New on the National Register • Spanish-American War • Herbert Hoover • Native American Art

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Iowa Heritage
ILLUSTRATED
Dear Readers,

Even as the fervor of the Spanish-American War took hold of the nation in 1898-1899, the Civil War still resonated. Iowan Joseph Krob, a band member of the 49th Iowa Regiment encamped in the South, wrote home: “It seems that the southern people cannot forget that they were whipped by the north in the civil war and occasionally it is mentioned to us by them and there are a few war songs that we are not allowed to play by our officers like, Marching through Georgia, John Brown’s body and a few others [as] it is supposed it would offend the southerners. One old lady about 70 years old told us a few days ago that they can’t help [feeling] bad for everything being destroyed and when the war was ended they didn’t have a thing left.”

A far younger lady of the South was less haunted by the North/South division. In a flirtatious letter to Charles Nold of the 49th, 16-year-old Lida wrote: “I was the lucky girl in dear old Alabama to get your address. Do you remember when the train stopped at the register box and you asked me to hand you those flowers and you gave me your address. I have been off visiting and returned and now take pleasure in writing to you. I hope you like the south as well or better than the north. . . . Just think, a Yankee and a rebel corresponding with each other.” For Lida, the Civil War’s resonance was fading.

While I was searching for Spanish-American War photos, the title of the one below caught me up short: “Hoisting the flag at Guantanamo, June 12, 1898.”

To the U.S. military during the war with Spain, Guantanamo Bay was a strategically important harbor and excellent for coaling navy ships. On June 10, 1898, a Marine battalion raised the first American flag in Cuba on the hill in the photo, just inland from the bay. Not far from here would be established the U.S. naval base. And, as we Americans know today, the name Guantanamo would still resonate a century later.

—Ginalie Swaim, editor
Iowa Heritage

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On the Cover

Meskwaki dolls, circa 1880. Visit our new museum exhibit for examples of how art and everyday objects are interwoven in Native American cultures. Inside this issue, you'll find a rich sampling of some of the artifacts in the exhibit.
He was just a pup when he joined a company of soldiers for a life of adventure. His story is still told in Red Oak, Iowa, a tale intricately woven into the lives of the men and the community that loved him.

As the 19th century was winding to a close, the country was stirred into war fever over Spain's treatment of its colonies in Cuba and the Philippines. By 1898 the U.S. had committed itself to a conflict spanning both sides of the globe. For Red Oak, the interest in the Spanish-American War was not just patriotic—it was personal. When the U.S. battleship Maine exploded in Cuba's Havana harbor on February 15, Assistant Engineer Darwin R. Merritt, the son of Red Oak's postmaster, was killed, one of more than 260 men who died in the disaster. And so when the call came for the Spanish-American War, Red Oak was ready.

A few years earlier, Red Oak had vied with other communities for its own National Guard unit, finally winning out to form Company M, 3rd Regiment, and by 1896 the community had built a fine brick armory (top right). Now with war at hand, the regiment became part of the 51st Regiment and mustered at Camp McKinley, located at the state fairgrounds in Des Moines.

It was there that Company M was joined by a little dog of dubious parentage, "a present of an old colored barber who soldiered in the civil war," according to Company M chronicler Joseph I. Markey. The men were told that the pup was born on the day the battleship Maine went down. The black and tan dog was christened Dewey, named for Rear Admiral George Dewey, the commander of the naval squadron that sank the Spanish fleet anchored in Manila Bay.

Joining Dewey was Bob Evans, "a handsome fox terrier," whom the soldiers had obtained from the 49th Iowa Regiment "without their consent." Bob also had a famous namesake—Rear Admiral Robley "Fighting Bob" Evans, commander of the USS Iowa at the Battle of Santiago de Cuba.

In early June 1898, Dewey and Bob Evans departed with Company M for San Francisco, where disease would take its toll. Twenty-seven of the 51st Regiment died while in California—five from Company M.

As the men waited months for their orders, Dewey and Bob were in great demand. Dewey seemed especially attuned to the men who were feeling low. "He was the refuge of many a poor fellow," wrote Markey. "When human companionship failed to bring comfort Dewey was always ready with a show of affection almost human."

Dewey knew all of the bugle calls and watched as each man took his place in rank. If a soldier moved during the playing of the "Star-Spangled Banner," he got a rebuking glance from Dewey. At evening retreat the pup took his position beside the first sergeant at roll call. When the company was turned over to the officer in charge, Dewey would advance along the company front, taking note of each man. At the inspection of the rear rank, "he marched very stately by the side of Capt. [Jesse] Clark." And both dogs posed front and center in the photograph of Company M (above).

Dewey's canine comrade Bob Evans maintained his "headquarters" with Company M, but "every regiment knew Bob and at some time tried to steal him. Every night he had to be accounted for or Captain Clark couldn't sleep." Apparently Bob passed the time in camp by scrapping with other dogs, including a bulldog twice his size from the Tennessee unit. Nearly dead, Bob was nursed back to health by regimental surgeon Donald Macrae Jr. and Company M Corporal Ed Logan. His opponent died.

After four months, the 51st boarded the transport ship Pennsylvania for the Philippines. Markey recalled, "The first few days at sea he [Dewey] and Bob ... were sick and miserable like ourselves. During the long voyage they were in demand as playmates and did much to relieve the monotony of the trip... One day Dewey fell heir to a choice bone of fresh meat from the engineer's table. The piece was larger than he could manage and after getting his fill he carried it to the stern of the ship and hid it, then went in search of Bob, whom he brought to the hiding place and presented him the bone."
When the Pennsylvania reached Manila Bay on December 8, the war was already over, but troops were put on standby to control the rising number of insurgents. Shuttled to several locations for potential duty, the men finally made camp in early February in Manila. "Night guard duty [at the navy yard] was dangerous work," Markey noted, "and any kind of company relieved the tension. Here Dewey made the rounds of every post all through the night, spending a few moments of each watch with company M boys."

In April they were moved to Malolos. In swampy terrain the company undertook long marches towards trouble spots. Dewey and Bob accompanied the men to the front lines; there was no place to leave them. The number of wounded mounted, and soldiers suffered from heat and malaria, with up to 80 percent of the unit down at one time or another. Somehow Dewey lost the use of one hind leg. "Many times in a long march he would struggle behind, and when night would come we would think he was gone for good. In some manner he always managed to show up, looking desperately worn and hungry," Markey wrote. "We would beg, borrow and steal food for [the dogs]. They always had something to eat even if their human friends had to go hungry."

Dewey was also a "fire-eater." At the crack of bullets, he would move in front of the line and snap at the smoke. Bob Evans, however, wasn't such a stellar representative of his name. "When the firing started it was a signal for him to have business back with the wagon train."

Towards the end of the campaign, Dewey lost an eye—no one was sure how—but he remained good natured and struggled to follow and comfort his men.

Relieved of duty in September 1899, the 51st Regiment headed for San Francisco and eventually to Iowa. So did Dewey and Bob Evans, although whatever happened to Bob is lost to history.

Back in Red Oak, Dewey didn't take well to civilian life. He raced through town looking for his army buddies and refused to settle into any one home. He "held himself aloof" from other dogs and settled into a routine of going from restaurants to meat markets to demand his rations—barking until he got what he most desired.

Dewey survived the Spanish-American War only to lose his life on February 3, 1901, in the depot hotel in Red Oak. The newspaper reported that the dog "was in his usual good health all day Sunday and his death, which came suddenly and violently, is thought to have been caused by poison—perhaps not intended for him." His obituary described Dewey as "the gamest and best canine soldier that ever fought for the United States or any other country."

Immortalized through taxidermy, Dewey stood sentry first in the old National Guard armory and then in the new one built in 1954. For years he took part in practical jokes, showing up in various parts of the armory, aided, of course, by soldierly pranksters.

Battered by the years, he still stands in the armory. There are some who say he can still be heard late at night, scratching at doors and padding down the armory halls. Perhaps Bob Evans joins him there, too, searching for the Red Oak men they followed into battle. ♦

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NOTE ON SOURCES
The major sources for this article include Joseph I. Markey, From Iowa to the Philippines: A History of Company M, Fifty-First Iowa Infantry Volunteers (Red Oak: The Thos. D. Murphy Co., 1900); Michael W. Vogt, "The Fighting 51st Iowa in the Philippines," Iowa Heritage Illustrated (Fall 2003); "Little Dewey is Dead," Red Oak Express (Feb. 8, 1901); and James Jacobsen, "The Iowa National Guard From the Bottom Up: Community Participation in the Guard, 1839–1955," (Iowa National Guard, 2006); and histories of Pottawattamie County (1907) and Montgomery County (1906).
Herbert Hoover
Meetinghouse to White House

by Glen Jeansonne

From the time of his birth in 1874 in West Branch, Iowa, until he left the care of his uncle in Oregon to attend Stanford University, Herbert Hoover was reared in a Quaker environment. The values he absorbed in his youth helped shape his character, personality, and beliefs, and influenced his careers in business, humanitarian undertakings, and politics. Most importantly, they shaped his presidency.

Quakerism was more than a form of worship. It was a way of life and a state of mind. Founded in 1647 in England by George Fox as the Society of Friends, the early Quaker church sought divine guidance without human intercession and tried to strip away much of the ceremony attached to most Christian denominations. Quakers rejected altars, music, and paid ministers. Services were silent until someone moved by the emotion of the “Inner Light” felt led to speak. They were known for practicing what they preached: humility, charity, tolerance, and equality. They opposed slavery, and they paid Indians for their land rather than seizing it.

Quakers were often characterized as being serious, industrious, individualistic, and scrupulously honest. Their word was their bond; among other Quakers they seldom wrote formal contracts. They cared for their own in times of crisis, yet were known for philanthropy to non-Quakers in need. But once the needy could stand on their own, they were expected to shoulder their share of work.

They preferred simplicity and did not consider worldly wealth important, yet because they worked hard and spent little, they often accumulated significant sums. Their drab dress and austere customs, their tendency to create their own communities and schools, set them apart. Like other groups who chose separatism to preserve their traditions, they were sometimes viewed with suspicion by outsiders.

Hoover grew up not only amidst Quakers, but in a small town resonant of the American frontier. West Branch was but a village of 400 in his boyhood, and his Oregon homes, Newberg and Salem, were hamlets. His Quaker values were reinforced by frontier values such as independence, self-reliance, and individualism.

Hoover’s parents, Jesse Hoover and Hulda Minthorn, married in 1870. Both had lived in West Branch, in eastern Iowa, for more than a decade. One of the town’s three blacksmiths, Jesse was tall, slender, and muscular, and wore a beard. He loved laughter and was known for wit. Purchasing two lots, he built a tiny, two-room house on one, and his blacksmith shop on the other. Industrious and in-
ventive, he shoed horses, made and sold plows, repaired pumps, and perfected a method of coating barbed wire with hot tar.

Within six years, three children were born: Theodore ("Tad") in 1871; Herbert ("Bert") in 1874; and Mary ("May") in 1876. The family was packed into two rooms; the only bedroom held a bed for Jesse and Hulda, a trundle bed for the boys, and a cradle for baby May. The partially enclosed porch was used as a kitchen in the summer and a storehouse in the winter. Frequently they shared meals with neighbors and friends. On some Sundays, as many as a dozen would spill out of the tiny house onto the yard.

Jesse rose to the middle class in a community that had few poor and no rich. He sold the blacksmith shop and began selling farm implements. He built a larger, four-room house, selling the old property for a small profit. Hulda, who had briefly taught school before she married, kept the home spotless and made the family's clothing. There was not much to read: a Bible, a Quaker almanac, an encyclopedia, and a few novels moralizing on demon rum. Hoover later said the only local Democrat was the town drunk. If so, he must have imported his libation because West Branch lacked a saloon.

Religion unified the family and community. Home life revolved around worship; there was Bible reading in the evening, meditation before meals, and silent prayers before bedtime. During the two-hour Sunday services, marked by long periods of silent meditation, young Bert learned patience.

Yet to describe Hoover's boyhood as one in which there was no joy would be to miss the spirit of adventure that permeated small-town and frontier America. He played with Indian children from a small Indian industrial school briefly located in West Branch. He learned to shoot a bow and arrow, trap rabbits, catch and fry sunfish, rob eggs from birds' nests, and spot fossils in the gravel along the railroad tracks. In summer there was a muddy swimming hole and in winter a fine sledding hill. Bert thrived in the outdoors, and he never lost his appreciation for the serenity of nature or his love of fishing and camping. As a student, he did not like stuffy classrooms. He was only a mediocre student, good at arithmetic and below average at English. He missed so much school because of family disruptions that he was almost held back a grade.

One might say that Bert Hoover's boyhood had much in common with Huckleberry Finn's. They fished in the river, roamed the woods, stretched their imaginations by inventing games. And, like Huck Finn's boyhood, Bert Hoover's was tainted by tragedy. The origins were the same, family instability. But unlike Huck, Hoover did not leave his home of his own free will. He was orphaned.

The first blow came when Bert's father died of a heart attack at age 34. Although in later years Bert could barely remember the man with brown hair and soft brown eyes, Jesse left a gap that was never filled. Hulda tried to fill it, but it stretched her resources. Always serious, she turned increasingly to religion. In the 1870s a wave of revivalism had swept through West Branch, fragmenting Quaker solidarity. The progressive Quakers, with whom the Hoover family aligned, approved of the introduction of music into services and the use of preachers. Hulda was recognized by the elders as one who had the gift to speak and she became a "recorded preacher." Now she felt herself torn between her family and her obligation to

A child who loved the outdoors, Hoover played with some of the Osage children who boarded at the Indian Industrial School in West Branch, founded by his mother's relatives.
God. Strong-willed, determined, gifted, she struggled to find a balance between her domestic responsibilities and her calling. After the death of her husband she wrote to her sister Agnes: “I just keep myself ready first for service to my master—then to work at whatever I can to earn a little to add to our living and then the care of my little ones every day is full and some times the nights.” Later she wrote, “I will try to do what I can and not neglect the children.”

Hulda was sensitive, with a strong conscience. She tried to set priorities. She took in sewing. She raised a garden. Her views were so rigid that they verged on militancy. She became involved in the prohibition and woman suffrage movements. She took positions of leadership in a church dominated by men. She enrolled Bert in a boys’ temperance organization. Sometimes she boarded him with relatives for weeks while she traveled to preach.

It was too much. Her Quaker spirit was more powerful than her physical body. In the winter of 1884 she was called to a revival in a nearby town in inclement weather. She became ill and died of pneumonia complicated by typhoid fever. Hulda, at 35, followed her husband to the grave within only two years. Bert, at nine, was an orphan.

One of his teachers, Mollie Brown, tried to adopt him but was denied custody because she was single. A family council dispersed the three children. Bert went to live on a farm near West Branch with his Uncle Allen, where he remained for two years, attending school in town and working at farm chores during the summer. When he was 11, the family decided to send him to live with his mother’s brother, John Minthorn, in Oregon. Minthorn was an educator, a physician, and a real estate agent. He had lost his own son and wanted to raise Bert. He could offer a better education than what was available at West Branch.

For the next six years Bert Hoover lived with his Uncle John, Aunt Laura, and their three daughters. Here, the Quaker environment was even more pervasive. In West Branch he had attended public schools. In Oregon he attended Quaker schools, good ones. He bonded with another teacher, expanded his reading interests, tinkered with mechanical devices, and learned to keep books as an office boy. As in West Branch, he was slow with language but could work magic with numbers.

Even more than Jesse and Hulda, Minthorn taught Bert to set a worthy goal, then work unceasingly until he achieved it. He was quite stern, unlike Bert’s father, Jesse, and he worked Bert hard, making him earn his room and board. There was less time for play in Oregon than in West Branch. Bert chopped wood, hoed onions, cleared forests, and milked cows. His work ethic solidified. He learned to find satisfaction in work, to never lose faith in himself, to be organized, to refrain from gossip, to avoid idleness. Bert...
did stage minor rebellions: he went fishing instead of to church one Sunday but doubtless pondered whether the fish would bite the line of an infidel. But he learned that work brought rewards, both personal and monetary. He took pride in his accomplishments, and they were recognized by his adopted family.

What the boy lacked, however, was genuine affection, especially physical affection. He sometimes felt lonely and overworked. But he learned to deal with adversity and combat grief, to reach within himself and find fortitude. From a boyhood marred by traumas and sad surprises, he might have become an embittered derelict. Instead he would become a humanitarian. One lesson was paramount from his Quaker upbringing: others were more important than he.

Years later, as a parent of two sons, he did not impose the strict discipline that he had endured. Although he put his work first and often traveled, he was a permissive parent, rarely physically affectionate, but loving.

Another key to Hoover’s character was his ferocious drive, which also had roots in Quakers’ distaste for laziness, his uncle’s prodding, and his own desire to prove himself. Freed from the straitjacket of constant supervision, he blossomed as a student at Stanford University. He enrolled at age 17 in 1891, the year Stanford opened its doors. Thriving on self-discipline, he graduated in 1895 with a degree in geology.

As a young mining engineer, he started at the bottom and by 1901 was the highest salaried professional man under 30 in the United States. In his career, developed on six continents, he exhibited traits often attributed to Quakers; he was shrewd, thrifty, hard-headed, and fair. Single-minded, he harnessed his prodigious energy. In an era before sophisticated mining instruments, he relied on intuition and instinct to determine where fortunes lay underground—which mines could be revived and which should be abandoned, when an apparently worthless lead slag could be turned for a profit. His mind was quick and inventive, and he was willing to take chances.

Competitive by nature, Hoover enjoyed testing his mettle in business, and by the eve of World War I he had amassed a potentially enormous mining empire. But “just making money wasn’t enough,” he said. He “did not want to be just a rich man.” Material progress was empty without spiritual values. Deeply spiritual, he once remarked while president, “I cannot conceive of a wholesome social order or a sound economic system that does not have its roots in religious faith.”

World War I presented Hoover with an opportunity to serve humanity. Threatened with starvation, tiny Belgium was trapped between Germany’s occupation and the British Blockade, yet neither the Allies nor the Central Powers wanted the blame for starving the Bel-
gian people. As leader of the Commission for Relief in Belgium and as a private citizen of the most powerful neutral nation, Hoover leveraged world opinion.

He seemed to have a little of Joan of Arc in him, crossing military lines to meet with European royalty, prime ministers, and generals. Some considered him crude and unpolished. One European diplomat remarked: “Mr. Hoover is the bluntest man in Europe.” Had the Europeans understood his Quaker roots, they would have recognized that he was being what he always was: plain, blunt, and determined.

He persuaded cynical rulers to give him what he wanted without seeming to bully, though he was tenacious to the point of stubbornness. His ideas flowed easily and he communicated them effectively. He found that under the right conditions he could inspire, that he could almost telepathically communicate his idealism and empathy to the world.

Under his direction, the Commission for Relief in Belgium became the largest private philanthropic undertaking in history, combining private control, government money, and private donations. Although he directed attention away from himself and toward his cause, many credit Hoover as having saved more human beings from starvation than any other person in history.

One who traces the first half of Hoover’s adult life gains an appreciation of his ability to inspire despite his reserved demeanor. First, he inspired those closest to him on the Commission for Relief in Belgium to work tirelessly, without compensation. Returning to the United States, he was appointed food administrator under President Woodrow Wilson. Under the slogan “Food Will Win the War,” he inspired Americans to conserve food voluntarily, without rationing.

He did not like public speaking but could do it when he had to. Later, during four years as president, he delivered between 70 and 80 addresses via radio. The last president to write his own speeches, Hoover was not as effective a radio speaker as Franklin D. Roosevelt, but he was better than Al Smith, William Howard Taft, Warren G. Harding, Calvin Coolidge, and Alf Landon, and equal to Harry Truman.

Hoover wanted to accomplish goals that could only be achieved through politics, yet he did not want to be a politician. Rather than heed the call of both major parties to run for president in 1920, he declared himself a Republican. Appointed to Harding’s cabinet as secretary of commerce, he accomplished major efficiencies and reorganized the department. He supervised the infant radio and aviation industries and was responsible for their development. Arguably, Hoover was the most progressive member of Harding’s cabi-
net, certainly the most active. "Progressive men never go backward," he said.

In the wake of the Harding scandals and as the 1928 election year loomed, the last thing voters wanted was a traditional politician as president. The party bosses did not want Hoover and did not trust his independence. But Americans accurately perceived that Hoover was not a politician and that is precisely why they voted for him.

With the economy booming and Hoover enshrined as the chief engineer of the locomotive of prosperity, he won by a landslide, the largest popular vote in history and the first Republican since Reconstruction to win a bloc of states in the solidly Democratic South. Hoover accomplished this without waging an aggressive campaign. It was a Republican year and he was considered the best-qualified Republican, and because of his work with food conservation and distribution, he was one of the most respected men in the world.

As president, Hoover was uncomfortable with patronage. Cutting political deals was unethical; all appointments should be based on merit, regardless of political considerations. He was appalled by the idea of punishing or rewarding senators or representatives because of how they voted. Pork-barrel politics were anathema, and he insisted on operating in the open rather than negotiating behind closed doors. Quakers do not seek converts, and Hoover did not seek political converts.

Much of Hoover's work to this point has been forgotten because of what followed: collapse of the stock market in 1929 and, a year later, commencement of the most intractable depression in modern history. Yet his accomplishments before his presidency should not be obscured by events that were beyond his, or anyone's, ability to predict or reverse in the short term. As president, he operated on the basis of what had worked for him in the past. Volunteerism, which had worked well in feeding Europe and conserving food in America during the First World War, proved insufficient for the dimensions of the Great Depression.

Hoover's inability to duplicate his earlier successes opened him to volleys of criticism from the opposing party. He was shocked to learn that many professional politicians did not want him to succeed. His failure was their gain. "Why is it," he asked one of his assistants, "that when a man is on this job as I am day and night, doing the best that he can, that certain men . . . seek to oppose everything he does, just to oppose him?"

Even more painful was the perception that he did not care. In Belgium and later as president during the depression, he rarely toured bread lines and soup kitchens for fear he would break down in public. He bottled up many emotions, fearing that a show of emotions, even empathy, was a sign of weakness. His external stoicism, a virtue according to his Quaker upbringing, masked internal intensity. But sometimes he was judged stubborn and self-righteous, appearing to set himself apart.

Before the depression Hoover had impressed the press and the public. Public opinion now turned against him with a vengeance. No other 20th-century president has been subjected to such vilification.

![Citizens of Hoover's hometown of West Branch gather for the news of his nomination for the presidency in 1928.](image-url)
On a chilly day at the White House, President Hoover (right) plays his daily game of Hoover-ball with his White House staff. The president’s doctor developed the game. The hefty medicine ball weighed five pounds.

the journalistic diatribes would be overlooked today.

Ironically, Hoover's public image as a "do-nothing" president was almost totally the opposite of reality. Public buildings in Washington rose. He worked for banking reform, to save farms and homes from foreclosure, to shore up shaky businesses, to dispose of the agricultural surplus. As secretary of commerce he had tried to dampen the speculation that fueled the crash and had been ignored. As president he believed it was intellectually dishonest to promise more than he could deliver and to inspire false hopes.

A permanent solution to the depression, he believed, required not the creation of temporary government jobs but the restoration of old, permanent jobs. Contrary to the stereotype that his administration was a lackey of big business, it filed more anti-trust suits than any previous administration. Hoover was both an incubator of ideas and a man of action. True to his Quaker rearing, he believed the best response to a challenge was hard work.

Hoover believed that government's role worked best and most efficiently on the local level, with local officials setting priorities. There was less chance of corruption, of trading jobs for votes, of excessive bureaucracy, of congressional log-rolling. Starting at the private, local, and state levels made sense, especially in trying to stimulate employment, because that is where the resources were. At that time, expenditures at these levels dwarfed those of the federal government as a percentage of the Gross National Product.

Hoover’s views about the role of government in public welfare were shaped by his idealism, his religion, and his frontier upbringing. He favored private giving not only because it helped the recipient but because it ennobled the act of giving. "Our people are the most generous of all people," he wrote. "I sometimes think of relief in terms of insurance. Over the years our people contribute to the aid of others. The unexpected time comes of their own need, and they draw from this common pool."

Even before he had attained wealth as a mining engineer, Hoover devoted part of his income to educating and helping relatives and friends, sometimes anonymously. Perhaps because he was orphaned at age nine, he developed a lifelong bond with children. All of his adult life, he sought to provide a secure, healthy childhood for boys and girls, with opportunities to grow up more slowly than he had as a nine-year-old orphan. As secretary of commerce and president, he helped found and nurture the American Child Health Association. As an ex-president, his chief charitable activity was fundraising for the Boys' Clubs of America, of which he served as chairman of the board.

Hoover never accepted remuneration for public service. When required by law, he took pay, but donated it to charity. As president he not only donated his entire salary but paid many of the expenses of the office. He was generous to his alma mater, Stanford University. His philanthropy continued throughout his long post-presidential career, some of it performed in the twilight. His generosity is especially noteworthy because he did not flaunt it.

Hoover hoped, in his Quaker fashion, that unadorned common sense and reason would lead politicians and the public to support him without having to arouse them. He did not panic. Sometimes being a good politician means being patient—in Rudyard Kipling’s words, "If you can keep your head when all about you / Are losing theirs and blaming it on you." His enormous internal drive was hidden from the public. He was reluctant to indulge in verbal combat and did not lose his temper in public, never shouted or lost his poise—though sometimes he fumed in private. His outward equanimity might have masked resentment, but he maintained Quaker discipline.
Hoover’s most intractable problem was not his policies, which were advanced for his time, but his Quaker reserve. A man who met him in 1928 observed: “He stares at his shoes, and... he looks down so much of the time.” An individualist in the mold of Theodore Roosevelt, whom he considered his political mentor, he had none of the Rough Rider’s self-promotion and was one of the most restrained personalities to ever occupy the White House. “The crown of that personality is shyness,” a friend said of him. A man who knew him at Stanford said: “He seemed shy to the point of timidity—rarely spoke unless spoken to. It wasn’t until later, when we got into politics on the same side, that I realized how much it was possible to like him.”

Hoover was a shy man in a profession that rewards gregariousness. He found it difficult to make small talk at formal gatherings, although he could do so with friends. He seemed incapable of enjoying himself and appeared stiff and non-athletic, though he played medicine ball with his cabinet and staff because it gave him three times as much exercise as tennis and six times as much as golf in a fraction of the time. “I have never liked the clamor of crowds,” he wrote. “I intensely dislike superficial social contacts.” He did not waste time shaking hands with thousands of casual visitors, as Harding had done. He gobbled five courses of a state dinner in eleven minutes so he could get back to work.

Losino the presidency to Roosevelt, Hoover left the White House in 1933 as largely a discredited figure, and he spent the rest of his life defending his ideals with typical Quaker tenacity, as always, marching solely to the drums of his conscience. He did not accept the verdict of his contemporaries, nor of many historians, that he was to blame for the Great Depression. That would have been comparable to a scientist blaming the law of gravity on the apple that fell on Isaac Newton’s head. “I’m the only person of distinction,” Hoover said, “who’s ever had a depression named after him.”

Was Herbert Hoover really out of sync with the times, as historians have habitually written? Or were the times themselves out of sync, unsettled, wanting change, yet lacking unity about any specific change, and, simultaneously, fearing change? Hoover understood the context of his times and their political consequences better than most. He knew that in 1928 no Democrat could have won and that in 1932 no Republican could have won. In retrospect, it would have been impossible for the nation to leap from Coolidge to the New Deal without Hoover in between. He was less an enigma than a plain-spoken Quaker whose ideas made common sense. Moreover, no one was offering better alternatives that had any realistic chance of fruition.

What the country wanted was not a sober, hardworking president but a magician, like the mythical Merlin, who could wave his wand and magically make the depression disappear. But, alas, there was no magical solution to the Great Depression, just as there was no Merlin.

The author is professor of history at Wisconsin-Milwaukee and the author or editor of 14 books, including Herbert Hoover: The President (forthcoming).
Art in Daily Life

Native American Collections at the State Historical Society of Iowa

by Michael Smith, curator
photography by John Zeller

The native peoples of North America lived in a world that did not recognize art as something separate from everyday garments and utensils. A new exhibit at the State Historical Society of Iowa illustrates how items of daily use can be elevated from mere utility to examples of artistic skill and vision.

The exhibit features Native American objects of great beauty and craftsmanship and examines them as both works of art and as cultural artifacts. It includes items from early Prairie, Plains, Southwest, Northwest, and Arctic peoples. Many of these artifacts have never been on exhibit before. These pages comprise only a small sample of what you'll see in the exhibit.

The museum collections of the State Historical Society of Iowa have been assembled over time by collectors with interests ranging from mere curiosity to anthropological interest. Much of the early research on native objects was related to identification and classification, with little attention paid to artistic or cultural expression. The museum collections reflect this anthropological interest in identification.

In other words, we know what the items are. What we are beginning to appreciate is the artifact as art object.
POSSIBLE BAG
Lakota Sioux
c. 1880

Storage and traveling bags of hide like this one are often called "possible bags" because they were used to store every possible thing, from clothing to foodstuffs. Women often made possible bags in pairs to be carried on either side of a saddle or for storage in tipis. This one is decorated with beads, tufts of horsehair, dyed porcupine quills, and tiny tin cones.
PLAITED WICKER PLAQUE
Hopi, Third Mesa
c. 1900
This plaque features the thunderbird design. Such objects were used for decorative or ceremonial purposes.

LIDDED BASKET
Tlingit, Yakutat
Northwest Coast
c. 1900
The ancient design of the swastika was used by many Native American tribes. The tight weave of this basket is typical of basketry from the northwest coastal tribes. A pocket in the lid holds seeds that rattle when shaken.

COILED TRAY
Hopi, Second Mesa
c. 1900
Coiled trays and baskets were associated with wedding ceremonies. Made by the bride's women friends and family, they were presented to the groom's family. The coil was left unfinished to protect the groom from an untimely death.
MEDICINE BAG
Western Great Lakes
c. 1770–1820

Deerskin bags dyed black and embroidered with porcupine quills were created and used by many Great Lakes tribes. Bags like this one held objects and materials associated with sacred power and ritual societies, including charms related to healing, hunting, and warfare. The imagery shown here of lightning emanating from a central figure may relate to the owner’s vision and guardian spirits.

Early examples, like this one, were worn on the chest, held in place by a short neck strap of hide or woven cotton. They later evolved into bags with shoulder straps.
Carried by a man on horseback, perhaps in a procession, a shield and trailer like this one served as a symbol of rank, abilities, and status of the individual.

The impressive trailer—here with feathers attached to red wool—would be seen from the back. (On the photograph of the trailer, the shield is visible at the top edge.) The circular shield (see box) is a hardened rawhide disk covered by muslin, and often decorated by the owner with symbols of protection and special powers.
The Plains peoples pictorially recorded their histories through winter counts—calendars of memorable events chronicled by drawings on buffalo or deer hide or on muslin. As with Native Americans’ oral traditions, winter counts helped the generations remember and preserve the past.

The first snowfall marked the beginning of a year. Each year was represented by one particular event on the winter count—not necessarily the most significant event but the most memorable. This winter count begins in the center and reads in a spiral. Chronicling the years 1812 to 1879, it depicts many skirmishes. In the lower center the Leonid meteor shower of 1833 is described as “Stars flying in All directions.”

Moses Old Bull (1851–1935), the author of this winter count, was Sitting Bull’s friend, aide, and fellow warrior. He accompanied him in exile to Canada several months after the Battle of the Little Big Horn in 1876.
By combining traditional decorative techniques and contemporary forms, Native American artisans created objects of both beauty and utility in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Producing souvenir items was one way Native Americans used traditional ways to produce a cash income.
In the second half of the 19th century, a genre of Pueblo figurines emerged based on the human form and the socioeconomic changes taking place in Pueblo culture. This figure was probably inspired by one of the traveling musical shows that moved throughout the West in the last half of the century.
SNOW GOGGLES
Top: Inuit
Point Hope, Alaska
c. 1910

Bottom: Inuit
Seward Peninsula, Alaska
before 1932

Native peoples in the far north wore goggles as protection from snowblindness. In these examples, each pair is carved from a single piece of wood.
CHILD'S PARKA, MITTENS, AND BOOTS
Athapaskan
Nulato, Alaska
before 1932

Absolutely essential for frigid temperatures, this fur clothing also bears artful decoration—twisted yarn cord, beadwork on the cuffs, and a wedge pattern on the bottom of the pullover parka.
could hear them give up the ghost,” Christian Larson recalled, looking back at his days in a hospital tent in Jacksonville, Florida. “Other soldiers died all around me.”

Larson, a private in the 49th Iowa Volunteer Infantry Regiment, was stricken with typhoid fever during the summer of 1898 while garrisoned in Camp Cuba Libre in Florida. His recollections are emblematic of the Spanish-American War, in which more American soldiers died of disease—almost 90 percent of all deaths—than of any other cause.

Larson and tens of thousands of other soldiers were the unknowing victims of not only disease but also army short-sightedness. In the decades before the war, the U.S. Army Medical Department had received minimum priority for funding or improvements. There were very few specialized army schools for medical training. Isolated in garrisons across the nation, medical staff seldom shared clinical experiences. Most state national guard organizations had no medical units. There was no U.S. Army Nurse Corps until 1901. Medical officers lacked command authority over units in the field and were limited to offering suggestions and recommendations to line officers.

This was the situation when the United States declared war against Spain on April 25, 1898, culminating a five-year period of declining relations over Spanish colonial policy in Cuba exacerbated by the explosion of the U.S. battleship Maine in Havana Harbor on February 15. Assisting the War Department’s hastily prepared mobilization plans, Congress authorized the use of National Guard troops for campaigns in Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the Philippines. Preparing for the invasion of Cuba, the War Department concentrated the majority of its trained medical personnel and supplies within the ranks of the Regular Army’s V Corps, assembling at Tampa, Florida. This meant that the volunteer training camps near Jacksonville and other locations, comprising soldiers from state National Guard units, suffered a shortage of trained personnel and basic supplies during the first four months of the war.

To fill this breach, the Army Medical Department hired civilian contract surgeons, encouraged medical students to enlist, and detailed men from the infantry to serve as nurses, hospital stewards, and ambulance drivers. Approximately 20 soldiers were detailed from each regiment to serve at the division hospital. By late August,
Hospital Corps personnel—of whom only a fraction possessed suitable training—numbered fewer than 6,000 for a total army of more than 275,000 volunteers and regulars, amounting to one for every 46 men.

In addition to the untrained soldiers detailed to the hospitals, the small cadre of suitably trained Hospital Corps personnel suffered from the limitations of contemporary medical knowledge. Although medical practitioners had substituted the germ theory for the miasmatic theory of disease in the 1890s, at the time of the Spanish-American War they still "lacked both the knowledge and the means to take decisive action to limit infectious diseases," according to historian Gerald Grob. As a result, the contagion paths of typhoid (bacteria) and yellow fever (virus) were unknown. Misdiagnoses meant that infected soldiers, who should have been quarantined, spread disease to others. (Quarantines would not have stopped the malaria parasite, however, which is transferred by female mosquitoes.)

Moreover, the growth of the volunteer army that summer burdened medical personnel who were not accustomed to managing regimental or division-sized hospitals. "The average National Guard surgeon is a faithful doctor, with more than average professional ability," noted Lt. Colonel Nicholas Senn, Chief Surgeon of the U.S. Volunteers, "but, with few exceptions, [he lacked] the necessary military training in performing satisfactorily his administrative duties."

Hospitals at each camp were chronically short of basic supplies until September. "There were no case record-sheets, and in fact there was no paper on which to keep temperature notes and there was an inadequate supply of clinical thermometers," complained Major James Fred Clarke, regimental surgeon for the 49th Iowa Volunteer Infantry. "Bath tubs, ice-caps, a microscope, eye and ear instruments—all these were lacking. There were not enough bed-pans for ordinary use."

Clarke later elaborated on a critical difference between the physicians in the volunteer army and those in the regular army, which contributed to the breakdown of medical care at the assembly camps: "The regular medical officer was an educated gentleman . . . but he had, in many instances, for years been stationed at small healthful army posts, where he had little medi-
cal or surgical experience. He had for years been accustomed to routine army methods, until he saw but one mode of procedure. An instance in point: In the early history of Camp Cuba Libre an emergency hospital operation became necessary. The regular surgeon in charge said, 'We must first telegraph and get the Surgeon General's permission to operate.' The regular surgeon was theoretical, and believed his reports of more importance than the treatment of the patient.

"The volunteer medical officer, on the other hand, was from an active practice," Clarke continued. "He was accustomed to rapid, independent action [but] failed miserably to keep his records and make reports. He had too little regard for discipline and . . . 'red tape.' He fumed and fretted at delays and scandalized the service by demanding of Generals what Colonels would not give him. He believed that the sick and not the records should have his first consideration."

After two-and-a-half months of training at Camp McKinley in Des Moines, the 49th Iowa Volunteer Infantry Regiment was sent to Camp Cuba Libre near Jacksonville. Within only three weeks of their arrival, the men of the 49th faced their first lethal enemy: typhoid.

Typhoid fever was the primary killer in U.S. troop assembly areas from May through September of 1898. The bacteria flourished in congested areas with poor sanitation, and the assembly camps provided just those conditions. Thousands of men were concentrated in the camps—Camp Cuba Libre alone peaked at 19,156 in late June. Tents were crowded and billeted closely together: a 7 x 7-foot tent held seven soldiers; tents 9 x 9 and 12 x 14 quartered nine to twelve men. "When a soldier was taken sick in the regiment," Clarke recalled, "he had to lie in his quarters until the regimental surgeon determined whether his sickness was of sufficient gravity to make hospital treatment necessary. [If so,] an ambulance was ordered and in from one to six hours the sick man was carried to the hospital."

Typhoid bacteria (Eberth bacillus or Salmonella typhi) were disseminated when infected soldiers (who might not be exhibiting symptoms) passed fecal matter and urine into latrines. The sanitary measures in Camp Cuba Libre were abysmal. Flies carried germs from open latrines to unscreened kitchens. Preparing and handling foods with unwashed hands, dipping tin drinking cups into open barrels of water, gathering up contaminated bedclothes and linens barehanded—all these practices contributed to the propagation of typhoid bacteria. Ten to fifteen thousand draft animals deposited tons of manure around camp, furnishing yet another habitat for flies and maggots.

The spread of germs was compounded by delay and carelessness in removing wastes from the latrines (referred to in period literature as "sinks"). Although some were privy pits, many were essentially wooden barrels cut in half, with rope handles; these were scattered about camp. Second Assistant Surgeon Lieutenant Edward L. Martindale commented that "these tubs sometimes overflowed and the contents slopped out." According to Clarke, the regimental surgeon, "When full [the barrels] were loaded on wagons & hauled away . . . [and the] jolting along the road spilled the night soil." Even though the mess tents and latrines were located beyond the company streets, some "scavenger wagons" passed within 15 feet of the kitchens.

Company and field grade officers looked with disdain upon recommendations for camp sanitation and routinely ignored or dismissed the advice of Medical Department personnel during the first weeks at camp. Not until July 3 were the latrines moved farther from the 49th Infantry's bivouac area. But army engineers faced another dilemma: At night, lazy or tired soldiers avoided walking to latrines by defecating and urinating in and near company streets, despite the warnings from officers and surgeons and the risk of days in the guardhouse (though punishments were rare). Placing latrines too far away from camp reduced their use. The indifference and negligence of some soldiers made them also culpable in turning their camps into fertile breeding grounds for germs.

The men of the 49th Regiment did enjoy some victories over disease. The training and physical fitness
Eventually screening was added to tents, protecting ailing soldiers from the incessant flies and mosquitoes that thrived in camp.

stressed by Brigadier General James Rush Lincoln when the regiment was still at Camp McKinley in Des Moines paid dividends at Camp Cuba Libre. As Sergeant James E. Whipple of Company G noted: “The records will show that the men who had the benefit of the training at Camp McKinley withstood the fearful scourge of typhoid, that invaded the camps at Jacksonville, better than those who joined the regiment after its removal to the south.” Hospital Corps attendant William F. Thorp thought that “the food dealt out to the sick is of the best quality. A great variety of dishes are served to those who can not stand rough diet—chicken broth, beef tea, the best of fruit and numerous other delicacies.” Some men avoided exposure to typhoid fever by mere chance. Company M soldiers, detailed to rifle range duty away from camp from July 27 through August 14, experienced the lowest incidence of typhoid of all the companies.

N early every day at Camp Cuba Libre, the temperature exceeded 90 degrees in the shade (what little shade there was). Heavy rains—17 inches in nine weeks—mildewed and weakened the tents. Contaminated water supplies caused diarrhea and dysentery, and mosquitoes spread yellow fever, sending dozens of Iowa soldiers to the division hospital each week. The number of deaths from disease grew during August.

Two letters from Private Dan Leatherman demonstrate the rapid spread of disease in his company. On August 10 he wrote home: “Co. E are all enjoying good health as usual not a man sick and every one happy and contented with the prospect of going to the front.” A month later, Leatherman was caring for sick soldiers in their tent because the division hospital was filled to capacity. “We are having a great deal of sickness in our company . . . I think we are having more than our share,” he wrote. “We have had three deaths and that is more than any other company.” The following day civilian John O’Brien visiting from Independence wrote home: “The boys certainly are very much discouraged, there is now but 38 men, out of the 106 men [originally] fit for duty.”

Losing a fellow soldier from a typically close-knit company dealt a particularly demoralizing blow. With the news of the U.S. peace protocol signed with Spain on August 12, the men’s spirits fell even more as they realized their chances of experiencing combat in Cuba were unlikely.

After watching their friends suffer for weeks from diarrhea, fever, abdominal pain, skin rash, and bouts of delirium, many sought escape from the dire situation by venting their frustration to hometown editors, fam-
A female nurse stands in the back of a crowded hospital tent. Clarke noted that the nurses, initially rejected, "transformed the hospital...and it resulted in the saving of lives."

Family and friends back home, and the governor's office. Hoping for a rapid departure so as to avoid typhoid fever, some padded their letters with exaggerated accounts of deplorable conditions, minimal rations, excessive deaths from disease, and inhumane treatment by their officers. These letters, when printed in Iowa newspapers, precipitated correspondence and petitions from family and friends to Governor Leslie Shaw, requesting that he, as commander in chief of the Iowa National Guard, recall the 49th Regiment to Iowa.

On August 18, reassigned to the 2nd Brigade, 2nd Division, the 49th Regiment moved camp three miles to a new location on higher ground at Panama Park. The weather improved and conditions were slightly better, but the incidence of disease did not decrease. "We had already been hit with typhoid," Company F Private Herbert L. Wildey, of Anamosa, recalled: "It got worse here. The whole regiment had severe diarrhea. We had so little control of the bowels that the bushes leading to the latrines would have I would guess as many as two dozen pairs of underdrawers thrown on them by men who could not reach the latrine in time."

The loss of morale and unit cohesion, and the desperation of some soldiers to return home persisted. One soldier wrote to the governor: "If there was a caucus made of our Reg. [there] would be at least 90 percent of them vote to go home but our officers say they will put us in the Guard house if we undertake any such thing and you know the shoulder straps can do the talking." In a six-page letter to the governor, T. M. Fee, a district court judge in Centerville, argued that the troops should be allowed to vote on their return to Iowa rather than deploying to the Caribbean. Four days later he followed up with seven more pages reiterating the same points. The sentiments expressed by I. N. Meyers, a banker in Reinbeck, echoed in dozens of letters to the governor requesting furloughs for the soldiers to return to Iowa: "I believe it would save some of the soldiers from an early grave." Mrs. M. J. Campbell of Sibley, whose son served with the 49th, pleaded: "In the name of humanity, in the name of our own fair state, and in [the] heart[s] breaking [in] Fathers and Mothers of Iowa I implore [that] you will demand the 49th Reg't of Iowa Vol. be sent home at once."

Other Iowans worked cooperatively to effect the return of the men. Twenty citizens of Toledo sent a
telegram to Shaw: “We fear life is being unnecessarily sacrificed.” At a mass assemblage at Waukon’s Armory Hall, citizens unanimously adopted resolutions asking for the furlough or discharge of the regiment and sent copies to Governor Shaw, President McKinley, Secretary of War Russell A. Alger, Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson (from Iowa), and Iowa Senators William Allison and John Gear. Citizens in Marshalltown petitioned the governor that the soldiers not be sent to Cuba “to die of fever without care.”

Not all of the correspondence was critical. A telegram arrived at the state capitol on September 7 from the “enlisted men” of Companies A and C requesting of the governor: “Do not interfere with war department plans on our account we are ready to go where ordered.” Twenty-nine-year-old Company K First Sergeant Gustav W. Reichmann of Toledo wrote to his brother: “If this regiment goes to Cuba I will be satisfied and happy. I came to serve two years and if Uncle Sam sends me to Hell I am going.” He warned, “Don’t take stock in the stories that the boys are not getting anything to eat, or that we ‘have from 6 to 9 deaths in the regiment everyday’—it’s all a D __ lie. . . . Some of the stories that are written home . . . are too confounded outrageous to laugh at.” Reporting that the men were treated well by their officers, he confided to his brother: “You know how it is to have a few homesick babies. They make life miserable for them selves and all that are around them. Iowa ought to send them a nursing bottle.”

In August, responding to the letters, telegrams, and editorials, Governor Shaw appointed Henry Egbert (a former legislator and trustee of the Soldiers’ Orphans’ Home) and F. W. Powers (a Reinbeck physician) to “examine and report on the condition of the Iowa troops” of the 49th Regiment. The two men traveled to the camp at Panama Park and toured the bivouac areas, camp hospitals, and mess tents. They inspected the sanitation practices and latrine facilities. In mid-September they delivered their 12-page report to the governor’s office.

The report found the men of the 49th Regiment with a “full supply of tents” and determined that each soldier was well equipped. There were “no unpleasant odors about the camp” and the “camp sinks” (latrines) had deep vaults dug to receive waste material. The commissioners noted the constant presence of a sentry to ensure the covering of waste after each latrine use. Camp latrines were sprinkled with lime and new pits dug as required. The open-plank drains that channeled waste materials through the camp were disinfected daily with chloride of lime. Shower baths were mandatory every other day for all soldiers fit for duty.

The report also spoke to the feelings of the men regarding further service: “We believe that both the officers and men of the 49th prefer to go home should their services not be needed, but they enlisted in the cause from patriotic motives and will not shirk from any service required of diligent and faithful servants.” The authors of the report fully understood the importance of mail from home to boost morale: “We com-

Ambulances conveyed sick soldiers from their tents to the regimental hospital. Sometimes soldiers waited for hours.
mend [the troops’] patriotic stand, and if the good citizens of our beloved State would encourage the boys by letters of good cheer they would thereby lend valuable assistance in relieving what little discontent and homesickness that lurks about the camp.” The inspectors furthermore warned: “The camp liar is a disgrace to his comrades and a menace to the army, and should not be encouraged at home or tolerated in the field.”

On the subject of disease in camp the commissioners noted correctly that typhoid fever caused the majority of deaths and referenced a morning report for September 12 indicating that 95 percent of the regiment’s soldiers admitted to the hospitals were ill from typhoid fever. But they incorrectly reported a higher death rate among officers. While conceding that “a small proportion” of soldiers exhibited weight loss resulting from typhoid, they countered the many letters sent to the governor and stories printed in Iowa newspapers by tersely stating that “we feel constrained to say that the stories circulating throughout Iowa as to their being emaciated or walking skeletons [have] not a scintilla of truth and should not be allowed to circulate further without a flat contradiction.”

The report also brought into perspective that, although the majority of sickness resulted from typhoid fever, many soldiers were hospitalized for reasons not incident to the environment and conditions in camp. Nonetheless, the soldiers stricken ill from measles, rheumatism, malaria, appendicitis, hernias, and other ailments contributed to the overall total of men reported as sick. Other soldiers remained in quarters diagnosed with fistulas, ephemeral fever, malarial fever, pleurisy, diarrhea, homesickness, lumbago, sprained knees, abscesses, and acute gastritis.

The hospital inspections revealed that most of the seriously ill Iowa soldiers received care in the wood-floored 2nd Division Hospital or the 49th Regimental hospital tents. Electric fans and fly screens added to the soldiers’ comfort. Basic supplies, absent or in short supply during the early weeks of the typhoid epidemic, were available in sufficient quantities by September. Adequate numbers of nurses (including 17 women from Iowa) and hospital stewards worked 12-hour shifts. Seriously ill patients were assigned additional nurses and assistants. (Nevertheless, in at least one case, the mother of a stricken soldier, Mrs. W. J. Miller of Independence, traveled to the 2nd Division Hospital in October to personally care for her son, Private Guy E. Miller. Suffering from typhoid since September 1, he would receive a medical discharge in February 1899.)

Stating that the sickness at Camp Cuba Libre could not be attributed to a single cause, the inspectors reached these conclusions: Several of the regiment’s men were ill with measles before arriving at Camp Cuba Libre and thereafter infected others. Wet ground and poor-quality tents contributed to the spread of disease. The troops were negligent in practicing basic camp sanitation. Monotony and routine led to less time spent policing campgrounds. Soldiers drank water of questionable quality from shallow wells and public lunch counters. Many soldiers nursed others while ill themselves, unknowingly spreading disease throughout hospital areas. A noticeable drop in morale and spirit following the signing of the peace protocol led to increased likelihood of susceptibility to infection. All of the above conditions had made the men easy victims.

The commissioners’ report was incorrect in assigning partial blame for the persistence of disease to damp conditions, tent quality, and troop melancholy rather than to bacteria and viruses. But it correctly identified inadequate sanitation practices and contaminated water as the main culprits for the rapid spread of disease. The report also faulted the Iowa press as irresponsible for its negative effect on public opinion regarding the conditions prevalent at Camp Cuba Libre. Furthermore, it dismissed the notion that a majority of the soldiers were incapacitated by disease and desired discharge and transfer back to Iowa.

Although the inspection occurred at the peak of the typhoid epidemic, it also coincided with the Medical and Quartermaster departments’ delivery, at last, of adequate supplies. Therefore the conditions witnessed by the commissioners were much improved compared to what they would have seen in the prior two months.

Overall, the debilitating conditions faced by the 49th from June through September typified those faced by soldiers in other assembly camps. Individual regiments finally initiated more hygienic measures. Sick soldiers were more quickly moved from their quarters to the hospital. On September 20, Regimental Special Order 22 charged each company officer with inspecting the cleaning of kitchens and preparing of meals, scrubbing and whitewashing of tables and mess areas, and washing and scalding of eating utensils and dishes. This was followed on October 4 by orders mandating the washing of all blankets every day, the immediate burning of all old mattresses followed by replacement with new ones, and a thorough cleaning of all quarters utilizing carbolic acid.

Despite improvements in camp hygiene, supply acquisition, and medical care, the efforts at Camp Cuba Libre amounted to too little too late. Typhoid killed 4 Iowans in August, 21 in September, and 18 in October.
The hospital corps of the 49th Iowa regimental hospital. Acclimating to tropical weather was hard for Iowa soldiers.

Overall, before the regiment departed from Jacksonville, typhoid fever had hospitalized well over 600 and killed 43. Most were in their early twenties.

On October 26, the 49th Regiment arrived by train in Savannah, Georgia; from there they would later embark for Cuba. The soldiers set up in Camp Onward and settled into familiar military and leisure time routines, including football and boxing. Troop morale improved; Clarke attributed some of this to “the novelty of the Cuban service to look forward to.” Fewer complaints were mailed back to Iowa. “We have two blankets apiece and are not at all overworked,” Private Lester Atkinson wrote to his brother on November 3. “Savannah is in every respect a better town than Jacksonville.” Rations and water quality proved agreeable to all. The health of the men improved to the point that many Iowa soldiers left camp without a pass on payday and took the Thunderbolt streetcar line into Savannah in order to enjoy the entertainments and libations the downtown had to offer. The move to Savannah and improved sanitation practices corresponded with fewer deaths from typhoid fever. The regiment lost only four men to typhoid compared to the 43 lost at Jacksonville.

Two months later, the troop ship Minnewaska ferried the 49th Regiment to Cuba. The men received a warm welcome from the Cubans upon arriving in Havana on December 23 and while traveling the eight miles to Camp Columbia in the town of Marianao. Their duties while serving in Cuba included military police duty guarding water supplies, former Spanish government property, and surrendered Spanish forts and munitions. Lengthy marches around the Cuban countryside helped to break the monotony of drill and camp life. The regiment participated in the formal ceremonies accompanying the lowering of the Spanish flag and the raising of the American flag over Havana on January 1, 1899. The health of the troops improved as did the variety of available fresh food, including coconuts, bananas, oranges, and other tropical fruits.

The remainder of the regiment’s stay in Cuba was uneventful. It completed its assigned duties and departed in early April. After a week in quarantine camps, the Iowans traveled to Savannah, established camp, and awaited the muster-out process on May 13, 1899, and the return home.

After the war, Major Clarke was one of many physicians who authored postwar studies analyzing the causes and spread of disease. In his “Medical History of the 49th Iowa Volunteer Infantry,” he willingly ac-
Christian Larson's quotation, which begins this article, is from the Des Moines Register, Oct. 9, 1978. Sources particular to the 49th Regiment include: Historical and Biographical Souvenir of the 49th Iowa U.S. Volunteer Infantry (Jacksonville, Illinois: Ving Printing Company, 1898); James E. Whipple, Historical and Biographical Souvenir of the 49th U.S. Volunteer Infantry (Vinton, 1903); Cedar Rapids Sunday Republican, July 3, 1898; Fred Clarke, "Medical History of the Forty-ninth Iowa Volunteer Infantry" (n.p., 1889); Iowa Adjutant General's Office, Report of the Adjutant General 1898-1899, vol. 6 (Des Moines: Iowa General Assembly, 1911). Curiously, the regimental history written by Colonel Dows for the adjutant general's report (pp. 419-22) does not mention the losses to disease.

For the 49th Regiment's camp inspection by Henry Egbert and W.F. Powers, see "Report on the Condition of the Iowa Troops of the 49th Iowa," Governor's Correspondence, Spanish-American War; State Historical Society of Iowa (Des Moines). Correspondence to Governor Lewis Shaw is also held in Governor's Correspondence, Spanish-American War; State Historical Society of Iowa (Des Moines).

For more correspondence regarding the 49th Regiment, see the papers of Lester Atkinson, John Docott, and Gustav Rechmann, all at the State Historical Society of Iowa (Des Moines). The Rechmann Papers also include General Order No. 26, 4 October 1898. See also Special Order 22, 20 September 1898. 49th Iowa Volunteer Infantry Order Book, Companies E-M, vol. 7, Record Group 94, Records of the Adjutant General's Office, National Archives and Records Administration, Washington, D.C.


In June 2008 the author presented a version of this article at the Missouri Valley History Conference. Annotations for this article are held in the Iowa History Illustration production files, State Historical Society of Iowa (Iowa City).

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Left: Dedicated to the 49th Iowa, Company H, the lyrics read: "There's not a coward in the ranks, They're brave men ev'er'yone; They've faced so many hardships, But now their duty's done!"

Accepted partial responsibility for the high disease rate: "There was one great fault of all the doctors . . . This was the ignorance of the fact that the system of sinks . . . facilitated the spread of disease by flies . . . The fact was that the attention of the profession had never before been called to this mode of the transmission of typhoid fever in so striking a manner, and it was a sad, severe lesson for us all."

Coupled with the dreadful losses to typhoid and reduced troop strength due to other diseases, studies like Clarke's brought about army-wide reforms in military medical education and vastly improved sanitation in later U.S. wars and military campaigns. These, in turn, significantly reduced losses to disease. Such vital changes were attributed to the critical lessons learned (as Clarke put it) in "thoe sandy swamps during the terrible summer of 1898."
“THE COUNTRY IS REAL PRETTY,” Joseph T. Krob told his readers back in Solon, Iowa. Krob was a bass player in the band of the 49th Iowa Regiment. In a series of letters to his hometown newspaper, Krob described the soldiers’ life at Camp Cuba Libre in Florida and Camp Onward in Savannah, and, finally, the regiment’s arrival in Cuba in late December 1898.

It was a symbolic moment in Cuba—the transition of power from Spain to the United States. But Krob also took time to describe his impressions of Havana in the following letter.

The accompanying photographs are the work of the Detroit Publishing Company. They are typical of photos commercially produced and sold to soldiers and tourists as remembrances of the Spanish-American War.

—Ginalie Swaim, editor

We left Savannah, Saturday the 17th of December. We passed in review before President McKinley and in the afternoon of that day we commenced packing our stuff in boxes and packed till Sunday noon. . . . All the teams and detailed men were busy all day, hauling boxes and other things and loading on the boat. . . . About 50 wagons and 150 head of mules besides officer’s horses were taken on board last. . . .

At a little before nine o’clock P.M. on Wednesday the 21st we passed the frowning walls of Morro castle and entered the Harbor of Havana. The battleship Texas, cruiser Brooklyn and two gun boats were in the harbor. Our boat was anchored a few rods from the wreck of the Maine [above] which shows very plain above the water and was guarded by Spanish soldiers. Thursday the 22nd a tug pulled us to the docks and we commenced to unload.
At about half past eight on Friday the 23rd we left the boat and marched through the streets of Havana toward our camp which is four miles from Havana. The dust on the road was an inch thick and the sun was very hot. We got into camp about one o'clock, P.M., all covered with dust and worn out. Some of us didn’t even take time to eat our dinner but commenced to put up our tents. By evening all tents were up, cots were issued and we rested very well our first night in Cuba.

As we marched through the streets of Havana most of the Cubans made rather a funny appearance, most of them being very ragged and some children not having any clothes at all. Some of them followed us clear down to camp giving us cigarettes and oranges which are very cheap here.

On Xmas we got up at midnight and played some National and Christmas songs. In the morn-
ing Chaplain Mason had services in front of the band quarter for which we furnished music. Our Xmas dinner consisted of potatoes, rice, hard tack and coffee and in the afternoon the entire regiment went bathing in the ocean. For nearly two weeks water and wood were very scarce here and many times we made our meals on corned beef, canned beans and hard tack for it mostly happened when they had wood they had no water and when they had water they had no wood and without either one or the other little cooking can be done.

On the 1st day January the regiment marched to Havana. We started from camp at 8 o'clock A.M., in full marching order, every man carrying three meal rations and canteen filled with water. On the edge of the city we had an hour's rest. After that we
proceeded toward Morro Castle [right] where we arrived just a little before 12:00 M. Exactly at noon the Spanish flag was hauled down and the American flag hoisted in its place which was cheered by many thousand people and a few guns fired by one of the battleships in the harbor. After that we marched through the streets of Havana on our way back and reached the camp at 5 o’clock P.M. all tired out. The day passed very quietly in Havana and the trouble that some feared did not materialize. For about two weeks after we came down here, nobody was allowed to go outside the guard line and no passes were issued, whatever and even the officers were stopped by the guards and anyone that was caught outside the guard line was put into the guard house for ten days. It would be hardly necessary to state that the detention . . . [was] over crowded part of the time. But circumstances have changed and passes are issued to the boys every place except for Havana and I have just learned that passes are issued to the boys for Havana after this.

The country is real pretty. It’s mostly hilly and broken but not enough so to make it unpleasant. Orange trees, palms, coconnut trees and banana groves are plenty here. I might say that we found here what we expected to find when we first started for Florida. The soil is mostly red clay covered with rock. Fortifications are plentiful here. Nearly every half mile is a block house. It seems that was all the Spaniards were doing here the last few hundred years, building forts and block houses. . . .

I close with regards.

J. T. Krob

“Raising the American flag on Morro Castle, Jan. 1, 1899.”
New to the National Register

by Barbara Mitchell, Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer,
based on nominations to the National Register of Historic Places

The year 2009 was a busy one for State Historic Preservation Office staff and Iowans interested in honoring historic properties. Thirty-one properties were added to the National Register of Historic Places, the official list of the nation’s cultural resources worthy of preservation. The properties include commercial, industrial, and business buildings; farmsteads, single-family homes, apartment complexes, and hotels; entertainment venues; public and educational buildings; and an archaeological district. With National Register listing, these properties are recognized for their historical, architectural, or archaeological significance to the state of Iowa.

East Park Band Shell
In a town known for Meredith Willson and The Music Man, the East Park Band Shell represents a Mason City tradition dating back to 1920: the municipal band. Built in 1924, the shell-shaped bandstand was considered to be the ideal acoustical shape for live performances by professional musicians who came to Mason City from across the country. Although the Mason City Band Shell was in danger of demolition for the construction of a new music pavilion, the park board decided to preserve this historic structure for another generation of music lovers. Molly Myers Naumann prepared the nomination for the city.

Fowler Company Building
Built in 1884 and one of the oldest buildings of its kind in Waterloo, the Fowler Company Building is an outstanding example of Late Victorian commercial architecture, with Queen Anne influences on the red brick facade. Richly decorated pilasters, corbelling, and stonework provide a visual excitement heightened by an ornate metal cornice with finials, pediments, floral patterns, and quilt-like textures. The building served as a base of operations for the Fowler Company, a wholesale grocer, until the 1930s. Jan Olive Nash of Tallgrass Historians L.C. prepared the nomination for the property owner as part of a historic tax credit project.
**Big Stone Mills**

Built in 1866 on the water’s edge of the Turkey River in Spillville, Big Stone Mills is a rare example of a stone mill dating from the period when Iowa led the nation in wheat and flour production. The mill had two sets of millstones for grinding: one for wheat, the other for barley, buckwheat, and corn. As the agricultural focus of the area switched from wheat to corn, oats, and rye in the last decades of the 19th century, the millstones were replaced with steel roller mills. Successfully converted to feed production, the building continued to serve the local agricultural community for nearly another century.

Cyril, Michael, and Steven Kimesh prepared the nomination.

**Linograph Company Building**

From 1920 until 1952, the Linograph Company Building in Davenport was home to two distinct industries, both run under the watchful eye of Richard Englehart. The first manufactured the Linograph machine, a typesetting machine preferred by small newspapers and printing houses because it was more affordable, more efficient, and easier to use than its competitors. Unfortunately, the competition eventually outpaced it, and Intertype Company purchased Linograph in 1944. Englehart kept the Linograph Company Building, however, and began to manufacture Caterpillar Tractor Company machine parts. As Caterpillar grew, so did Englehart Manufacturing. Despite an addition to the building in 1949, the company moved out in 1952. In 1956, Caterpillar acquired Englehart Manufacturing.

Alexa McDowell of AKAY Consulting prepared the nomination as part of a historic tax credit project.

**Iowan’s Hotel**

The community of Essex was established in 1870 as a station on the Burlington and Missouri Railroad, later the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy. The Iowan’s Hotel was built in 1906 directly across from the depot to provide lodging for travelers. Used for meetings, lodging, dining, and dancing, the hotel also served as a social center for the small community. Its design is reminiscent of early 20th-century modern school architecture and allows natural light to infiltrate the interior. As the only hotel from Essex’s railroad era, the structure is the last tangible remnant of the town’s railroad history. Robert Samon prepared this nomination for the Railroad Inn Bed and Breakfast.
Clemens Automobile Company Building

From 1909 to 1923, the Clemens Automobile Company in Des Moines sold Willys and Overland automobiles. This building was constructed in 1916 as an automobile department store with sales and service facilities. The company claimed that it was the largest building in Des Moines devoted to automobiles, and presumably the largest such in Iowa. This may have been the case, as the Willys-Overland range of automobiles was one of the top three nationally that year. In 1923, the death of Ashton Clemens, one of the founders, precipitated the relocation and eventual demise of the company. James Jacobsen of History Pays! Historic Preservation Consulting prepared this nomination for the property owner as part of a historic tax credit project.

Minnie Y. and Frank P. Mattes House

Built in 1910 for Minnie and Frank Mattes, this house was a pioneer in the use of Tudor Revival as a residential style in Des Moines. Intersecting roof gables, half-timbering, and a prominent chimney all characterize the style, which became extremely popular in the 1920s and 1930s. The house and automobile garage were designed by Proudfoot & Bird, one of the preeminent architectural firms in Des Moines at the turn of the last century. William Page prepared the nomination for the property owners.

Methodist Deaconess Institute—Esther Hall

This imposing structure was built in 1922 in Des Moines as a collaboration between the Women's Foreign Missionary Society, the Women's Home Missionary Society, and the Iowa Bible Training School, all associated with the Methodist Episcopal Church. The property was to serve as an educational facility and residence for young women on the road to becoming social workers, missionaries, and deaconesses. Through this education, women were encouraged to pursue careers outside the home—a novel idea for the early 20th century! William Page prepared this nomination for the property owner as part of a historic tax credit project.
Malek Theatre
The Malek Theatre in Independence is an exceptional example of an Art Deco movie theater. Designed by the Des Moines architectural firm Wetherell & Harrison and built in 1947, the theater features a central stepped tower with glass block, Lannon stone, metal trim, and Glastone, which is a concrete masonry tile faced with Vitrolite, an opaque pigmented glass. The Art Deco characteristics extend from the original marquee to the interior lobby and auditorium, which feature curved walls, neon-lit coved ceilings, stylized floral motifs, and decorative metal light fixtures. Anthony Fitz and Camilla Deiber prepared the nomination.

Sometimes it takes just a few decent, determined citizens to save a historic building from demolition. National Register listings in 2009 include two such buildings saved through relocation.

Isaac A. Wetherby House
This Iowa City house was saved, moved, and rehabilitated through the resolute efforts of Marybeth Slonneger, Mary Bennett, and other local preservationists. It is the only extant building associated with Isaac Wetherby, an important local and statewide photographer and artist in the 19th century. From 1860 to 1887, the building served as home to Isaac and his family. In 2008, it was moved four blocks to make way for new construction. Marybeth Slonneger and Mary Bennett prepared this nomination.

Murillo Flats
In Des Moines, a preservation battle was won when the massive Murillo Flats building was relocated to the Sherman Hill neighborhood in order to clear the way for new construction. Built in 1905 on the west end of downtown, the three-story brick building originally comprised six apartment "flats." Investor James McNamara had seen the success of similar investments in New York City and Chicago and believed that he, too, could capitalize on Des Moines's growing population. The Murillo was one of several apartment buildings built in the early 20th century. William Page prepared this nomination for the property owner as part of a historic tax credit project.
Four downtown commercial districts were added to the National Register in 2009, paving the way for preservation incentives to be used as part of downtown revitalization efforts in each town.

Adel Public Square Historic District ➔
In the 1870s local promoters ensured Adel's longevity by bringing a railroad connection to town. Just over a decade later, downtown businesses rallied to pave the streets with brick. At the turn of the century, the progressive movement captured Adel, resulting in the impressive Dallas County Courthouse. William Page prepared the nomination for the Adel Historic Preservation Commission as part of a Certified Local Government grant project.

Marion Commercial Historic District ➔
The Marion Commercial Historic District represents the prosperity and challenges faced by Iowa's early communities. Marion was the county seat and a division point for the Milwaukee Railroad until the early 20th century, when the county seat shifted to Cedar Rapids, railroad shops moved to Atkins, and the population moved with them. Lesser communities might have succumbed, but Marion stepped up to promote itself as a beautiful, modern city determined to benefit from its proximity to the urban and industrial center in Cedar Rapids. Leah Rogers of Tallgrass Historians L.C. prepared the nomination for the Marion Historic Preservation Commission as part of a Certified Local Government grant project.

Anamosa Main Street Historic District ➔
Developed organically as a corridor through the center of town, Anamosa's commercial district eventually encompassed three commercial nodes. Extensive use of local limestone for building and ornamentation visually unifies a seemingly unsystematic development. William Page prepared the nomination for the Jones County Historic Preservation Commission as part of a Certified Local Government grant project.

Eldora Downtown Historic District ➔
In many Iowa towns, a public square is a community hub. Eldora's Downtown Historic District follows this trend. It also features the Romanesque Revival Hardin County Courthouse, built in 1893. This heart of Eldora's commercial, public, religious, and educational activities was ravaged by a severe hailstorm just three months after being listed on the National Register. The listing is a point of pride, and today Eldora is working its way back from the devastation. Rebecca Lawin McCarley of SPARK Consulting prepared the nomination for Hardin County Historic Preservation Commission as part of a Historical Resource Development Program grant.
Tyden Farm No. 6 Farmstead Historic District
Swedish immigrant Emil Tyden made a fortune as an inventor, businessman, and industrialist. During the progressive era of the early 20th century, Tyden turned his attention to modernizing agriculture through science and technology. Over 25 years, starting in 1915, he purchased eight farms in north central Iowa, amassing over 2,500 acres. Tyden Farm No. 6 (near Dougherty in Floyd County) served as a base of operations during his frequent visits to Iowa from his home in Michigan. His influence can be seen in the orderly arrangement and modern design of the farm buildings. Jan Olive Nash of Tallgrass Historians L.C. prepared the nomination with assistance from Jennifer Price.

Roswell and Elizabeth Garst Farmstead Historic District
Just over 50 years ago, Iowa had the attention of the world when Nikita Krushchev visited Roswell Garst’s farmstead near Coon Rapids, the capstone of Garst’s attempt to create a bridge between two Cold War countries and to promote his agricultural and business acumen. Krushchev and Garst had met in 1955 while Garst toured the Soviet Union, Romania, and Hungary, disseminating information about agricultural innovations and negotiating the sale of hybrid seed corn. The men formed an unlikely bond due to their similar personalities and backgrounds. The Garst Farmstead was nominated just in time to celebrate the 50th anniversary of Krushchev’s visit. Jan Olive Nash and Rebecca Conard prepared the nomination for the Garst family.

Christian Bloedel Wagon Works
Christian Bloedel moved from Guttenberg to McGregor in 1860 after having lived and worked in Saginaw, Detroit, and Philadelphia. A German immigrant, Bloedel had experience as a wagon maker, grocer, and farmer. Once in McGregor, he set up his shop a few blocks from the business center in order to cater to local clients and farmers rather than those arriving at the river port. These beautiful brick buildings served as both business and residence for Bloedel and his family, who joined him in his trade. The family partnership dissolved around 1887. Although his sons moved to Minnesota, Bloedel remained in McGregor until his death in 1901. Leah Rogers of Tallgrass Historians L.C. prepared the nomination for the property owner.
National Biscuit Company Building ➔
This rather nondescript four-story brick factory building serves as a direct connection between the city of Des Moines and the National Biscuit Company, better known today as Nabisco. After the National Biscuit Company absorbed the Continental Biscuit Company in the early 1900s, it assumed control of the market throughout Iowa. The construction of this building in 1906 followed the company’s nationwide design standards. The building served as a regional center for production and distribution of the company’s products, including the popular Uneeda Biscuit. By 1909, the plant served the company’s third-largest sales territory; by 1921 the workforce had tripled in size. James Jacobsen of History Pays! Historic Preservation Consulting prepared this nomination for the property owner as part of a historic tax credit project.

Kent Union Chapel and Cemetery
Kent Union Chapel, built in 1909 near Brooklyn in Poweshiek County, functioned as a rural social center and served local families of diverse religious backgrounds, including Methodists, Presbyterians, Baptists, Mormons, Episcopalians, Lutherans, Catholics, Dunkards, Quakers, and United Brethren. The church would not exist without the Kent Cemetery Aid Society, a group of women living around the settlement of Kent Corners who were determined to build a chapel and raised the money needed for its construction. Today, another group is just as determined to preserve the building and return it to its original function. The Brooklyn Community Foundation is assisting with fundraising and administration of the rehabilitation project, which is spearheaded by local preservationist Jan Bittner. Jan Olive Nash and Jennifer Price of Tallgrass Historians L.C. prepared the nomination as part of consultation on a federal undertaking.

Boyt Company Building ➔
Established in Des Moines in 1901, the Walter Boyt Saddlery Company fabricated leather goods. In 1904, it expanded into this two-story, brick building next door. By 1908 it had outgrown both buildings. Boyt Company contracted with the government during both world wars, supplying bags, belts, bridles, field packs, saddles, and holsters. During World War II, the company expanded production and so returned to this building. Boyt received five Army and Navy “E” Awards for serving the nation. William Page prepared the nomination for the property owners as part of a historic tax credit project.
These three adjacent buildings in downtown Des Moines are at Court Avenue and 4th Street. Their proximity ensured that their histories would eventually intertwine, but separate nominations to the National Register highlight their individual architectural significance.

Youngerman Block
Built in 1876, this is the oldest of the three and a rare extant example of the work of architect William Foster and stonemason Conrad Youngerman. The stone-like upper facade is actually the only known Des Moines example of a cast stone called asbestine, visible in its cast form in the window surrounds and as a trowel-applied finish on the facade.

Earle & LeBosquet Block
Built 20 years after the Youngerman Block, this structure’s style is now known as the Chicago Commercial Style. Its tripartite organization follows the classical formula of base, shaft, and capital. Above the storefront base, Des Moines architect Charles E. Eastman creatively mixed creamy buff brick and dark terra cotta with stylized leaf forms to outline and ornament the soaring, arcaded three-story window bays. The shaft is capped by an intricate brickwork cornice featuring terra cotta tiles.

Hotel Randolph
This is the youngest of the trio, opening in 1912, a year that would see six major fires in downtown Des Moines. Designed by H. L. Stevens Company of Chicago, the building pioneered the use of reinforced concrete in Des Moines hotel construction and is believed to be the first of several “fireproof” hotels throughout Iowa designed by the firm. Although the combination of concrete and brick could not make the building truly fireproof, assurances of an “absolutely fireproof hotel” enticed potential guests.

Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Depot
Currently owned by the City of Osceola and served by AMTRAK, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Depot is a rare Iowa example of a railroad depot still in use for its original purpose. Built in 1907 to replace an earlier wood-frame structure, the brick depot is located near the crossing of two primary railroad lines in Osceola and is one of a series of at least 12 similar Iowa depots built by the CB&Q between 1902 and 1912 during a push to bring its facilities up to modern standards. Soon after the building was completed, other railroad-related enterprises sprang up around it, including the Depot Café and the Depot Hotel. Although these no longer exist, the CB&Q depot still welcomes travelers to Osceola. Molly Myers Naumann prepared the nomination for the City of Osceola.
Folkert Mound Group
Located in the Iowa River Greenbelt near Steamboat Rock, the Folkert Mound Group comprises 27 mounds of various shapes—including linear, conical or oval, and cruciform—distinctly laid out in relation to each other roughly one to two thousand years ago. Although some have compared the arrangement to an anthropomorphic figure, much more research into the history and construction of the group remains to be done. This National Register nomination, future investigation of the property, and the maintenance and protection of it are integral parts of a cultural resource management plan by the Hardin County Conservation Board. James Collins and William Whitaker of the University of Iowa Office of the State Archaeologist prepared this nomination as part of a Historical Resource Development Program grant.

Early immigrants to Iowa made use of building materials at hand, which was often wood and native stone. Limestone was used on these two farmsteads.

William and Mary (Messersmith) Seerley Barn and Milkhouse-Smokehouse
William and Mary (Messersmith) Seerley came to the Earlham area of Madison County from Indiana in 1856. Among the first settlers and a successful farming family, their agricultural outbuildings took on the stone building tradition of the early years of Madison County. Their milkhouse-smokehouse (built around 1860) and barn (1876) feature locally quarried limestone. Stone walkways connect the buildings. Property owner Sara Tessmer prepared the nomination.

John and Marie (Palen) Schrup Farmstead Historic District
This farmstead is one of the few remaining rural Luxembourgian properties in Dubuque County. Settlers from Luxembourg arrived in Iowa during the mid-19th century to escape economic and political upheaval. The 1854 house, barn, and well house feature both fieldstones and cut limestone. The house, in particular, exhibits Luxembourgian traditions in its kitchen-parlor design and symmetrical arrangement of windows and doors framed with stone. Property owner Calvin Gatch Jr prepared the nomination.
**Lockkeeper’s House**
The building long known as the Lockkeeper’s House in Davis County is believed to be associated with the Des Moines River Improvement Project, a failed federal project intended to make the Des Moines River navigable from Keokuk to Des Moines. The building may be associated with Lock and Dam #10, constructed on the Des Moines River just downstream from Eldon, above Iowaville. However, because no research has directly linked the house and the lock and dam, and no one knows whether the building was ever actually used as a house, the building is instead listed on the National Register as a fine example of mid-19th-century vernacular limestone design. Molly Myers Naumann prepared the nomination for the City of Eldon.

**Lowana Hotel**
The Lowana Hotel was built in Creston in 1919–1920 in response to a series of fires that had destroyed previous hotels in town. The Creston Club, a group of prominent businessmen, raised capital for the venture through a patriotic postwar campaign. The Hotel Investment Company acquired the land and hired H. L. Stevens & Company of Chicago to build a modern, “fireproof” hotel. Known for such designs, the company also designed several other hotels in Iowa, including the Martin Hotel (Sioux City), Jefferson Hotel (Iowa City), and Brown, Randolph, and Savery hotels (Des Moines). Clayton Fraser of FRASERdesign prepared the nomination for the City of Creston.

**Hawarden City Hall, Fire Station, and Auditorium**
This building, which served as Hawarden’s city hall, fire station, and auditorium, was built in 1918 during a period that saw local boosters, civic leaders, and residents pushing for several progressive improvements. Although Hawarden had seen a number of new public improvements in the late 1800s and early 1900s, the construction of the city hall was especially well received by the citizens, perhaps because the building also served as a community center. Its completion sparked a number of other local improvements, including the installation of street paving and lighting, establishment of a state park, and construction of a passenger depot, a municipal power plant, and sanitary and storm sewers. William Page prepared the nomination for the City of Hawarden.
Once listed with pride on the National Register of Historic Places, these four historically significant structures in Iowa have been lost to demolition within the last decade.

«Gilruth District #4 Schoolhouse
Associated with early educational trends in Iowa, Gilruth District #4 Schoolhouse in Davenport was built in 1871. It housed a private “subscription” school founded by Rev. James Gilruth in 1861. The school was intended for use by Gilruth’s grandchildren, although neighbors also paid to enroll their children there. The schoolhouse was demolished sometime before 2002. (Photograph dates to earlier decades.)

Fields Barn
Built by William and Charles Fields, the Fields Barn near Cedar Falls was one of the largest stone barns in Iowa. The farm gained a national reputation for Cleveland Bay and English draft horses imported from Europe. The barn deteriorated for many years until the owners had it demolished in 2008.

Brady-Bolibaugh House
Significant for its unusual combination of Second Empire, Gothic, and Italian villa styling, the Brady-Bolibaugh House in Osceola was built by local dentist F.M. Brady sometime before 1869. Dr. L.O. Bolibaugh purchased it in 1895 for his office and residence. The house was severely damaged by fire a few years ago and was demolished in 2008.

Union Hotel
The Union Hotel was the largest and best-preserved example of an Italianate hotel design in Burlington. Built between 1865 and 1868 across the street from the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad depot, it was significant for its local association with the railroad and with Senator James Wilson Grimes, who helped secure the construction of the railroad complex and the hotel. It was demolished sometime before 2002.
FOR TWO MONTHS, Dubuque newspaper and civic leaders had drummed up excitement about the upcoming carnival week in October 1899. This envelope in particular promoted “Pain’s Gorgeous Spectacle” as the premier event. The scene depicts “Dewey’s Victory at Manila” in the Spanish-American War.

“War is hell,” a reporter for the Dubuque Daily Times reminded his readers, and now victorious Americans, needed an “outlet for pent-up enthusiasm” and patriotism. The recommended outlet, he told them, was to re-live Admiral Dewey’s victory, with “dramatic license,” carloads of scenery, and hundreds of players.

Exactly how this performance was staged at the Dubuque carnival isn’t quite clear, but we know how the drama unfolded, thanks to the reporter’s thrilling synopsis. The first scene opens with “Spanish warships, quietly riding at anchor.”

“Suddenly there comes a horseman at breakneck speed with dispatches. Dewey and the Americans are coming. The Spanish bugles blow ‘to arms.’ The revelers hurry away. Troops assemble. The Spanish fleet in the bay light up, clearing for action. Intrenchments are hastily thrown up.

“And then, boom, boom, bang, here is the Olympia [Dewey’s ship]—a mimic ironclad forty feet long, sailing gracefully into view, firing from her big guns as she comes. The other famous crafts follow. And then pandemonium breaks loose. The warships blaze away. So do the forts. Troops come skirmishing into view, firing as they run.

“Then the Spanish ships begin to blow up and sink. And then victory perches on the colors of the American land forces.”

(The week before, the newspaper had promised a far different narrative for the drama, this one focused on the Filipino uprising, with scenes of the rebels’ court martial and execution. Apparently it was scrapped for Dewey’s naval battle. Perhaps it was a little too close to the “war is hell” theme?)

For the Dubuque audience, the night wasn’t over. Now came an extravaganza of fireworks and aerial novelties, as created by famed pyrotechnic James Pain, “the great fireworks king.”

The reporter’s descriptions are magical. First, against the October night sky, was the “ascent of monster balloons carrying magnesium lights, flooding the entire neighborhood with dazzling light, finishing with a string of jewels 100 feet long, constantly changing colors as they float through space.”

Next the darkness was lit by “aerial Indian jugglery and essence of moonlight, created by the discharge of Pain’s celebrated 24 inch bombs.”

Then came the “flight of asteroid rockets, emitting electric babies.” And “liquid fire, cometic rain, prismatic jewels.” Whirlwinds, kaleidoscopes, Italian streamers, fiery pigeons, spreader stars, and, of course, an illuminated portrait of Dewey.

Surely the smoke and din rivaled that of the Battle of Manila—which, of course, was the focus of this celebration. “America has demonstrated to the world her power on the sea,” the reported remarked. “The Battle of Manila is an epoch making event.”

The night must have been exhilarating, exhausting, and, surely to some, worthy of serious thought.

—Ginalie Swaim, editor