, by the way) and introduces another. "Tip" McKinney, the other deputy at Ft. Sumner on 14 July 1881, allegedly told English writer Frederick Grey that pretty Paulita was used as a lure for the Kid's demise and Garrett shot him down unceremoniously. Nolan concludes that the Garrett/Upson account is designed to protect the Maxwell family and make the sheriff look good.

All of this is quite interesting, but problematical. Surely Garrett had reason to shade what occurred at Ft. Sumner. The old question of whether the Kid was armed with anything other than a knife has long been argued. But the normal *querida* mentioned for Billy at Ft. Sumner is Celsa Gutiérrez, Pat Garrett's wife's sister! But the unanswered question is whether Garrett, indeed, shaded this particular account, and if so, to what degree.

This reviewer submits that the account of the killing of Billy the Kid at Ft. Sumner passes the test of reasonable veracity. And it does so because it is so obviously not crafted from the point of view of making the sheriff look good! Garrett's deputies are unable to prevent the Kid from walking into Maxwell's bedroom. Poe even catches his spurs on the porch. When Maxwell emerges unceremoniously from the room, the same deputy draws down on him! This does not sound like a contrived story; it sounds like real life in the dark when the plan has gone wrong! That Garrett admits to firing a wild second shot before exiting the room does not sound contrived, nor does the discussion of whether Billy got off a third shot. A contrived story would establish a steadfast sheriff that makes few mistakes, not the humanized portrait presented.

Garrett's second bullet was later found to have embedded itself in the furniture (establishing the place where the gunfire occurred). The small crowd that quickly gathered was at Maxwell's bedroom. If, as Nolan presents, Billy was shot in another room (Paulita's?), the body had to be moved from there to Pete's bedroom before the crowd gathers. Billy's death wound was apparently massive, and before his wake a shirt was stuffed into it. Blood is notoriously hard to clean up and would have to have been hidden if it was in the wrong room!

Probably one of the best analyses of problems with the Garrett-Upson account is to be found in Ramon F. Adams's *Burs Under the Saddle: A Second Look at Books and Histories of the West* (Norman, 1964). Author Jon Tuska has listed seventy-five problems with its facts in *Billy the Kid: A Handbook* (Lincoln, 1983). Other authors have suggested that Pete Maxwell might have been the source of the information that the Kid was at Ft. Sumner, and that Billy might have been seeing Paulita. But Nolan has gone out on a limb to debunk Garrett-Upson thoroughly.

Another curious aspect of this edition is its rich use of photographs, but not one of the Kid! If it was Nolan's intention to suggest a resemblance between Paulita's son, Telesfor Jaramillo, and the Kid, it would have been more effective to put Telesfor's photo next to the tintype of his putative father. This reviewer feels obligated to point out, however, that it would have been difficult for the Maxwell family to avoid scandal if Telesfor was, indeed, Billy and Paulita's child since her wedding was five and one half months later, in January 1882.

The editor's assertions concerning Garrett's inaccuracies are well-reasoned and presented, even if they do not all hold water. This volume is exceptional because it not only has an excellent introduction, but the editor has provided eleven additional commentaries throughout the book, essays on relevant topics from the causes of the Lincoln County War to Governor Wallace's relationship with Billy the Kid. The book ends with an additional commentary section labeled as addenda, as well as a postscript on Pat Garrett. This editor, more than any of his predecessors in his position, has made a significant effort to assure that the reader understands the origins and events of the Lincoln County War and its aftermath. This places the Garrett/Upson account in its historical context. From there Nolan argues that *The Authentic Life of Billy the Kid* is not authentic at all, and has more to do with establishing the legend of the Kid than with establishing historical fact.

One can agree with the foremost living authority on Billy the Kid and his life and times, or disagree as one chooses. It was historian Paul Hutton who described Billy the Kid as forever young and forever riding into the sunset. And with him ride all of the controversies concerning his short, violent, and celebrated life.

Robert L. Hart
New Mexico Farm and Ranch Heritage Museum
Las Cruces, N. Mex.

The Civil War in West Texas and New Mexico: The Lost Letterbook of General Henry Hopkins Sibley by John P. Wilson and Jerry Thompson, eds. El Paso: Texas Western Press, 2001, 193 pp., illus., photographs, index, notes, paper, \$18.00.

This book is one for the serious student of General Sibley's New Mexico campaign. A newly discovered primary source, only a few of its letters were previously known and published in the Official Records of the Rebellion. With 147 letters, spanning the period from 10 July 1861 to 31 October 1862, this volume is a major find.

The lost letterbook was retained in the possession of Private Timothy Nettles of the Fifth Texas Mounted Volunteers, wounded at Glorieta, and later promoted to a lieutenant in the Valverde Battery. Following the New Mexico campaign Nettles saw service primarily in

Louisiana. After the war he repeatedly refused requests to write a memoir of his Confederate service, but retained the letterbook.

The letters reveal a General Sibley not commonly known. Apparently a busy correspondent, the man who emerges from these letters deserves increased respect in the fields of diplomacy and administration. It is difficult not to empathize with Sibley as he attempts to recruit and equip his brigade, only to be continually thwarted by Confederate command changes and the state of Texas's inability to make good on promises of recruits.

The invasion timetable was thrown off by the inability to recruit and supply the invaders. What should have been a fall invasion of New Mexico turned into a punishing winter campaign. A fascinating suggestion appears in the introduction noting that Lt. Colonel J.R. Baylor's 1861 invasion of New Mexico may have been suggested by one of the South's dimmer lights, General Earl Van Dorn.

Several additional surprise details are in store for the reader. George H. Giddings, of the San Antonio and San Diego Stage Line, is revealed to be a Confederate arms agent. Prominent early Las Cruces, Thomas J. Bull, turns out to be a previously unknown Confederate collaborator. And privateer William Kirk, who stole a Union supply train, turns out to have been proposed by Sibley for turnover to Canby just before the serious campaigning began.

The book's most serious lack is the complete absence of accompanying maps of Texas and New Mexico. Otherwise, the book is a gold mine of little-known facts, such as Confederate Sherrod Hunter's escort of Confederate emissary Col. James Reily to Mexico or that the departing Confederates clashed with local Hispanics to the discomfort of the Confederates. A caution before buying is in order, however, because the book is not a narrative. It is a collection of letters with a short introduction. The casual Civil War buff should stay away from this volume; the serious student, however, will treasure it.

Robert L. Hart
New Mexico Farm and Ranch Heritage Museum
Las Cruces, N. Mex.

Civil War in the Southwest: Recollections of the Sibley Brigade by Jerry Thompson, ed. College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 2001, 195 pp., notes, biblio. appendix, index, maps, hardcover \$24.95.

This volume is an excellent addition to the library of any student of the Civil War in the Southwest. The author's introduction is an exceptional summary of Sibley's New Mexico campaign and the accompanying maps by Donald Frazier are among the best on the subject this reviewer has examined.

The volume is composed of short reminiscences by

several participants. The most prolific of the authors is William L. Davidson, a sergeant in Company A, Fifth Texas Mounted Volunteers. Davidson had a reputation as an Indian fighter before the war and his service extended beyond the New Mexico campaign; he finished the war as a major, having by his own account been wounded seven times! During the 1880s he determined to write a history of the Sibley Brigade and with the help of the editor of the Overton Sharp Shooter, former private Sharp R. Whitley of Company F, Fifth Texas Mounted Volunteers, now began publishing articles in that journal.

Several other Confederate veterans joined the ultimately incomplete project. Second Lieutenant P.J. Fulcrod of Davidson's regiment's artillery company, W.P. Laughter of the Second Texas's Company D, and Sergeant A.B. Peticolas from the Fourth Texas. Their published accounts give fresh views of the battles of Valverde, Glorieta, and Peralta.

There were two catalysts for Davidson and Whitley's project. The first was that Theophilus Noel's memoir of the New Mexico campaign (published before the war was over!) got the facts wrong. And the second was a school child's letter asking for whom Tom Green County was named. Colonel Green was the regimental commander of the Fourth Texas during the New Mexico campaign and was killed in action as a major general later in the war.

Most notable about the accounts in this volume is the humor with which many observations concerning the Confederate soldier are made. A description of observers Davidson and Trimble in a Peralta church tower observing enemy fire find them is particularly memorable. The high regard of the writers for their opponent General E.R.S. Canby and his wife, Louisa, and their low regard for their own General H.H. Sibley's talents is also notable.

The volume has no significant shortcomings. The reader, however, is inclined to observe that it is a shame that more articles were not written in the series. This book is a gem.

Robert L. Hart
New Mexico Farm and Ranch Heritage Museum
Las Cruces, N. Mex.

Once Enemies, Now Friends. Two Soldiers Tell Their Stories of World War II by Chuck Miles and Felix Pfaeffle. Editor Donna Eichstaedt. Las Cruces, NM: Red Sky Publishing Co., 2001. 202 pp., \$15.00, paper.

Two veterans of World War II, an American and a former German soldier, now an American citizen, describe their wartime experiences in their recently published book, *Once Enemies, Now Friends*. The American Chuck Miles, raised on a farm in Missouri, was drafted into the U.S. army in spring of 1944. After basic training the Army shipped him to Europe. Having just turned nineteen, he was sent with the Sixty-Third Infantry Divi-

sion to the front in eastern France in December 1944, at a time when Hitler had ordered a major offensive in the West, which became known as the "Battle of the Bulge."

In Alsace, France, on the western side of the Rhine, Miles experienced his first encounter with German troops. He spent Christmas digging foxholes and volunteered as a scout for a dangerous reconnaissance patrol. Later, his unit became involved in heavy fighting with German forces in Gros Rederching, a small town in France. Chuck Miles received the Bronze Star for having defended his position while being trapped behind enemy lines and for having killed twelve enemy soldiers.

In February 1945, Miles and his battalion finally crossed into Germany. They slowly advanced, conquering town after town, quite often engaged in heavy combat with the enemy. Time and again, Chuck Miles asks the pertinent question why the Germans continued fighting even though they were losing the war. "We knew we had won the war and couldn't understand why the Germans kept fighting. People were being killed each day and picturesque villages were being damaged when it should not have been necessary" (p. 47).

Felix Pfaeffle, barely sixteen, was drafted into the German Luftwaffe's anti-aircraft corps, also in 1944. He and his unit were ordered to stop the advance of the allied forces not far from Karlsruhe, his hometown. During Christmas 1944, while the American infantryman Miles was fighting on the western side of the Rhine River, Felix Pfaeffle was stationed only a few miles on the opposite side of the river.

Despite the common and brutal battle experience, the contrast between the two is obvious. Whereas Chuck Miles fought a just war to defeat Nazi Germany, Felix Pfaeffle was the sixteen-year-old reluctant soldier who was critical of the Nazi regime. He clearly recognized that the war was lost for Germany, and he wanted to surrender to the American forces. However, that could have been very dangerous, as the German Military Police or the SS would shoot any soldier who was caught in an attempt to defect to the enemy.

Whereas Pfaeffle, after a three-month stay in the hospital due to an injury, was able to hide and survive the war, Miles and his unit continued to fight until he was wounded on 20 April 1945 in a small village in southern Germany, only three weeks before the unconditional surrender of the German armed forces.

Felix Pfaeffle, who at the end of the war had hoped to come to America, was able to immigrate to the United States in 1951. In 2001, the two former enemies met by chance in Las Cruces, New Mexico, where both had retired. They discovered that both had been fighting as enemies only a few miles apart fifty-seven years ago. The two became friends and decided to write down their experiences. They both describe the horror and destructiveness of the war, their fears and anxieties.

The editor of *Once Enemies, Now Friends*, Dr. Donna

Eichstaedt, writes in her introduction that this “book presents a sensitive portrayal of two boys, caught up in the horror of the war, who miraculously survived to meet in Las Cruces, New Mexico many years later — armed with time only and with memories and friendship” (p. xii).

Once Enemies, Now Friends is a fascinating account of two young soldiers engaged in fierce combat at the end of World War II. Their book has been translated and released in Germany, and the two authors and their editor were invited in spring 2002 to a book signing tour in southern Germany.

Wolfgang T. Schlauch
Las Cruces, N. Mex.

S*anta Barraza: Artist of the Borderlands*, edited by Maria Herrera-Sobek. College Station, Texas A&M University Press, 2001, Rio Grande/Rio Bravo Series, 114 pp., illus., \$40.00, hardcover.

Dreamed of and edited by Maria Herrera-Sobek of the University of California Santa Barbara, *Santa Barraza, Artist of the Borderlands*, is about how Santa Barraza homesteads *los dos mundos* along the Mexico-United States border to create a body of work through which she reclaims and integrates the ancestral elements of her culture with those of her daily life as a *mestiza*, more precisely, a Chicana artist.

Herrera-Sobek introduces essays by the artist, Shifra M. Goldman, Tomas Ybarra-Frausto, and Dori Lemeh. Thirty-plus color plates and black and white photographs of her work, self, and family provide formal context for the work and career of an artist who rightfully claims a place in the cultural history of the Mexico-United States borderlands. In addition, the book includes detailed notes and a comprehensive bibliography.

“Santa Barraza: An Autobiography” reveals the artist’s renewed affinity with the landscape of the borderlands. As she travels from Chicago to Kingsville, Texas — from green crop lands to desert vegetation, from big rivers to *arroyos*, the smell of dirt awakens childhood memories and heightens a sense of connection to the same land that nurtured her *antepadres y antemadres*. Santa’s family origins are deeply intertwined with local history. Since 1848 the United States Southwest was reconfigured by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo that created the tenuous line on the dirt known as the Mexico-United States border. *Tejano* and other families along *la frontera* were separated by an abstract line devised from the outside and in disregard of the people’s notion of citizenship and cultural allegiance. In Santa’s autobiography readers will find how pervasive the impact of the Treaty still is in the memory of the descendants of those who stayed with the Anglos — *los vende patrias* — and were reminded to return to “where they came from” (p. 15).

Whether derived from the enduring collective mem-

ory of *antepadres y antemadres* or emerging from recent family recollections, Santa Barraza’s visual work engages the viewer with a narrative that fully expresses the sacred, the natural and the mythic. Beginning her career during the Chicano Movement, her work is feminist, engaged, evaluative of the present and reflective of her “*mestiza*, Chicana, and a *Mejica-Tejana*” (p.10, in *La Malinche*) culture well represented in *Retablo of Mestizaje Codex* (Plate 5).

For the past two decades Santa developed a body of work strongly connected to her own mythologies, personal history, and circumstances, and consistently expresses the sense of place, beauty, and the values of Chicano communal experiences on the borderlands and elsewhere in the United States (Plates 9, 23, 24, 29, and 33).

She articulates her feminist ideology through the strong mothers, warriors, and spiritual leaders of her cultural and personal universe: great-great grandmother Cuca Giza/La Malinche (Plate 30); Coyolxauhqui, Cihuateteo and *La Virgen de Guadalupe* (Plate 12); La Llorona (Plate 13), *las soldaderas* (Plate 23), *la bisabuela* Canuta Vela Garza, *las abuelas* Canuta (Plate 8) Contreras and Victoria Meza, *tia* Guadalupe, and *la madre*, Frances Barraza (Plates 28 and 33). Santa convenes her family matriarchs and other female archetypes among nopales, maguey (Plates 5, 10-13, 18-20, and 23-33), and symbols imported or recreated from pre-Conquest Codices in the red dirt border landscape. This space most of us call *la frontera*/the border and Gloria Anzaldúa calls *Nepantla*, “an in between state, that uncertain terrain one crosses when moving from one place to another... when traveling from the present identity into a new identity.” Such concept “articulates the structure of the artwork I have been doing all my life” and is represented in the painting *Nepantla* (Plate 3) where, in Santa’s words, “composition, humanity, and nature are merged into one unit” and “narrates the journey of many immigrants and migrants adjusting them for survival into unknown territory” (pp. 6-7 in “*Nepantla and Mestizaje*”).

Santa Barraza’s work and autobiographical narrative speak with clarity about her strategies for cultural survival and resistance through the elements that energize and animate her visual narratives — the folklore, oral and documented histories of her family and the region.

In “When the Earth(ly) Saints Come Marching In,” Shifra M. Goldman writes “the history of her family is linked intimately with the history of the region where her family has lived since the eighteenth century.” This statement is central to validate the *Nepantla*, where Santa’s work originates. Goldman follows the development of artist’s work from the historic, personal, and symbolic points of view through the filter of ethnicity, class, and feminism. Formally she examines Santa’s artwork in the past twenty years within the confines of social realism and expressionism. The analysis of Santa’s early, predominantly black and white graphic production — drawings,

lithographs, monoprints — expands the readers' understanding of her production and is one of the important components of Goldman's essay.

In "*Santa Barraza: A Borderlands Chronicle*" Tomas Ybarra-Frausto looks at Santa's paintings from the retablo tradition — "small paintings on a sheet of tin, presented to a holy personage to commemorate a favor received or a miracle performed" (p. 71) since Santa uses ordinary people or historical figures as central characters in her narratives, he characterizes them as an extension of this regional tradition of *retablos santos* and *ex-votos*. YbarraFrausto confines his critique to the pieces that relate closely to the retablo tradition: *El Milagro de mi Hermana* (1992), *La Virgen* (1990), *Mama con Maguey* (1991), and *Corazón Sagrado* (1992) (Plates 26-29). He also offers a concise and distinct review of the Chicano Movement and introduces the discussion of the origins of the Chicano Cultural Reclamation Project which "affirmed that Chicanos were not only containers but also generators of culture" (p.68).

In "Reality, Myth, Legend," Dori Lemeh looks at Santa's work "with the understanding of those who have been marginalized" (p. 87) and draws her observations from the threads of myth, legend, and history woven by Santa's characters — Coatlicue, La Malinche, La Llorona and La Virgen de Guadalupe.

Maria Carmen R.A. Gambliel, Director
Folk & Traditional Arts Program,
Idaho Commission on the Arts

The Life and Times of Commander E.C. "Zeke," Cortez, USNR (Not Just "Scuttle butt) by David Wilde. Albuquerque: Wilde Publishing, 1998. 187 pp., appendices, photographs, map. \$25.00 paper, online version \$19.95 (http://www.savageinternet.com/wilde).

Historians have dedicated many a weighty tome to the Spanish colonial past of New Mexico and such towering

figures as Juan de Oñate and Diego de Vargas. Studies of the lives of twentieth-century Hispanic New Mexicans, however, are very few on the ground. Into this breach David Wilde, a peripatetic Welshman, has launched himself with this narrative of the life of Commander Zeke Cortez. There is an interesting local connection: Cortez spent some of his youth in Las Cruces. His mother wrote a column for the *Las Cruces Sun* during the years of the Second World War.

After attending Midshipman School in 1942, Cortez served with distinction in the Mediterranean and in the invasion of the European mainland. In the late 1960s he became responsible for recruitment for Naval and Marine Reserves for the state of New Mexico. He logged twenty-eight years of service to the Navy before retiring in 1970.

Wilde points out that his subject was not a famous man. This, then, is at some level the story of a typical, successful native New Mexican. Like so many such persons, Cortez's roots in the land are long, tracing his ancestors to their arrival in New Mexico in the late seventeenth century. Still, this slim volume is something else again, for in this book, the reader is asked to travel on an adventure into the mind of David Wilde.

By his own count, author Wilde has written sixteen books about the Albuquerque area and about his world travels. This book is replete with unexpected literary allusions, snatches of poetry, flights of whimsy, and lyricism. It is also clearly and unmistakably about a friendship between author and his subject. All this is packed in under a hundred pages. The remainder of the volume is devoted to a series of appendices, most representing the writing of Cortez himself, and to a collection of photographs. To say this book makes an interesting read is a bit of an understatement.

Rick Hendricks
Las Cruces

Southern New Mexico Historical Review

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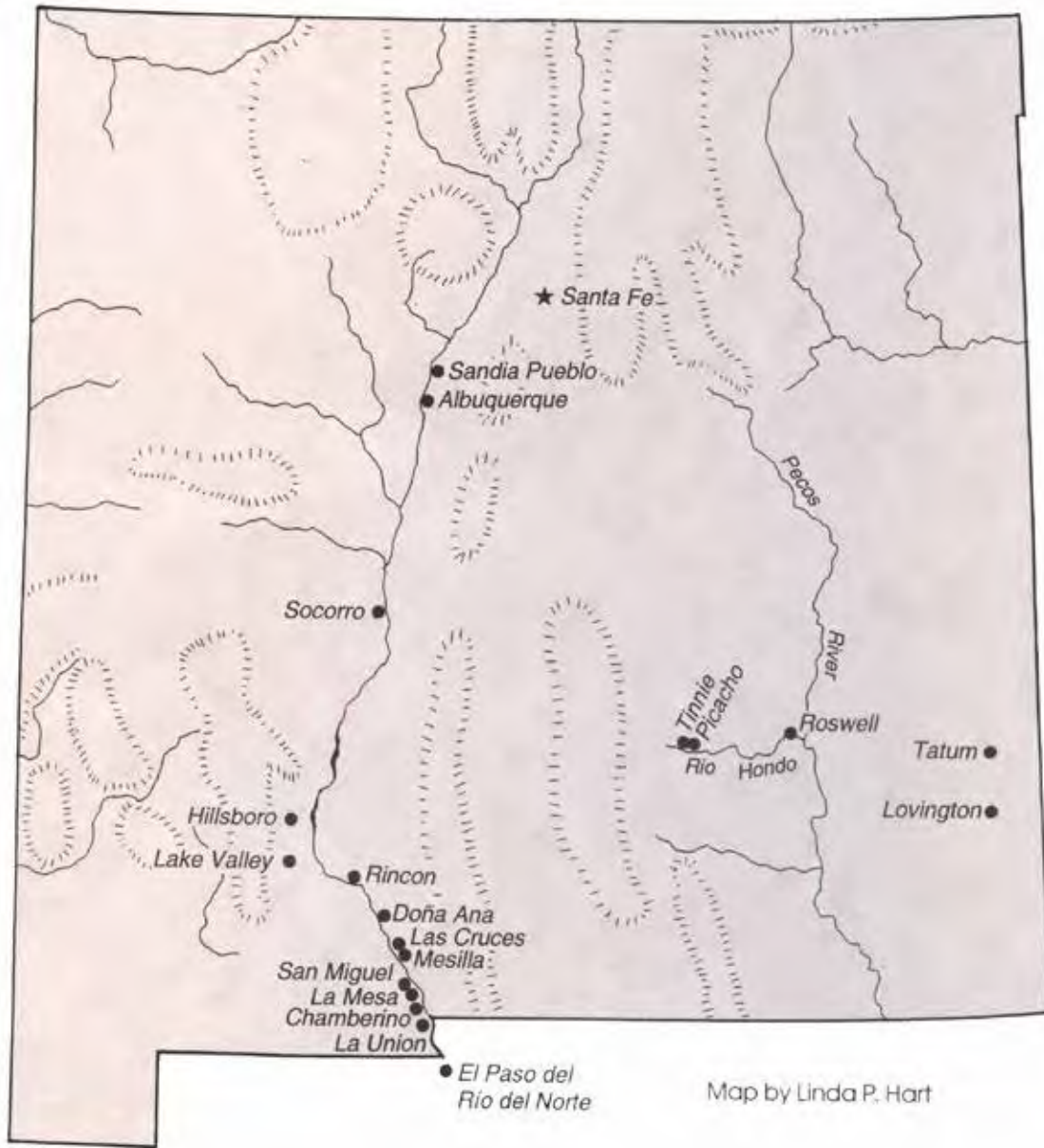
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