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Cultural Resources and the Interior Department

An Overview

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
National Park Service
Cultural Resources

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Information for parks, federal agencies, Indian tribes, states, local governments, and the private sector that promotes and *maintains high standards for preserving* and managing cultural resources

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Cover: Buffalo-head doorknobs with stylized-eagle escutcheons were specially designed for the Secretary's Office and other prominent spaces in the Interior Building, described in the article by Look and Perrault. Photo by Brooks Photographers courtesy HABS Collection, NPS.

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The preservation of historic sites for the public benefit, together with their proper interpretation, tends to enhance the respect and love of the citizen for the institutions of his country, as well as strengthen his resolution to defend unselfishly the hallowed traditions and high ideals of America.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt

Foreword

Our stewardship at the Interior Department touches the lives of Americans in many ways. We preserve places that give us a proud sense of our history—from the Statute of Liberty and Independence Hall, to Gettysburg Battlefield and the Washington Monument. We protect breathtaking landscapes of natural beauty, from the depths of the Grand Canyon to the peaks of Mount Rainier. We provide environmentally sound production of oil, gas, and mineral resources found on America's public lands. We honor this nation's obligations to Native Americans and Alaska Natives. We protect and restore critical habitats for the nation's fish and wildlife. We manage water for millions of people in the West. We provide useful scientific and technical information for sound land management and natural resources decisionmaking.

Our stewardship extends beyond preserving for future generations those spectacular sites and historic structures that pay tribute to America's past and the principles upon which our great nation was founded. America is a melting pot of many ethnic groups whose cultures, traditions, and experiences create the freedom and diversity that are basic to our way of life.

On the verge of the next millennium and celebrating its 150th anniversary, the Department is prepared to meet the challenge ahead with new approaches and innovative solutions. We are a proud Department with a clearly defined mission, numerous success stories and a rich 150-year history. As we celebrate Interior's sesquicentennial, it is fitting and appropriate that we highlight the Department's involvement with cultural resources in this special anniversary issue of *CRM*.

Our cultural heritage is the gift of our forbears which carries a responsibility for us to share this inheritance with our children for future generations to understand and enjoy. By nurturing our cultural heritage, respecting what has been created, and passing it on, we give future generations the tools to find meaning and answers to questions in years ahead.

Bruce Babbitt
Secretary of the Interior

Celebrating 150 Years

I am pleased to help celebrate the Department of the Interior's sesquicentennial with this special issue of *CRM* surveying the Department's commitment to cultural resource management.

The National Park Service and most other Interior Department bureaus are commonly associated with natural resources. But for much of this century, we have been equally concerned with cultural resources: archeological sites, historic structures, landscapes, objects, and museum collections. We preserve and promote public appreciation of these resources on the lands we manage, and we conduct programs to identify and encourage preservation and appreciation of cultural resources outside our custody. Over the past few decades, our work has expanded into the preservation of culturally diverse historic resources and embraces many minority groups including Native Americans, African Americans, and Hispanic people.

The Department of the Interior, through the National Park Service, manages many of the most significant cultural sites in the country. Valley Forge, Abraham Lincoln's birthplace, Martin Luther King's home, Gettysburg battlefield, and Mesa Verde National Park represent various faces of American excellence. Other places, such as Independence Hall, Women's Rights National Historical Park, the Monroe School in Topeka, Kansas, and Manzanar National Historic Site remind us how much the words "freedom" and "equality" are central to our cultural heritage and how our society has struggled to ensure that they apply universally to all Americans. Because the stories inherent in these places are cherished ingredients of our national psyche, the Department of the Interior preserves and protects them as permanent reminders of our collective past.

National Park Service involvement with cultural resources is best known from the historic sites, battlefields, and monuments it administers and the National Register of Historic Places and National Historic Landmarks programs it manages. Lately, we have initiated projects focusing on the educational aspects of cultural resource management. For example, the National Underground Railroad Network to Freedom seeks to promote a deeper understanding of that 19th-century phenomenon which involved tens of thousands of enslaved African Americans "voting with their feet" in search of American liberty. The Vanishing Treasures Initiative is working on long-term preservation of the internationally significant archeological and historic structures located in the Southwest. We are also increasing public awareness and appreciation of cultural resources through *Links to the Past* <www.cr.nps.gov> on the World Wide Web.

The National Park Service may be more visibly associated with cultural resources than other Interior bureaus, but as the contents of this issue make clear, they are a Department-wide concern. Befitting an anniversary observance, most of the articles are retrospective, looking back at how we became involved with cultural resources and how we progressed to where we are today. Some look to the future as well, and contemplate the challenges ahead.

Through public awareness of the importance of historic preservation to our civic health, and congressional commitment to the identification and protection of the significant places that define us as a society, the Department of the Interior has been at the forefront of cultural conservation in this country for almost a century. Its obligation to the American people is to preserve for present and future generations the cultural touchstones of our nation. This rich collection reminds us of our journey from past to present … and even contains suggestions for how we might comport ourselves in the future. We are proud to be its stewards.

Robert Stanton
Director
National Park Service

Jan Townsend

The Department of Everything Else, Including Historic Preservation

Many Americans are aware of the Department of the Interior's role in protecting wilderness, spectacular mountain vistas, wetlands and wildlife. In addition to these natural splendors, Interior manages hundreds of thousands of archeological sites, historic buildings, battlefields, museum collections, cultural landscapes and ethnographic resources on our public lands. Over the past 150 years, Interior has become a leader in preserving our nation's cultural heritage.

The Department of the Interior was created by an act of Congress signed by President James K. Polk on March 3, 1849. The primary impetus for the new department was the nation's acquisition of more than a million square miles of western territory between 1845 and 1848. Secretary of the Treasury Robert J. Walker foresaw his department becoming overburdened by the increased land management and disposition responsibilities of its General Land Office. He also identified other domestic functions that no longer fit well within the departments to which they were assigned. In addition to taking the General Land Office from Treasury, the act resulting from his recommendations took the Patent Office from the State Department, the Indian Affairs office from the War Department, and the pension offices from the War and Navy departments and assigned them to the Interior Department. Interior also assumed responsibility for federal buildings, the personnel of the federal courts, the decennial census, overseeing lead and other mines, and the District of Columbia penitentiary. During its early years it was sometimes facetiously called "The Department of Everything Else."

The General Land Office

The Secretary of the Interior's involvement in preservation originated in the General Land Office (GLO), which Congress had established in 1812. The GLO's duties were to "superintend, execute, and perform, all such acts and things, touching or respecting the public lands of the United States." The public lands, or the public domain, were federally owned lands west of the original colonies. The GLO's primary activity was disposing of public lands. In 1849, when the Department formed, the public domain stretched to the Pacific Ocean. It still does today.

As early as the 1880s, citizen groups and entities within the federal government were actively advocating the preservation of archeologically and historically important places and ruins. The Public Land Commission, chaired by the GLO Commissioner,[1] strongly recommended reserving "many of the old Indian and Mexican ruins in Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, and California ...along with other remains of former civilizations."[2] Influential Bostonians, outraged by the looting and destruction of southwestern ruins, petitioned the U. S. Senate "that at least some extinct cities or pueblos, carefully selected,...may be withheld from public sale and their antiquities and ruins be preserved...." [3]

In 1889, the citizens of Boston succeeded in moving Congress to enact legislation that would protect the ruin of Casa Grande, Arizona, from further destruction and injury. Congress authorized the president to reserve the land on which Casa Grande sat from settlement or sale and gave the Secretary of the Interior the responsibility to repair and protect the ruin. Casa Grande was Interior's first archeological reservation. By 1900, the GLO Commissioner, with assumed authority, was ordering withdrawal of public lands in the Southwest with ruins[4] in anticipation that Congress would reserve them as national parks or other kinds of reservations.

The Antiquities Act of 1906

The looting and destruction of southwestern ruins continued despite the GLO's efforts to protect them through withdrawals and sporadic patrolling. The American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS) and the

1892 photograph of Casa Grande courtesy Harpers Ferry Center, NPS.

Archaeological Institute of America (AIA) responded by drafting a bill. U. S. Representative Jonathan P. Dolliver of Iowa introduced a modified version of it on February 5, 1900.[5] This first "antiquities bill" placed all prehistoric ruins, monuments, and objects on public lands under the Secretary of the Interior's jurisdiction, permitted excavation and collection for educational or scientific purposes, made the willful destruction or collection of archeological materials a punishable misdemeanor, and gave the President the authority to establish parks.[6]

Legislators had several key concerns. Some objected to the amount and scope of power transferred from the Congress to the President. Others, especially those in the west, wanted limits on acreage and restrictions on where parks could be created. Within the scientific community, disagreement centered on which governmental entity would take the lead role in preserving antiquities—the Secretary of the Interior or the Smithsonian Institution. Advocates for and staff of the Bureau of American Ethnology wanted the Smithsonian Institution substituted for the Secretary of the Interior in the bill. Most in the scientific and museum communities, however, favored the Secretary of the Interior.

In 1905, Edgar L. Hewett, a southwestern archeologist, joined the American Anthropological Association[7] (AAA) committee working on the issue. Hewett, a recognized authority on the preservation needs of southwestern ruins,[8] revised an earlier bill. Members of the AAA and the AIA and federal agency representatives endorsed it. On January 9, 1906, Representative John F. Lacey[9] of Iowa introduced Hewett's proposed bill. With minor modifications, it became the Antiquities Act of 1906. The Act

- required that permission be obtained from the secretary of the department having jurisdiction over the land to excavate, injure, collect or destroy historic or prehistoric ruins, monuments, and objects of antiquity;
- stipulated that failure to get permission could result in a fine or imprisonment; and
- authorized the President to proclaim historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other "objects" of historic or scientific interest to be national monuments. The monument would be confined to the lands required to care and manage the feature to be protected.

In 1916, Congress enacted legislation establishing the National Park Service (NPS) within Interior. The new bureau inherited the national parks and the national monuments already under the Secretary of the Interior's control and was expressly charged with preserving their historic features. From its establishment to today, the NPS has been the Secretary's spokes-agency for historic preservation.

The Historic Sites Act of 1935

In the early 1930s, the world was in the depths of the Great Depression. More than 10 million workers were unemployed in the United States. President Franklin D. Roosevelt's solution was to create jobs. In late March 1933, he established the Civilian Conservation Corps for the purpose of employing and training young men. The NPS, which administered part of the program, began hiring archeologists and historians to help preserve, develop, and interpret both state and federal parks with historical and archeological values. In June 1933, President Roosevelt transferred more than 50 parks and monuments administered by the War and Agriculture departments to the NPS. Most of them were important for their historic value and many were battlefields (see Mackintosh article, p. 41.) The NPS, using Emergency Conservation Work funds, hired staff with backgrounds in history and archeology to work in the new parks and monuments.

Continued on p. 8

The Interior Buffalo

In 1917, as the National Geographic Society readied a magazine feature on the flags of the federal departments, it discovered that the Department of the Interior lacked one. Dr. Gilbert H. Grosvenor, president of the society, collaborated with Secretary Franklin K. Lane to remedy the deficiency. The resulting flag design featured a bison, or buffalo. Interior also adopted this distinctive western symbol for its seal, which had formerly depicted an eagle.

The buffalo initially lasted only until 1923, when another version of the eagle replaced it on the seal and flag. It returned in 1929 and remained until 1968, when Secretary Stewart L. Udall, deeming it anachronistic and unrepresentative of Interior's diverse responsibilities, again banished it in favor of a stylized pair of hands embracing symbols of the sun, mountains, and water. By this time the buffalo had become a fond Interior tradition, and the modernistic new logo (by a New York design firm) was widely derided. ("The Good Hands of Allstate" was among the more printable epithets.) Udall's successor, Walter J. Hickel, promptly restored the buffalo in 1969. There has been no further move to kill it.

1913–1917

1917–1923

1923–1929

1968–1969

Continued from p. 6

Late in 1933, Charles E. Peterson, a restoration architect employed by the NPS, proposed the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS). The HABS program would employ jobless architects, draftsmen, and photographers to document early historic structures. Key architects endorsed the project, and Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes quickly approved it. The Civil Works Administration funded the program, which lasted only four months. During that time, however, the HABS teams prepared measured architectural drawings and pictorial histories for about 860 buildings. The program was so successful that in July 1934, the NPS, the American Institute of Architects, and the Library of Congress entered into a formal agreement making the HABS a permanent NPS program.

By 1934 private preservation organizations were pressuring President Roosevelt and Secretary Ickes for legislation that would establish a federal preservation program to coordinate preservation activities with states and localities. Ickes initially claimed that such a program already existed in the NPS, but preservation organizations disagreed. Upon further thought, Ickes decided that Interior and the NPS did indeed need legislation to buttress their activities.[10] The resulting bill more expressly authorized the existing NPS preservation programs, and, according to Ickes, laid "a broad legal foundation for a national program of preservation and rehabilitation of historic sites."[11] President Roosevelt signed the Historic Sites Act into law on August 21, 1935.

The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966

During the late 1950s and early 1960s, America's economy boomed. The federal government fueled it by funding and promoting the construction of interstate highways, suburban housing developments, and public facilities. Additionally, the federal government was channeling funds into economically depressed inner cities through urban renewal programs. The cities then used the federal dollars to tear down historically or architecturally interesting buildings and neighborhoods in order to construct new buildings and facilities, such as parking structures.

Community-based historic preservation groups sprang up throughout the country. These groups found the Secretary of the Interior working through the NPS to be of little help. As a result of an Interior solicitor's reinterpretation of the Historic Sites Act, NPS preservation leaders felt that they lacked authority to assist in preserving locally and regionally important sites and buildings of greatest concern to community-based preservationists. With the exception of an

Above, CCC enrollees sifting dirt in archeological work in the back of General George Washington's headquarters at Morristown National Historical Park.

Right, Archeological laboratory at Morristown National Historical Park, New Jersey, 1935.

Photos courtesy NPS.

inter-agency archeological salvage program among the NPS, Smithsonian, Bureau of Reclamation, and Corps of Engineers, NPS programs had become increasingly focused on expanding and strengthening the national park system.

In 1965, the United States Conference of Mayors sponsored a nonpartisan, blue-ribbon committee to consider a national preservation program. Key representatives and senators (especially those who dealt with urban housing-related issues), state and local elected officials, and the Secretaries of the Interior, Commerce, and Housing and Urban Development (HUD) served on the committee. It was chaired by Albert M. Rains, the recently retired chairman of the U. S. House of Representatives' Subcommittee on Housing.

All Rains Committee members supported the need for a stronger, more effective national historic preservation program. They disagreed, however, on which federal entity should house it, or parts of it. Director George B. Hartzog, Jr. of the NPS argued that all historic preservation programs, including those that were urban focused, should remain within his agency. Secretary of the Interior Stewart L. Udall supported Hartzog. The Rains Committee organizers, Secretary of HUD Robert C. Weaver, and key persons at the National Trust for Historic Preservation advocated placing urban historic preservation under the purview of HUD.

Three separate preservation bills were introduced in Congress in March 1966. The Secretary of the Interior endorsed the first, which kept all aspects of the federal government's historic preservation program within his department. The Rains Committee organizers supported the language in the second and third bills, which divided aspects of the proposed national historic preservation program between the Secretary of the Interior and the Secretary of HUD. Legislators in the Senate and the House redrafted the proposed legislation, taking elements from all three bills. In the new law and in its committee reports, Congress made explicit "that the national historic preservation effort should continue to be, as it [had] been in the past, a function of the Department of the Interior ...."[12] President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the National Historic Preservation Act into law on October 15, 1966.[13]

Thanks largely to the lobbying skills of National Park Service Director George B. Hartzog, Jr., the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 centered federal responsibility for an expanded preservation program in Interior rather than the Department of Housing and Urban Development, as others proposed. Hartzog claimed that the National Register of Historic Places, the program's core, already existed there in embryonic form as the body of national historic landmarks designated under the Historic Sites Act of 1935. His winning argument that the new program was a logical extension of Interior's existing program was reflected in the 1966 Act's language authorizing the Secretary of the Interior to "expand" rather than initiate the National Register. Photo courtesy NPS Historic Photo Collection.

For the first time, Congress definitely directed the federal government, in cooperation with others, to provide leadership in the preservation of the nation's prehistoric and historic resources. The Act authorized a National Register of Historic Places comprising properties of local, regional, and national significance. It also mandated that agencies take into account the effects of their undertakings on historic properties.

Conclusions

The Antiquities Act of 1906, the Historic Sites Act of 1935, and the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 are still the primary acts that authorize and delineate the Secretary of the Interior's historic preservation responsibilities.

The Antiquities Act is now less important. In recent decades, presidents have rarely exercised the Act's authority to proclaim national monuments (see Rothman article, p. 16.) The Secretary of the Interior now depends primarily on the authorities stipulated in the Archaeological Resources Protection Act of 1979 to protect archeological resources on public and Indian lands and require the preservation of museum collections.

Although the Historic Sites Act has been extensively amended since 1935, it remains a key piece of legislation. It was the first act to acknowledge the importance of cooperation among federal, state, and local jurisdictions and individuals in preserving historic sites, a theme

later expanded upon in the National Historic Preservation Act. It authorized the Historic American Buildings Survey, and what became the National Historic Landmarks Survey. It also encouraged initiatives to rehabilitate historic properties and offer public education programs.

Since its enactment in 1966, the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, has become the legislative centerpiece for most federal historic preservation activities. Amendments to the Act have brought new partners into the national historic preservation program and expanded their related duties and responsibilities. States, for example, were given a legal role in the process of listing properties in the National Register and the position of State Historic Preservation Officer was legally recognized. The most recent amendments in 1992 created the position of Tribal Preservation Officer and expanded the involvement of American Indian tribes and Native Hawaiian organizations in the national program. Other amendments added language affirming and expanding the roles and responsibilities of federal agencies within the national preservation program. For example, Section 110 of the Act now directs each federal agency, within the framework of its own mission, to establish a historic preservation program in consultation with the Secretary of the Interior.

The Secretary continues to be the federal government's principal historic preservation advocate, and the NPS retains its leadership role. Longstanding programs to manage and protect archeological sites, historic buildings, and museum collections have been expanded in recent years to include cultural landscapes and ethnographic resources. As recently as 1998, Congress reaffirmed its long-standing position that historic preservation is a core function of Interior when it failed to pass proposed legislation calling for the transfer of the Secretary of the Interior's Section 110 program responsibilities to the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation.

Notes

1 John Wesley Powell, Director of Interior's United States Geological Survey and the Smithsonian Institution's Bureau of Ethnology (later the Bureau of American Ethnology), served on the commission. Also see Larsen, p. 38.

2 Thomas Donaldson, *The Public Domain: Its History, With Statistics,* Public Land Commission (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1884), 1294.

3 Ronald F. Lee, *The Antiquities Act of 1906* (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1970), 10.

4 During the late 19th century, Civil War veterans also lobbied Congress to preserve sites. They wanted the federal government to buy and protect important Civil War battlefields, most of which were on private land. In 1890 Congress established Chickamauga and Chattanooga Military Park in Georgia and Tennessee. In the next few years, it also set aside portions of Civil War battlefields at Antietam, MD; Shiloh, TN; and Gettysburg, PA.

5 Lee, *Antiquities Act,* 50.

6 John DishonMcDermott, *Breath of Life: An Outline of the Development of a National Policy for Historic Preservation,* typed manuscript (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1966), 9-10.

7 The American Anthropological Association formed in 1902.

8 In 1904, Hewett submitted a compiled report on the identification and preservation needs of the southwestern pueblo ruins to the Commissioner of the GLO, W. A. Richards. Richards endorsed Hewett's findings and recommendations and included the report in his annual report to the Secretary of the Interior. Also in 1904, Hewett reported on the status of "Government Supervision of Historic and Prehistoric Ruins" in *Science,* N.S., Vol. XX, No. 517, pp. 722-727.

9 According to an August 18, 1971, letter from Ronald Lee to Horace M. Albright, Lacey and Hewett were well acquainted. At Hewett's invitation, Lacey had toured many of the southwestern ruins in 1902. A copy of the letter is in the Ronald F. Lee Papers, Box II, Folder II-1, National Park Service History Collection, Harpers Ferry Center, Harpers Ferry, WV.

10 Ronald F. Lee, Interview, August 17, 1962, conducted by Charles B. Hosmer, Jr. Transcript at the National Park Service History Collection, Harpers Ferry Center, Harpers Ferry, WV, p. V.

11 McDermott, *Breath of Life,* 38.

12 James M. Lambe, *Legislative History of Historic Preservation Act of 1966* (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1967), 113.

13 President Lyndon Johnson signed the Endangered Species Act into law on the same day.

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David W. Look and Carole Louise Perrault

The Interior Building

Celebrating a Department's Mission Through its Architecture and Art

After its establishment on March 3, 1849, the Department of the Interior initially rented headquarters space in an office building at 15th and F streets NW in Washington (where the Hotel Washington now stands). From 1852 until 1917, the Secretary of the Interior and several Interior bureaus occupied the Patent Office building on F Street between 7th and 9th streets NW (now housing the Smithsonian Institution's National Portrait Gallery and National Museum of American Art). For the next 20 years, Interior was headquartered in a new building filling the block bounded by 18th, 19th, E, and F streets NW (now home to the General Services Administration). Not until 1937 did the Department occupy the present Interior building, built in 1935-36, directly south of its previous headquarters.

The new Interior building, containing three miles of corridors, 2,200 rooms, 22 passenger elevators, and 3,681 interior doors, was the first building in Washington authorized, designed, and built by the Franklin D. Roosevelt administration. Praised then for its functionally sensitive design and innovative features, the building was endowed by those who inspired and engineered its construction with a trust of much greater magnitude than simple serviceability. Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes called the building "a symbol of a new day," referring to the growing federal commitment to conservation and planned use of America's natural and cultural resources. During his lengthy tenure (1933-1946) under Roosevelt and Harry S Truman, Ickes succeeded in consolidating more federal conservation programs under the Interior Department.

Laying of the cornerstone at the dedication ceremony. From left, President Franklin D. Roosevelt, Aide Gus Gennerich, Architect Waddy B. Wood, and Secretary Harold L. Ickes. Waddy Wood Papers, *Architectural Records Collection, Office of the Curator of the Smithsonian Building, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC.*

At the building's dedication ceremony on April 16, 1936, President Roosevelt eloquently expressed the intended symbolic link between the building and his administration's "New Deal": "As I view this serviceable new structure I like to think of it as symbolical of the Nation's vast resources that we are sworn to protect, and this stone that I am about to lay as the cornerstone of a conservation policy that will guarantee to future Americans the richness of their heritage." The architectural and decorative features of the building, designed to reflect and symbolize Interior's conservation mission, became media for conveying this message. More than six decades later the Interior building continues to gracefully celebrate, through its architecture and art, this period in our national history when humanism and "progressivism" reigned. The survival of this history—as manifested in the physical form of the Interior building —is a testament to those who conceived, designed, and gave the building shape, and to those who have been its watchful caretakers.

New Headquarters for Interior

The story of the new Interior building begins with a Secretary and his concern for employee well-being in the workplace. When Harold Ickes was sworn in on March 4, 1933, as the 32nd Secretary of the Interior, he encountered low morale among his employees, who were

The Interior Building from the Washington Monument, 1938. Pan American Union Building, DAR Constitution Hall, and Red Cross Annex are in foreground. Photo by A.J. Kelley, courtesy NPS.

scattered in some 15 buildings around Washington. Ickes immediately sought a more suitable arrangement. Roosevelt supported him and recommended funding for a new building specifically designed to meet the Department's requirements. In 1934, wearing his other hat as Administrator of Public Works, Ickes allotted $12,740,000 for a new Interior building.

The site selected on March 21, 1934, one of three considered, encompassed the area between 18th, 19th, C, and E streets NW. Because the intervening portion of D Street could be closed, the building could fill two blocks and house most of the Department under one roof. It could also be connected to its predecessor, where some Interior functions would remain, by a tunnel under Rawlins Park. The land comprised 239,300 square feet and cost $1,435,422.

On June 28 Ickes contracted with Waddy B. Wood, a prominent Washington architect, to prepare preliminary plans. The building concept emerged through the combined efforts of Wood and Ickes in cooperation with the Public Buildings Branch of the Treasury Department, whose responsibility it was to carry out the design and construction plans. Many of the innovative characteristics and special features of the building were largely a product of Ickes' involvement in its planning, design, and construction.

The George A. Fuller Company of Washington won the construction contract with a bid of $9,250,500, exclusive of elevators, escalators, the tunnel, the radio broadcasting studio, and lighting fixtures. Construction began in April 1935 and was completed in December 1936, a record time for a federal structure of its size and complexity.

Stylistically, the design team wanted the building to speak to the present and the future, not the past. Underlying its distinctive form, massing, and use of materials is the popular Moderne or Art Deco style of the 1930s. Smooth buff Indiana limestone was chosen for the superstructure, and Milford pink granite for the stylobate, base, and doorway surrounds. (It was thought that the building's size and proximity to the Mall might cause it to compete visually with the major monuments on the Mall if it were constructed of marble.)

The Interior building rises seven stories above a basement. An additional floor between the fifth and sixth stories is devoted to mechanical equipment, and there are recessed penthouses at the north and south ends. Six east-west wings cross a central spine running the two blocks from C to E streets.

Building Design and Innovations

Most aspects of the new Interior building 's design were kindled by desires to provide a posi-

tive work environment for employees and to impart the Department's mission to all who entered. The progressive ideas of those who engineered its construction assured that it would become one of the most functional and innovative government office structures in Washington during the 1930s. "Utility" and "economy" served as guiding design principles, while new technologies were summoned in implementation.

Office environments were of particular concern to Ickes. The design solution was to double-load the corridors so each office would have daylight and direct corridor access. Befitting their importance, the offices of the Secretary and Assistant Secretaries were specially appointed from floor to ceiling. The Secretary's suite contained a conference room and dining rooms.

Serviceability and innovation were realized in the spacious central corridors, the open courtyards, the entire floor reserved for mechanical equipment, and the inclusion of state-of-the-art technologies. These included central air conditioning—a first for a large government building; protective fire and security systems; escalators—another first for a federal building; movable metal office partitions of improved sound-isolation properties; acoustically treated ceilings; and recessed light coffers.

Special Employee Spaces and Features

Special spaces for group assembly and employee amenities were an additional design priority that evolved as a result of the direct efforts of Ickes. These spaces included an auditorium, gymnasium, cafeteria with courtyard, employee lounge (south penthouse) with soda fountain and roof access, and a parking garage.

The radio broadcasting studio in 1951 (north penthouse, 8th floor) with a Voice of America broadcast in progress. The studio has been adapted as a conference center. Photo by O'Donnell, courtesy National Archives, Washington, DC.

Special features were embraced to foster employee and public awareness of the Department's mission and philosophy. These features included a museum to depict the history, organization, and work of the various bureaus; an art gallery to display art and planning exhibits; a library; an Indian Arts and Crafts Shop; and a radio broadcasting studio (north penthouse), which became the first such unit designed for a federal government building.

Decorative Architectural Details, Murals and Sculpture

Although the designers placed considerable emphasis on the functionalism of the Interior building , architectural and decorative details were not overlooked. The building is not excessively ornate, but the quality of decorative detailing—such as the bronze grilles and hardware, the lighting fixtures, and the plaster moldings—reveals the architect's and his client's concern for design, materials, and craftsmanship. Symbols that reflected the Department's mission were chosen to decorate the building's architectural details, such as door hardware featuring the buffalo motif.

The Roosevelt administration had committed itself to the largest art program ever undertaken by the federal government, and its Secretary of the Interior was among its strongest proponents. Ickes ensured that the Interior building would benefit richly from this program by reserving approximately one percent of the building's cost—$127,000—for decoration. The Interior building emerged with more New Deal artwork than any other federal building, and was second only to the new Post Office Department building in the Federal Triangle in the number of artists who executed the work under the program. Murals and sculpture were planned as an integral part of the architectural scheme of the Interior building . They were installed in strategic positions at the ends of corridors, near elevator banks, at the side aisles of the grand stairs, and in such key public places as the auditorium and the cafeteria. More than 2,200 square feet of wall space in the cafeteria, the arts and crafts shop, and the employees' lounge were devoted exclusively to Native American artists. The murals and sculpture represent the work of some of the most prominent artists then practicing in this country.

Many of the murals depict the activities of various Interior bureaus during the 1930s. Other murals portray historical themes, including early

Upper grand staircase, main corridor, 2nd floor, looking south toward the William Gropper mural Construction of a Dam. *Brooks Photographers, Bethesda, Maryland, 1976, HABS Collection.*

explorations and the settling and development of the various sections of the country and territories. The last group of murals represents Native American life.

Identifying and Protecting a Heritage

The driving force behind the Interior building 's graceful evolution has been the preservation movement, which has championed the importance of identifying, protecting, and preserving the building's character-defining features as it adapts to changing departmental needs. The Department of the Interior has remained the principal federal agency for conserving the natural and cultural environment, and the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 has given Interior responsibility for developing information about professional methods and techniques for preserving, restoring, and maintaining historic properties. In fulfillment of this responsibility, in 1975-76 the National Park Service inventoried the Interior building 's character-defining features. The resulting report was published as a Preservation Case Study titled *The Interior Building: Its Architecture and Its Art* in 1986, the same year the Interior building was included in the National Register of Historic Places. The intent of this report was twofold: to serve as a planning guide for any future work on the building; and to provide a model for other federal, state, and local agencies to identify, preserve, and maintain their own culturally significant buildings.

The Interior Building: Its Architecture and Its Art has since served its planning purpose in the rehabilitation and modernization of the building. Respecting the building's historical integrity is now an established component of the vocabulary of change. The accompanying section, "Learning from the Preservation Case Study," itemizes recent and scheduled improvements.

The excellent condition of the Interior building and its adaptability to changing departmental needs testifies to the foresight of its designers, the professional workmanship of its artisans, fabricators, and builders, and the durability of its materials. With continued sensitive rehabilitation, and proper maintenance and appreciation for the original architectural and decorative fabric, the building will fittingly celebrate and serve the Department of the Interior well into the next millennium.

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Mr. Look and Ms. Perrault are the authors of The Interior Building: Its Architecture and Its Art *(National Park Service, 1986), on which this article is based.*

The employee lounge in 1940 (south penthouse, 8th floor). When the soda fountain was removed, the adjacent murals were damaged and over-painted. They have recently been restored. Photo courtesy National Archives, Washington, DC.

Learning from the Preservation Case Study

Recent research and renovation projects at the Interior building, where history and modernization successfully unite, are summarized below.

Special Spaces

- The north and south lobbies have been restored to recapture the simple, dignified elegance of those spaces. Lighting, ceiling decoration, benches, and signage have been affected.
- Offices have been removed from the south penthouse, enabling the space to be returned to its original use as an employee breakroom and lunchroom, although the soda fountain has not been restored. The facility is open to the public from April 15 to November 15 or by special appointment with the Interior Museum. There are also plans to pave the roof of the wing west of the south penthouse to provide additional space for outdoor tables, chairs, and benches.
- The radio broadcasting studio (north penthouse) has been rehabilitated into a conference center.

Decorative Features

- Evergreen Studios of New York City repainted the ceiling stencils in the lobbies, based on research conducted by Geier Brown Renfrow Architects and Oehrlein & Associates.
- The Alaskan totem pole installed in the cafeteria's courtyard in 1940 was removed in 1989 for conservation and reinstalled in the south lobby in 1991. After nearly 50 years of exposure to weathering and air pollution, it was necessary to move it to a climate-controlled environment.
- During the summer of 1998 Edita Nazaraite of Lithuania painted Flight to Freedom on the wall of the basement's main corridor opposite the entrance to the gymnasium. Assistant Secretary John Berry commissioned the mural as part of his Quality of Life initiative to improve working conditions for employees. This addition continues the tradition of murals and sculpture in the building. Painted in acrylic directly on the plaster wall, Nazaraite's dynamic mural (8'-10" by 21') captures bold naturalistic symbols in a colorful creation.
- Damaged and over-painted murals in the south penthouse have been restored by Olin Conservators under a General Services Administration (GSA) contract.
- Missing buffalo-head doorknobs are being replaced through a contract with the Equestrian Forge, Leesburg, Virginia.

Lighting

- The NPS Harpers Ferry Center prepared a historic furnishings report for the north and south lobbies in 1992. David H. Wallace, its author, recommended the replication of the original light standards, except where prohibited by security stations. Reproduction light standards have been installed and the overhead lights removed.
- New uplights have been introduced in the clerestory windows of the auditorium to restore the original indirect lighting plan. The auditorium was named the Sidney R. Yates Auditorium on November 24, 1998.
- Replicas of original light fixtures and chandeliers have been placed in several offices.
- The seventh-floor art gallery was originally lighted by skylights, which had been covered over during a later renovation. The appearance of a luminous ceiling has been recaptured by the removal of suspended ceilings and backlighting frosted panels, in the area now used as the Departmental Learning Center.

Flooring

- The original cork flooring in the executive dining room, the office of the Bureau of Land Management Director, and the radio broadcasting studio has been refinished with spar varnish and wax.
- The walnut-veneer flooring in the Secretary's Office was refinished. Rather than sand the thin veneer to remove the old finish, the flooring was chemically stripped and revarnished. The hardwood floors throughout the remainder of the Secretary's wing will receive the same sensitive treatment.

Modernization

- Permanent accessible walkways have been constructed at the E Street entrance. The center bronze double-doors have been retrofitted with automatic openers.
- Most of the original passenger-elevator cabs have been reworked to make them more compliant with the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA). New elevators to the north and south penthouses have been installed to increase accessibility.
- An analysis of health and safety deficiencies of the Interior building was made in 1996 by Shalom Baranes Associates, PC, for GSA and Interior. The report, entitled "Modernization of the Department of the Interior," recommends a number of improvements to the vertical conveyance, as well as structural, mechanical, electrical, plumbing, environmental, and acoustical work, to comply with current codes and accessibility standards. The work will be accomplished as funding is made available, by rehabilitating one wing at a time.

Hal Rothman

The Antiquities Act and National Monuments
A Progressive Conservation Legacy

The Antiquities Act of June 8, 1906, may be the most important piece of preservation legislation ever enacted by the United States government. Although its title suggests a limited focus on archeological matters, in practice the law became a cornerstone of preservation in the federal system. By allowing Presidents extraordinary power to preserve cultural and "scientific" features on public land, it created a mechanism for rapid decisionmaking concerning the disposition of federal lands. The category of park areas established under its auspices, the national monuments, became the most diverse and varied collection under federal administration. At times the monument category seemed a storehouse of places with a chance at eventual national park status, other places with significant attributes but lacking the spectacular qualities associated with national parks, and a number of curiosities added to the park system as a result of political porkbarreling.

The passage of the Act in 1906 answered an important need in a culture trying to define itself. At the beginning of the 20th century, European Americans retained a self-induced cultural inferiority from their relatively short history. Natural wonders and prehistoric ruins testified to a longer American past and afforded a heritage that could be compared to that of Europe with its ancient castles and temples. Amid this cultural nationalism and the contemporary pillaging of archeological remains in the Southwest, it became vital to protect such features from depredation and exploitation. Hence the Antiquities Act.

No piece of legislation invested more power in the presidency than the Antiquities Act. Its vaguely defined scope, encompassing "objects of historic or scientific interest," made it an unparalleled tool. Its congressional advocates anticipated that it would not be used to reserve more than 160-acre quarter-sections surrounding archeological remains on public lands, but the act stated only that national monuments should "be confined to the smallest area compatible with the proper care and management of the objects to be protected." (As noted in the articles by McManamon and Browning, p. 19, and Mackintosh, p. 41, the act also outlawed unauthorized disturbance or removal of cultural features on federal lands and set penalties for offenders.)

The first 10 national monuments, proclaimed by President Theodore Roosevelt between September 1906 and January 1908, were largely compatible with congressional expectations. Only Petrified Forest National Monument in Arizona topped 15,000 acres; most were far smaller. But after 1907, when Congress curtailed the President's power under similar legislation to

President Theodore Roosevelt in Yellowstone National Park, 1903. Roosevelt signed the Antiquities Act and ran with it. National Park Service photo.

President Bill Clinton's 1996 proclamation of Grand Staircase-Escalante National Monument in Utah triggered local opposition and congressional efforts (so far unsuccessful) to curtail the executive authority granted by the Antiquities Act. Controversial national monument proclamations in Wyoming and Alaska earlier led Congress to restrict the Act's use in those states. Bureau of Land Management photo.

proclaim national forests, Roosevelt reacted by more broadly defining the Antiquities Act's language regarding "objects … of scientific interest" and the extent of the reservations necessary to protect them.

On January 11, 1908, Roosevelt proclaimed 806,400 acres of the Grand Canyon as a national monument. With a stroke of his pen, he reserved an area far exceeding the expectations of even the most avid supporters of the Antiquities Act. Roosevelt responded to the threat that a local man planned to build a tramway from the rim to the bottom of the canyon. The rim was dotted with mining claims, which served as bases for private tourist development. At the height of the Progressive Era, when many favored public over private solutions, an icon sacred to turn-of-the-century Americans faced privatization. Roosevelt, armed with the Antiquities Act, stood in the way.

The Grand Canyon proclamation revealed the breadth of this seemingly innocuous legislation. While national parks had to be established by individual acts of Congress, the Antiquities Act allowed the President to circumvent the fundamentally languid nature of congressional deliberations and instantaneously achieve results he believed were in the public interest. By taking full advantage of the Act, Roosevelt set important precedents for his successors. On March 2, 1909, two days before leaving office, he gave his congressional opponents one final twist by reserving more than 630,000 acres of the Olympic Peninsula in Washington State as Mount Olympus National Monument. Congress did later act to incorporate both of these large national monuments in even larger national parks, a pattern that followed with many other monuments over the years.

Roosevelt's expansive, precedent-setting application of a vague law helped make it the most effective conservation tool ever enacted by Congress. National monuments became the category of choice in numerous situations: when a threat to public land loomed large; when Congress refused to act or opposed a conservation measure; when land clearly would be valuable to the nation in the future but little reason to reserve it existed in the present. With the Antiquities Act, a President had tremendous discretion. Congress could not hold the chief executive hostage in conservation matters, could not force a compromise on an unwilling President, and could not prevent a President from implementing an agenda on public land (except by withholding funds).

The Antiquities Act embodied all things Progressive. It centralized power in the hands of a responsible few to act in the public interest. It represented a shared vision of American society—the name "national monument" clearly reflected a vision of the progressive nation. And it relied on experts to make determinations that had once been made by laymen. If the law and those who enacted and implemented it seemed arrogant, it was because they reflected the wholehearted confidence of the time: they knew best and they only sought the best for all.

The Antiquities Act became the initial legal authority for the majority of park areas established before 1933. The monuments proclaimed by Presidents under it included large natural areas, prehistoric ruins, geologic features, historic sites, and other features of general interest. The flexibility built into the law remained an asset: as accepted ideas about what constituted important parts of America's cultural and natural heritage changed, the Antiquities Act remained a malleable tool to fulfill new objectives.

Even after its application declined in the 1940s as a result of controversial uses, the Antiquities Act remained the best way to quickly reserve threatened public lands. In 1978, faced with the collapse of negotiations seeking to determine which Alaskan lands would be included in federal protective systems and a firm deadline after which the process would have to begin again, President Jimmy Carter resorted to the

Antiquities Act. He used it to proclaim 15 new national monuments and make substantial additions to two others. In 1980, Carter signed the Alaskan National Interest Lands Conservation Act, which converted most of these monuments to national parks and preserves. Comprising more than 47 million acres, these additions to the national park system more than doubled its size. Two of the new Alaska monuments were assigned to the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and were converted to national wildlife refuges.

Despite its custody of the public domain, the Department of the Interior was not initially responsible for all national monuments. Some, including Grand Canyon and Mount Olympus, were proclaimed on lands previously reserved as national forests and assigned to the Department of Agriculture. Others were proclaimed on military reservations administered by the War Department. Most of these monuments remained under those departments until 1933, when President Franklin D. Roosevelt transferred them by executive order to Interior's National Park Service. A few were transferred earlier; Grand Canyon came to Interior in 1919 when it became a national park, for example.

Since 1933 the Interior Department has overseen virtually all national monuments. Today it has 74 areas bearing this designation: 73 administered by the National Park Service, and the newest one—Grand Staircase-Escalante in Utah, proclaimed by President Clinton in 1996—administered by the Bureau of Land Management. Not all of them resulted from presidential proclamations under the Antiquities Act; some were directly established by Congress. But the designation remains closely associated with this powerful conservation tool of the Progressive Era, whose legacy to Interior and the American people has been vast.

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Anthropological Connections

Places defined as national patrimony do not stop being local patrimony. In the National Park Service, mounting anthropological evidence demonstrates the connections that persist between present-day peoples and the resources their ancestors used, manufactured, and valued. Although now incorporated into parks and categorized as sites, structures, objects and landscapes, these "national" resources are also crucial markers of a people's own ethnic history and identity.

Even the meanings local people assign to ostensibly identical resources can reflect diversity. The resources at Cane River Creole National Historical Park in Louisiana, for example, offer special opportunities to explore relationships between plantation systems and people in different cultural and political niches. Two plantations are included there, one with a complex of farm outbuildings and the worker quarters that were occupied by enslaved black people from about the mid-1800s until abolition, and then by black laborers until the mid-1900s. The other has a "Big House" and the Quarters that black former enslaved laborers and sharecroppers occupied. Ethnographic interviewing of the white French-creole heirs of each plantation highlighted their strong sense of ethnic history, culture, lineage, and the pride they invested in the Big Houses and economically viable enterprises. Former laborers and sharecroppers emphasized pride in their hard work in the fields or behind the Big Houses and in their kitchens. There was conviction about their own contributions to the plantations' economic successes. They associated specific families with cabins in the Quarters, and stressed the neighborly cooperation and celebrations that enriched their lives and created a community. Thus, systematic ethnographic attention to local groups and differences among them indicates that seemingly identical cultural resources, despite fixed boundaries and objective measures, are valued in different ways by different traditional users. Indeed, identifying diverse perspectives wherever Native Americans, African Americans, and others are associated with park resources has guided the applied ethnography program since its start in 1981.

Quarters at Cane River Creole National Historical Park. Photo by the author.

Muriel "Miki" Crespi
Chief Ethnographer, NPS

Francis P. McManamon and Kathleen D. Browning

Department of the Interior's Archeology Program

On July 9, 1927, Order No. 229 of the Department of the Interior (DOI) announced that

> Mr. Jesse L. Nusbaum, Archaeologist of the National Park Service and Superintendent of Mesa Verde National Park...has been designated as Archaeologist for the Department of the Interior, and those bureaus handling archaeological matters will refer them to Mr. Nusbaum for his recommendation.[1]

With this order, a formal role of oversight and review of archeological matters began departmentwide and the National Park Service (NPS) was delegated the task of carrying it out.

Familiarity with both the NPS and archeological issues of the southwest made Nusbaum an ideal appointee for the Department Archeologist position. Twenty years earlier, he had begun his archeological career assisting Edgar Hewett and Alfred Kidder in archeological fieldwork and photography at Mesa Verde. In 1909, Nusbaum became an employee of the School of American Archeology in Santa Fe, New Mexico.

Nusbaum's two decades of archeological work gave him a deep and wide understanding of the issues and concerns of fellow archeologists. By the late 1920s, he had overseen or worked on projects in Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Colorado, and New Mexico. He had been hired as superintendent of Mesa Verde National Park by Stephen Mather, first director of the NPS, in 1921.[2]

Nusbaum's appointment was not DOI's first involvement in archeological matters. In 1889, Congress authorized the President to remove from settlement or sale the public lands that included the ancient earthen structures at Casa Grande, near Florence, Arizona. This was the first instance of the national government reserving an area primarily of historic value for public preservation and protection.[3]

With these congressional and executive actions, the DOI began its official stewardship of archeological resources. Of course, millions of archeological sites existed on DOI public lands, and the Department had been an unacknowledged steward of these and many other kinds of resources since its creation in 1849. Clear and broadly recognized archeological responsibilities latter came to DOI with the passage of the Antiquities Act in 1906, the establishment of Mesa Verde National Park in the same year, and subsequent establishment of a series of national monuments with archeological significance.

Antiquities Act implementation focused DOI's archeological attention in two areas. The law required the Secretary to review and, if warranted, approve applications to conduct archeological investigations on DOI lands. The law and its 1907 regulations required that permit applicants meet standards of ability, education and training, and institutional support. Appropriately, the first application for an Antiquities Act permit seems to have come from Edgar L. Hewett on behalf of the Archaeological Institute of America (AIA), a professional organization instrumental in lobbying for the passage of the Act (see Townsend article, p. 5). Hewett requested permission to conduct archeological work on public lands in Utah.

The Act also authorized the President to establish "historic landmarks, historic and prehistoric structures, and other objects of historic or scientific interest" as national monuments. Theodore Roosevelt, who signed the Act, immediately began to establish national monuments for their archeological significance. Their preservation and protection then became an added archeological responsibility of the DOI.

By the mid-1920s, the amount of archeological activity on DOI lands grew and heightened Antiquities Act responsibilities regarding permit applications and the looting of archeological sites. The Secretary of the Interior received complaints that the protection of archeological sites, anticipated by passage of the Antiquities Act, had not materialized. In 1923, a committee of the American Anthropological Association (AAA) investigated this problem and reported that

> extensive collections of antiquities have been illegally obtained from pre-historic ruins on the public domain.... [The] exposed and unprotected condition [of the ruins] is a constant invitation to passerbys to excavate for chance curios whenever the opportunity admits.... It goes without saying that all data connected with objects of antiquity recovered during illegal operations is wholly ignored by the commercial or amateur collector.... If the traders do not themselves engage in promiscuous digging they encourage the Indians to do so through purchase of unbroken specimens collected.[4]

These AAA committee complaints and their request for a DOI official to oversee implementation of the Act may have led the Secretary to appoint Nusbaum to this departmental role. In his first Annual Report, Nusbaum described his Department Archeologist responsibilities as rendering

> advisory service to all branches of the department, as well as to the scientific and educational institutions contemplating or engaged in archaeological and like investigations under the jurisdiction of the department.... This office is also concerned with working out the means and methods for the better protection of the countless thousands of archaeological sites scattered over the lands of the department...; the preservation from unlawful excavation and gathering of objects of antiquity thereon; the orderly progression of the work in the field under secretarial permit; the publication of the information so gained, as well as the broader aspects of this service with which scientific and educational institutions are so thoroughly in accord.[5]

After two years of overseeing DOI archeological activity and a decade as superintendent, Nusbaum took a leave of absence from the latter position to undertake another challenge in Santa Fe, New Mexico. He became the first director of a new archeological facility, the Laboratory of Anthropology, financially supported by philanthropist John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Although Nusbaum's archeological tasks and DOI responsibilities remained the same, his leave of absence as superintendent resulted in a title change on March 16, 1931, to "consulting archaeologist."[6] Thus, the current title of "Departmental Consulting Archeologist" has its roots in the multiple jobs and tasks of the first archeologist to hold the position.

Nusbaum remained actively involved in the Antiquities Act permit process while in Santa Fe. As the annual number of DOI approved permits grew to more than 30 per year, he collaborated with the Secretaries of Agriculture, War, and the Smithsonian Institution to create "a tentative draft of a form of permit...with the recommendation that it is adopted and used by all Departments concerned."[7] A systematic process promised easier review of DOI-approved archeological activities, including final reporting, and closer regulation of applicants' professionalism.

Nusbaum provided professional leadership in efforts to decrease the looting of American antiquities as an unabated antiquities market and increased motor access to formerly isolated archeological sites created additional challenges. He encouraged DOI employees and contractors to report suspicious activities and vulnerable archeological sites. NPS staff provided "informative ranger guidance" and hosted "informal campfire talks" to make park visitors aware of the looting problem and the legal protection afforded archeological sites. Public museum displays were designed to increase public awareness of scientific excavation. Copies of the Antiquities Act were posted at the boundaries of federal land. Nusbaum also publicized the looting problem in newspapers.[8]

Nusbaum resigned from the Laboratory of Anthropology and returned to Mesa Verde in 1935. He continued as superintendent and Departmental Consulting Archeologist (DCA) until the late 1940s when he left the park for a full-time NPS position in Santa Fe. There he continued as DCA, served the general function of "senior archeologist," and played a key role in the expansion of public archeology during the 1950s. Using his network of personal contacts, Nusbaum persuaded officials of the Navajo Tribe and the El Paso Natural Gas Co. to include archeological investigations during a pipeline construction project. This effort initiated the inclusion of archeological investigations in other public projects across the Southwest.[9] Nusbaum retired from the NPS at the age of 71 in 1957, but continued to do independent archeological consulting for many years. He died in 1975.

Nusbaum's departmental efforts were focused in the Southwest. During the 1930s, however, the NPS developed additional departmental and national archeological activities through New Deal public employment programs.[10] These included excavations and surveys. The NPS national role in archeology also grew out of the broader historical mandate for the NPS authorized by the Historic Sites Act of 1935 (see Townsend article, p. 5).

After World War II, government planners in the Corps of Engineers and the Bureau of Reclamation turned their attention to constructing a national system of flood control dams and reservoirs in the Missouri River drainage and other large rivers. The construction and the impoundment of large bodies of water would substantially affect archeological sites throughout the nation. Concerned individuals and organizations took steps to have government agencies take archeology into account as part of this large development program.[11] The NPS began to devote some of its archeological expertise to administering this interagency cooperation, and initiated the Inter-agency Archeological Salvage program, later known as the Interagency Archeological Services (IAS) program.

For the next 25 years, the NPS provided archeological expertise to other federal agencies, initially as part of "salvage archeology" associated with reservoir construction and ultimately for federal highway, pipeline, and other development programs. With the passage and implementation of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, other federal departments and agencies began to develop internal archeological programs. Within the DOI, these include the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Bureau of Land Management, the Bureau of Reclamation, the Fish and Wildlife Service, and Minerals Management Service. Hundreds of DOI archeologists now care for archeological resources on DOI lands and assist other public agencies with their archeological programs.

Today, the Departmental Consulting Archeologist function is still carried out by the National Park Service. As in the past, the DCA and related archeological assistance activities continue to evolve. Such efforts are summarized by the National Strategy for Federal Archeology.[12] Through cooperative interagency actions, funding incentives, and technical assistance, they are focused on:

- improving archeological public education and outreach programs,
- promoting superior archeological research and encouraging *in situ* preservation of sites,
- working with law enforcement personnel and educators to reduce archeological looting and illegal trafficking,
- improving the care and use of archeological collections, and
- providing a national system for archeological information exchange.

Notes

1 Department of the Interior, *Order No. 229, Designating Mr. Jesse L. Nusbaum as Archaeologist for the Department of the Interior*, copy on file. Archeology and Ethnography Program, National Park Service.

2 National Park Service, *Jesse L. Nusbaum Papers Inventory* (Harpers Ferry, WV: National Park Service History Collection, Harpers Ferry Center Library, 1987).

3 R. Lee, *The Antiquities Act of 1906* (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1970), 13-14. See articles by Townsend, p. 5, and Douglas, p. 24, in this issue.

4 N. M. Judd, A.V. Kidder, and E. Morris, "Report on Illegal Excavations in Southwestern Ruins," *American Anthropologist* 26:3 (1924): 428-432.

5 J. L. Nusbaum, *Annual Report of Jesse L. Nusbaum Department Archaeologist and Superintendent of Mesa Verde National Park* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1929), 1.

6 J. L. Nusbaum, *Annual Report of the Department Consulting Archaeologist and Superintendent of Mesa Verde National Park* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931).

7 K. Browning, *Implementing the Antiquities Act: A Survey of Archeological Permits, 1906-1935* (Washington, DC: Archeology and Ethnography Program Study, No. 4., National Park Service, 1999), Table 3; Nusbaum, J. L., *Annual Report of the Department Consulting Archaeologist and Superintendent of Mesa Verde National Park* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932).

8 "Move to End Vandalism on Public Domain: Interior Department Seeks to Guard Archaeological Relics by Education," *Christian Science Monitor* December 2, 1929; "Federal Action Sought to Stop Vandalism in Prehistoric Ruins," *United States Daily* December 4, 1931.

9 C. R. McGimsey III, "Headwaters: How the Postwar Boom Boosted Archeology," *Common Ground* 3:2/3 (1998):16-21.

10 E. A. Lyon, *A New Deal for American Archaeology* (Tuscaloosa, AL and London: University of Alabama Press, 1996).

11 J. O. Brew, editor, "Symposium on River Basin Archaeology," *American Antiquity* 12:4 (1947): 209-225; F. Johnson, "The Inter-agency Archaeology Salvage Program in the United States," *Archaeology*, Spring 1951: 25-40.

12 D. Haas, *The Secretary of the Interior's Report to Congress on Federal Archeology: FY 1996-1997* (Washington, DC: National Park Service, 1999).

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Ronald C. Wilson

Interior's Museum Collections—
Your Heritage

The Department of the Interior's museum collections trace their origins to events before the Department was formed. The Land Ordinance of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 provided for the survey and settlement of the lands that the original 13 colonies ceded to the federal government after the War of Independence. The United States acquired other lands from Spain, France, and other countries and tribes. Congress established the General Land Office in the Department of the Treasury in 1812. As the 19th century progressed, federal land management priorities shifted from disposition and settlement of these federal lands to preservation of resource values. With exploration came discovery of minerals, fossils, and Native American artifacts. With increased focus of resources, biological surveys generated science collections, and the first national parks and wildlife refuges were created. During the 20th century, increases in science activity and in historic and archeological preservation laws triggered unprecedented growth in the resources collected from lands managed by Department of the Interior bureaus.

Thus, managing museum collections in the Department is an awe-inspiring responsibility that traces both the history of the country and the evolution of the Department. Offering abundant opportunity, yet constrained by staff and budget limitations, museum collections also reflect changing attitudes toward resource management over time. Cornerstones of success are based on accountability for, access to, and use of the collections. Accountability establishes protection and monitoring that make access possible. Access to museum collections (in both federal facilities and non-federal partner institutions) provides tools for managers, scientists, interpreters, and the public to further the Department's core mission. This mission is to protect and provide access to our nation's cultural and natural heritage and honor our trust responsibilities to tribes.

Many people are surprised to learn that Interior has museums. The latest count in 1998 places the total size of our collections at 70 million museum objects and 41 million archival holdings.

Why does the Department have so many? The simple answer is that it manages more land than any other federal agency, and that land contains abundant evidence of the nation's history and prehistory. Land management sometimes requires that objects be collected from their original locations to prevent their loss to construction, thieves, erosion, or over-visitation. These objects then become museum collections—fossils, biological specimens, archeological artifacts, and other cultural resources including art, ethnographic, and historic objects made by users of the land during the historic period. The national strategy for federal archeology re-confirms the stewardship of America's archeological heritage as a well-established policy and function of the federal government. Interagency cooperation and partnerships are fundamental to this mission. Museum collection stewardship and partnerships are essential elements of responsible land management.

Within the Department, there are dozens of full-service museums, hundreds of visitor centers with museum exhibits, and a few repositories dedicated to conservation and research of collections. The Department does not have a museum program like the Smithsonian Institution, yet it is responsible for nearly half as many cultural artifacts, historic documents, and natural science specimens. The Smithsonian concentrates its portion of the collected national heritage (reported at 141 million objects and 134 million archival holdings) in nearly 20 major museums on or near the National Mall in Washington, DC. Our approach is different.

The Department's portion of the collected national heritage is available to the public at nearly 400 visitor contact locations on lands managed by Interior bureaus and offices throughout the country. There are also partnerships with non-federal institutions (493 at last count) to

house, research, and exhibit collections near their points of origin on Interior lands. These partner institutions are among our greatest strengths in managing collections.

This approach is based on the belief that the meaning of objects is enhanced by keeping them at or near their points of origin: the derringer used to assassinate Abraham Lincoln at Ford's Theatre in Washington, DC; Anasazi archeological collections at the Anasazi Heritage Center in Dolores, Colorado, or at Chaco Culture National Historical Park, New Mexico; the cargo of the 19th-century river boat *Bertrand* that sank in the Missouri River at DeSoto National Wildlife Refuge in Missouri Valley, Iowa; fossil dinosaurs on Interior lands at Dinosaur National Monument, and other fossils from Interior lands at the Denver Museum of Natural History or the New Mexico Museum of Natural History; regional Native American arts and crafts at museums operated by the Indian Arts and Crafts Board in Anadarko, Oklahoma, Rapid City, South Dakota, and Browning, Montana. Context is important in understanding history, archeology, ecosystems, and geology. Bureau officers try to keep museum collections in contexts that make them available to inform resource management decisions, enhance research, and interpret sites and concepts to the visiting public.

"Guardians of the past, stewards for the future" has been selected as the slogan for the Department's 150th year. Managing museum collections responsibly brings this slogan to life.

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Department of the Interior Museum Property Distribution Among Disciplines, FY 1998 (Objects PLUS other measures)

Disciplines	Bureau Facilities	Other Institutions	Discipline Totals
Archeology	36071002 1 cu. ft.	23069251 3959 cu.ft. 391 boxes	59140253 3960 cu.ft. 391 boxes
Art	38461 1 cu. ft.	527	38988 1 cu. ft.
Ethnography	93343	7220	100563
History	3294277	80443 50 cu.ft.	3374369 55 cu.ft.
Documents	39790676 155 boxes	1428837	41219552 155 boxes
Botany	951541	80443	1031984
Zoology	374537	29504 100 cu. ft.	404041 100 cu. ft.
Paleontology	954984	3093173	4048157
Geology	47187 22 lin. ft.	1367	48554 22 lin. ft.
Environmental Samples	10087	1257	11344
Department Totals	81626095 7 cu. ft. 155 boxes 22 lin.ft.	27791671 4120 cu.ft. 391 boxes	109417766 4126 cu. ft. 546 boxes 22 lin.ft

John G. Douglas

Historic Preservation on the Public Domain

The Bureau of Land Management

A shared take-into-account compliance standard makes the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (NHPA) and the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (NEPA) closely comparable. Weak predictors of outcome, both are powerful compellers of orderly, open, federal decisionmaking.

In 1974, the Bureau of Land Management's (BLM) managers were suddenly obliged to implement both NEPA and NHPA, without the necessary staff to help, after the Council on Environmental Quality and the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation within a short period published compliance procedures, respectively 40 CFR Part 1500 (August 1, 1973) and 36 CFR Part 800 (January 25, 1974).

Not only were the Ford administration and the Congress ordering agencies to answer these unprecedented environmental protection requirements, at the same time they were urging energy development with all possible dispatch in response to the 1973-1974 "Arab oil embargo." The BLM, overseer of federal oil reserves, was sharply jolted by this collision of environmental law and energy policy. As partial response, the BLM began early in 1974 to hire historic preservation professionals. The BLM administers unoccupied public lands in western states and Alaska, lands with few standing historic structures, so nearly all of these new BLM specialists were archeologists. It was a bit of a shock all the way around; neither we archeologists nor the BLM will ever be quite the same again.

BLM's Parent Agency—General Land Office

In 1812—after the original states had relinquished their western land reserves to create a revenue base for the cash-strapped central government—the rectangular land survey had commenced under the Land Ordinance of 1785 to identify and describe lands so they could be sold, the Louisiana Purchase had vastly enlarged federal land holdings, and the frontier had begun expanding rapidly westward—the BLM's parent agency, the General Land Office (GLO), was created in the Department of the Treasury and set on a course of disposing of the national lands. Upon the Department of the Interior's founding in 1849, the GLO came to Interior as its most important operating bureau.[1]

The GLO was responsible for the care of the public lands until they left government control, but activities beyond the service of disposal were very limited. After all, management was scarcely needed if one assumed the land would shortly pass into private ownership. However, with creation of "the National Park" (Yellowstone) in 1872,[2] the Casa Grande archeological reserve in 1889, forest reserves in 1891, and wildlife refuges in 1903, the retention value and long-term protection needs of certain public lands was recognized as a public-interest counterpoint to the prevailing disposal philosophy.

During Theodore Roosevelt's conservation-minded presidency, the Commissioner of the GLO, W.A. Richards (1903-1907), following the lead of his predecessor Binger Hermann, became the administration's champion for insulating significant public lands from disposal or inappropriate use. As he stated in his annual report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1904:

> This Office has repeatedly drawn attention to the need for action on the part of Congress in respect to making provision for the proper care of those portions of the public lands which, for their scenic beauty, natural wonders or curiosities, ancient ruins or relics, or other objects of scientific of historic interest . . . it is desirable to protect and utilize in the interest of the public. . . .
>
> It is clearly the duty of the Government to protect these objects from appropriation under the various public land laws, and also to preserve them from spoliation and injury of all kinds. Upon this point there appears to be no room for doubt. [3]

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William Alford Richards

William Alford Richards was born in southwestern Wisconsin in 1849. As a young man he trained as a surveyor and civil engineer. He surveyed the Wyoming Territory's southern and western boundaries in the mid-1870s, then held county and city surveyor and engineer positions in California and Colorado. He was elected Commissioner of Johnson County, Wyoming, in 1886. President Benjamin Harrison appointed him as the Territory's U.S. Surveyor-General in 1890, and he was elected fourth governor of Wyoming in 1895. In 1899 he was admitted to practice in the Wyoming Supreme Court. President William McKinley appointed him Assistant Commissioner of the General Land Office, and he moved up to Commissioner under President Roosevelt (1903-1907).

Photo courtesy Wyoming Division of Cultural Resources

As GLO Commissioner, Richards expressed himself strongly about protecting from loss the special places on the public domain that should be set apart in the interest of science and for the benefit of the public at large. He was a persistent proponent of "parks" legislation that would allow the President at his discretion to designate and reserve such special places, but he was not satisfied to wait for the legislative permission to take action. In correspondence with archeologist Edgar L. Hewett, who had provided him with information and recommendations on some of the most outstanding archeological ruins in the Southwest, Richards wrote:

> The need for adequate legislation on this subject has ... been called to the attention of congress by this department for a number of years, but as yet without avail.
>
> In the meantime, every effort has been made to extend such protection to the various regions known to contain objects of interest as is possible without the requested legislation. Certain of the tracts have been protected from appropriation by being temporarily withdrawn from disposal under the public land laws. This action has been taken in the following cases:
>
> In New Mexico: The Pajarito Cliff Dwellers' region, the Jemez Cliff Dwellers' region, the tract known as El Moro, or Inscription Rock.
>
> In Colorado: The Mesa Verde Cliff Dwellers' region.
>
> In Arizona: The tract containing the petrified forest; the greater portion of that part of the district designated by you as the Rio Verde district which lies outside of the Black Mesa Forest Reserve. This withdrawn area contains, among other ruins, the one known as Montezuma Castle.
>
> ... As regards the regions which you mention as containing ruins of unknown importance, which fall within the boundaries of tracts that have been permanently set aside as [GLO] forest reserves, or just outside the boundaries thereof, you are advised that they are ... under the patrol of the forest force patrolling the reserves, and that instructions have ... been issued to the forest officers in respect to having a general care of the ruins. Further and more specific instructions will now be given in regard to their care, based upon the information furnished by you."[1]

Hewett also quoted subsequent orders from Richards to GLO forest supervisors and special agents in the Southwest, including the text of notices to be posted. Hewett praised the Interior strategy, stating: "It establishes the broad and liberal policy that any competent scientist, who desires to place the material secured in a reputable public museum, will be authorized by the department of the interior to examine ruins, but that no person will be permitted to enter and excavate them for the purpose of acquiring specimens for traffic or private gain, and that willful destruction of valuable historic and prehistoric landmarks must cease."[2]

Foreshadows of the Antiquities Act of 1906 are evident in Hewett's words. Richards and his associates on their own authority had taken actions effectively anticipating the law, arguably serving as a significant example for the Antiquities bill's proponents and an effective goad to the Congress.

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1 October 5, 1904, letter from W.A. Richards to Edgar L. Hewett, quoted in Edgar L. Hewett, "Government Supervision of Historic and Prehistoric Ruins," *Science*, Vol. XX, No. 517 (1904 N.S.): 723.

2 Ibid, 727.

Continued from p. 24

Richards argued that separate congressional actions for individual cases was unsatisfactorily slow, and pressed for general legislation "empowering the President to set apart, as national parks, all tracts of public land which, for any of the reasons above stated, it is desirable to protect." [4] As support, Richards appended to his report a detailed "Memorandum Concerning the Historic and Prehistoric Ruins of Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Utah and Their Preservation," by Prof. Edgar L. Hewett.

In an article published in *Science* in 1904, Hewett quoted excerpts from Richards' correspondence with him, illustrating the GLO Commissioner's deep concern at congressional inaction and describing his own actions to fill the gap (see p. 25). Were it not for Richards' foresight and commitment, we would most likely be archeologically much poorer today.

The BLM, 1946 to Present

The BLM came into being when the GLO and the recently established Grazing Service (Taylor Grazing Act of 1934) were consolidated under President Harry S Truman's Reorganization Plan No. 3 of 1946. Congressional disagreement with the Grazing Service's grazing fee structure very nearly sank the Reorganization Plan.[5]

The new bureau's purposes were ambiguous and changeable for the next 30 years, reflecting the inherent tension between land-disposal and resource-management purposes. Given the fledgling bureau's predominant lands, minerals, and grazing orientations, the Department deemed some functions, which required specialized expertise, best left to others. For example, the Antiquities Act of 1906, as a misdemeanor-level enforcement tool and permitting authority, was administered in other Department offices until the 1970s and 1980s.[6] First the Undersecretary (until 1968) and then the National Park Service (until 1984) issued Antiquities Act permits for the whole Department.[7] Unsurprisingly, BLM managers tended to think of jobs assigned to others as not their responsibility.

The Classification and Multiple Use Act of 1964 began to reconcile the BLM's split purposes, but still the BLM was subject to thousands of land laws of which many were in direct conflict.

Finally, passage of the Federal Land Policy and Management Act in 1976, BLM's "organic act," removed most (but not all) of the legal conflict and gave the BLM clear congressional direction, much of it responsive to recommendations of the Public Land Law Review Commission (1970). Under FLPMA, the public lands are to be retained in public ownership and managed for multiple use and sustained yield in a manner that will protect scientific, historical, and archeological values, among other things, based on a continuing inventory of all public lands and resources and a comprehensive land-use planning process.

The BLM's original comprehensive land-use planning process, the model endorsed in FLPMA, was designed in 1968 and put to its most ambitious test in the California Desert, a 16-million-acre hotbed of competing land use pressures. The Desert Planning Staff's lead archeologist was Rick Hanks, who joined the staff in 1972. In 1976, Hanks moved to Washington as BLM's first cultural resource program leader. His strong planning credentials led Hanks to shape the burgeoning program around an explicit management-planning framework.

By 1978 the BLM had staffed its field offices adequately to keep up with the demands of complying with Section 106 of NHPA, reaching a count of approximately 120 cultural resource specialists (still nearly all archeologists). The number has held in the 120-150 vicinity ever since. A BLM staff this size is able to meet Section 106 compliance, but little else.

The legal requirements, however, did not stop with NHPA. For example, the American Indian Religious Freedom Act of 1978, the Archaeological Resources Protection Act of 1979 (ARPA), the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990, and the NHPA Amendments of 1992 require agencies to coordinate and consult regarding Native American religious and cultural concerns. The BLM's manuals hold managers responsible for affirmative coordination and consultation. Generally, though, it is the cultural resource staff who do the coordination work. Just under half the State Offices have full-time Native American coordinators, but in the others and in virtually all field offices, Native American coordination duties are assigned part-time to the cultural resource specialist. They are big duties for someone already fully assigned.

Beyond Section 106 compliance and required Native American consultation, comprehensive cultural resource inventory, evaluation, and nomination to the National Register of

Office	BLM State Office & Headquarters Cultural Resource Program Leaders 1972-1999 (in order of service)
Alaska	Gary Matlock, Ray Leicht, Beth Walton, Bob King
Arizona	John Douglas, Pat Giorgi, Gary Stumpf
California	Bill Olsen, Russ Kaldenberg
Colorado	Gardiner Dalley, Gary Matlock, Dan Martin, Rick Athearn, Rich Fike
Eastern States	Kevin Kilcullen, Kathy Miller, Richard Brook, Sarah Bridges, Jan Townsend
Idaho	Rich Harrison, Dan Hutchison, Linda Clark
Nevada	Bob York, Richard Hanes,Linda Armentrout, Pat Barker
New Mexico	Leo Flynn, Chris Kincaid, Stephen Fosberg
Oregon	Don Grayson, Jack Witherspoon, Richard Hanes
Utah	Rich Fike, Craig Harmon, Shelley Smith, Garth Portillo
Wyoming	Hal Jensen, Dan Hutchison, Ray Leicht, Jerry Clark, Tim Nowak
Headquarters	Rick Hanks, John Douglas

Office	Other BLM Lead Archeologists and Historians Variously, 1965-82
Monticello District, UT	Jack Rudy
Desert Planning Staff	Rick Hanks, Eric Ritter
Denver Service Center	Lloyd Pierson, Roberto Costales, Don Rickey, Rick Athearn

Historic Places, and planning, protection, enhancement, public education, and related activities expected under FLPMA, ARPA, Section 110 of NHPA, the BLM's manuals, and other administration policy have been very difficult to achieve with a fully occupied, compliance-sized staff. Necessarily, with some 8-10,000 Section 106 repetitions per year, the staff—advised by consultants to land use applicants and State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) and Council staffs—has become expert and efficient at completing the technical compliance steps. Still, other important jobs receive divided attention.

It helps that the Council's governmentwide Section 106 regulations, 36 CFR Part 800, have changed little in design. The original 1974 regulations were changed for the better in 1979, then the 1979 regulations lost some of their structural elegance in 1986 revisions due to political jiggering. The most recent revision (1999) maintains the familiar construction, adding welcome new emphasis on agencies' options.

The Council's regulations are sometimes criticized for their very stability. The BLM is not among those critics, but we have urged the Council to consider dual compliance tracks, one for the dozen land-managing agencies[8] and the other for the 50-some agencies that do not have a continuing management responsibility and a continuing presence on the land. While not exactly accepting this idea, the Council did suggest, in its October 1994 rule proposal, letting agencies develop counterpart procedures (not regulations) to guide Section 106 compliance in agency- specific ways. With Council concurrence, the BLM in 1995 proceeded to explore a fully customized compliance track supported by internal manuals.

After several steps, in March 1997 the BLM Director, the Council Chairman, and the president of the National Conference of SHPOs signed a national programmatic agreement (PA) that makes BLM much more self-sufficient for complying with Section 106. The PA depends on State Director-SHPO protocols to set day-to-day working relations, emphasizes the responsible manager's role, and focuses more on long-term resource management goals than on compliance per se (which in practice means undertaking management more than resource management).

Each manager, to operate under the PA, must have the appropriate kinds of historic preservation expertise on staff or readily available. Staff and managers are mutually responsible for the adequacy of staff work and the suitability of decisions.

A Preservation Board links the Headquarters-based Preservation Officer and the State Office cultural resource program leaders, who are known for this purpose as Deputy Preservation Officers, plus four field office managers and two field office cultural resource specialists. The Board works as a team and functions as a staff body to advise the Director and State Directors on historic preservation matters, to ensure national coordination, and to provide oversight for field operations. In a way, the Preservation Board internalizes some Council functions within the BLM. The Council now seldom needs to be directly involved in day-to-day BLM preservation business.

Protocols aim to recapture the complementary, collaborative roles of BLM and SHPO working in concert to achieve the best preservation outcomes from a statewide perspective, as was more common when Section 106 and 36

CFR 800 were new. Interstate communication among Preservation Board members and the Western SHPOs promises to improve preservation throughout the West. We stress oral communication over written communication. Excellent preservation is a higher goal than excellent paperwork.

The payoffs of this tailored approach are to make compliance more responsive and predictable for the sake of land use applicants, and more responsible and prudent for the sake of the resource base, science, and the public interest. Emphasis on results, seen broadly, instead of on process, seen narrowly, changes the emphasis on products—less on formulaic validation of obedience, and more on useful analytical tools to assist in weighing resources' relative worth. For example, the BLM is cooperating with other agencies and SHPOs to promote automation of SHPO records, synthesis of data, and development of thematic resource evaluations as steps in this direction. These will not only help to satisfy Section 110 of NHPA, but will also give Section 106 decision making a well-reasoned contextual foundation.

Most of all, the new emphasis on working smarter is meant to bring about relief from time-consuming but unproductive detail work, freeing BLM and the SHPO staffs to use the saved time to collaborate, pooling knowledge and insights to make the little decisions contribute to a larger outcome—preserving the cultural resources that really matter to science and the public—by design instead of by chance.

Ninety-five years ago, W.A. Richards was making crucial, long-term cultural resource management decisions based on the advice of well-qualified, well-informed professionals. He was a pioneer whose vision we can gratefully appreciate today. The BLM's managers and their staffs are now gaining the tools to emulate, in finer resolution, Richards' thoughtful approach to preserving and protecting some of the nation's most important historical assets. We are pleased to be catching up.

Notes

1 Public Land Law Review Commission, *One Third of the Nation's Land: A Report to the President and to the Congress* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1970), 281.

2 Thomas Donaldson, *The Public Domain: Its History, With Statistics, With References to the National Domain, Colonization, Acquirement of Territory, the Survey, Administration and Several Methods of Sale and Disposition of the Public Domain of the United States, With Sketch of Legislative History of the Land States and Territories, and References to the Land System of the Colonies, and Also That of Several Foreign Governments* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1884), 1294.

3 W.A. Richards, *Annual Report of the Commissioner of the General Land Office to the Secretary of the Interior for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1904* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1904), 59.

4 Ibid, 60.

5 Ibid.

6 The BLM had neither law enforcement authority nor officers until the Federal Land Policy and Management Act (FLPMA; 43 U.S.C. 1701 et seq.) was enacted in 1976.

7 In 1984, 43 CFR Part 7 implemented the Archaeological Resources Protection Act, and Secretarial Order 3104 (September 28, 1984) delegated permit authority to Assistant Secretaries, whence it flowed to bureau heads.

8 In descending order by relative size, BLM, Forest Service, Fish and Wildlife Service, National Park Service, Air Force, Navy, Army, Reclamation, Corps of Engineers, Indian Affairs, Energy, and Tennessee Valley Authority administer one million acres or more.

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General Patton's Camp

The World War II-era Desert Training Center, formally known as the Desert Training Center/ California-Arizona Maneuver Area, is a remarkable and unique historic military landscape. Established in 1942 by General George Patton to prepare soldiers for the invasion of North Africa, it encompasses about 18,000 square miles of the Arizona and California desert. It was used by the Army to prepare more than one million soldiers in the rigors of desert warfare.

Due to its hasty construction, short duration, and the Army's desire to train men in spartan conditions, the Center contained few permanent structures and was quite ephemeral as compared to other military bases. Nevertheless, numerous remnants of this massive training facility exist today including divisional camps, maneuver areas, small camps marked with rock-lined walkways and unit symbols, tank tracks, airfields, bivouacs, supply depots, railroad sidings, hospitals, and combat ranges. This historic military landscape presents a complex and multifaceted resource that challenges conventional approaches to management and interpretation of cultural resources.

Field PX at Camp Coxcomb, one of several divisional camps in the Desert Training Center, 1943. Photo courtesy National Archives and Records Administration, Washington DC.

Presently, the majority of the Center is managed by the California Desert District of the Bureau of Land Management. Several initiatives are underway to preserve and interpret this extensive landscape. The BLM and Statistical Research, Inc., are cooperating to study, document, preserve, and interpret historic resources associated with the complex, including a recently completed historic context study to evaluate resources and plan for their management. The BLM is actively pursuing other partnerships with institutions to conduct research and promote cultural tourism opportunities.

Example of rock-lined walkways remaining at the site of Camp Granite, Riverside County, California. Photo courtesy Statistical Research Inc.

Altar remaining at the site of Camp Iron Mountain, San Bernardino County, CA. Photo courtesy Statistical Research Inc.

Rolla Queen
District Archaeologist
California Desert District, BLM

Matt Bischoff
Historian
Statistical Research, Inc.
Tucson, Arizona

Velino Herrera

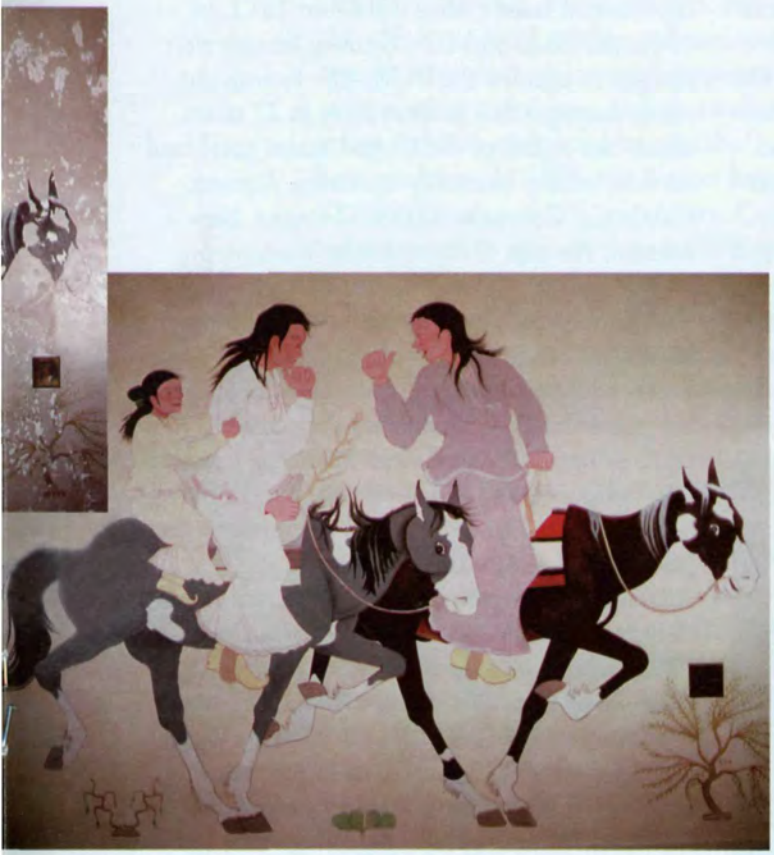
Woodrow Crumbo

Indian murals in the Interior building's south penthouse. Photos by David Olin, conservator.

Allan Houser, before and after conservation.

Gerald Nailor

Velino Herrera



Velino Herrera

Stephanie M. Damadio

Linking the Past to the Future
Museum Collections and the Bureau of Land Management

Museum collections for which the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) has stewardship responsibilities consist principally of archeological, paleontological, and historic materials. The BLM is steward of one of the largest, most varied, and scientifically significant body of archeological, historical, and paleontological resources. These resources include districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that are significant to the natural history, paleontology, history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture of America. The Bureau manages 3,500 miles of national historic trails including the Iditarod (Alaska), Juan Bautista De Anza, (California), Nez Perce, Lewis and Clark, (Oregon), Mormon Pioneer, Pony Express, and El Camino Real. Substantial collections are associated with these resources.

The Bureau has responsibility for the largest number of museum collections held in non-federal facilities of any Interior bureau. These collections range in size from one object to curatorial lots (i.e., fragments of an object or objects) and consist of varied materials such as pottery, metal, leather, textiles, wood, stone, bone, glass, paper, photographs and negatives. Bureau collections and their associated records are maintained in professional facilities, both internally and externally, whose mission is to preserve, document, research, interpret, and exhibit the material.

The Anasazi Heritage Center preserves in its state-of-the-art facility fine examples of prehistoric Native American material culture, such as this McElmo Black-on-white canteen.

History

Most of the public lands for which BLM serves as steward were once part of the 1.8 billion acres of "public domain" acquired by the nation between 1781 and 1867. Congress established the General Land Office (GLO) in 1812. In 1946, the GLO and U.S. Grazing Service were merged to become the BLM. The Bureau currently manages 264 million acres in 27 states, about one eighth of the United States' total land surface, located primarily in Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Nevada, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

Since 1812, individuals and institutions have been conducting scientific expeditions, excavating sites and collecting millions of objects on the public lands. Collections were placed in hundreds of non-federal facilities including universities, museums, and historical societies. In the mid-1980s, the BLM obtained authority to issue permits under the Antiquities Act and Archaeological Resources Protection Act for surveys and research on its lands. Subsequently, three bureau collections facilities were opened: the Billings Curation Center (BCC), Billings, Montana, in 1984; the Anasazi Heritage Center (AHC), Dolores, Colorado, in 1988; and, the National Historic Oregon Trail Interpretive Center (OTC), Flagstaff Hill, Oregon, in 1992. In 1990, new departmental accountability and management standards were enacted, requiring BLM to begin identifying collections removed from the public lands since the establishment of the GLO.

Storage of whole vessels at the Anasazi Heritage Center.

Facilities

Internal BLM museum collections facilities:

Anasazi Heritage Center. The AHC is the Bureau's only collection facility and museum. It focuses on the Anasazi and other cultures of the Four Corners region. The museum and its surrounding grounds have permanent exhibits, archeological sites, special exhibits, and events. It also offers traveling exhibits, educational resources for teachers, research opportunities for archeological collections, and an excellent interactive web site <www.co.blm.gov/ahc/hmepge.htm>. In 1998, the Center hosted 32,004 visitors and 276 researchers. Collections are estimated to contain three million specimens (principally archeological with some historic and paleontological materials). The BLM is justifiably proud of this cutting-edge facility.

Billings Curation Center. Smaller than the AHC, the BCC was established to curate artifacts collected from public lands in Montana and the Dakotas. The primary objective of BCC is to ensure collections (which represent nearly 12,000 years of Northern Plains history) serve researchers, BLM, and other agency personnel. The center has no gallery spaces and no exhibits, but hosted 20 researchers in 1998. Collections are estimated to contain 500,000 specimens, principally archeological with some historic materials. The center's value as an important research and management tool is immeasurable.

Oregon Trail Center. The OTC features exhibits, living history areas, theater, outdoor amphitheater, interpretive trails, and a picnic area. It provides unique vistas of the historic ruts of the Oregon Trail and majestic scenery. Its goal is to interpret the story of the Oregon Trail and its impact on western American history. Artifacts, along with artwork, text, videos, sound effects, and dioramas, present well-rounded, fact-filled exhibits and programs. In 1998, the Center hosted 101,372 visitors and maintains an excellent interactive web site <www.or.blm.gov/NHOTIC>. Collections are estimated to contain 1,520 specimens, principally archeological, historical and natural history materials. The OTC provides an engaging and educational experience for its many visitors.

External facilities hold numerous collections from BLM-managed lands. Since new collections are being continuously excavated from the public lands, the Bureau is unable to quantify precisely the scope of these collections but is certain that they are increasing in number every year. The Bureau estimates that collections are maintained in approximately 189 professional facilities: 123 holding archeological materials, 84 holding paleontological materials, 6 holding historical materials, 4 holding biological materials, 2 holding ethnological materials, and 1 holding artwork, in 34 states and Canada. These facilities hold millions of museum objects and are located from Alaska to Florida and from large institutions, such as the Smithsonian, to small local historical societies. Individual collections range from thousands of objects to only a few specimens.

Personnel and Funding Resources

Personnel principally devoted to museum collections issues in BLM currently number five individuals: the national curator, the curator and a museum specialist at AHC, the curator at BCC, and the historian/curator at OTC. These individuals also deal with many other issues. The state leads for BLM's 12 Cultural Heritage Programs and the three regional paleontologists normally spend little time on collections-related issues, and field office personnel generally do not have responsibilities for managing collections. Cultural Resource Use Permits are issued from state offices and excavated collections are transferred to museums by permittees. Limited BLM funding is allocated for costs strictly associated with museum collections. Funding for work at the state level is sent to each BLM state director and allocated according to state priorities. The remaining funding covers the work of the national curator and support for projects administered by the Washington Office.

Issues Affecting BLM Collections

The following issues affect the BLM's ability to manage its museum collections.

Resources. Limited funding and staff severely restrict the Bureau's ability to develop meaningful, proactive efforts with facilities.

Changes in Land Status. Dealing with museum collections in BLM is complicated by significant changes in land status as land is regularly acquired and conveyed by the Bureau. Stewardship obligations for collections are tied to land ownership at the time the collection is excavated or removed from the land. For example, in 1997 alone, 69,338 acres were received by BLM and 85,618 acres left BLM ownership.

Nature of Cataloging. All museum facilities have cataloging backlogs. The number of items or lots cataloged do not represent the total number present in the facility. Also, in cataloging, no distinction on land ownership is usually made because the information does not contribute to the research, educational, or exhibit potential of the collection. This makes identification of collections originating from BLM lands extremely difficult.

Role of Federal Agencies in Museum Collections Management. Since 1990, there has been increased attention by federal agencies on collections issues resulting from the passage of the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act. This Act requires agencies to inventory and repatriate certain materials. Many collections have been curated in private museums which have not received funding or other support from agencies now conducting inventories. Only substantial funding will allow museums to be responsive to federal requests for information and program objectives.

The Anasazi Heritage Center's Discovery Area encourages learning through interaction.

Control and Access. The majority of BLM collections are stored in non-federal facilities over which BLM has limited control and access and to which the Bureau provides little or no funding. The BLM does not have the personnel, expertise, or resources to care professionally for these collections.

Funding Agreements. As there is no guarantee of funding from year to year, BLM operates under cooperative agreements, memoranda of understanding, or assistance agreements. Costs associated with collections generated by projects on public land are paid for by permittees who pass costs onto clients for collections generated in response to Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act.

The Past Coming to Life

Despite obstacles, BLM has a number of accomplishments which bring the past to life and are a tribute to creative professional staff, dedicated volunteers, and interns. Some of these accomplishments include: technical assistance provided to other museums, agencies and departments; creation of illustrated brochures and posters on collections, exhibits, and facilities; publication of popular, scientific, and technical reports; production of outstanding exhibits; creation and distribution of educational programs, teacher curriculum guides, teacher activities, and sponsorship of teacher workshops; receipt of grants; development of interactive websites; and sponsorship of internships and volunteer programs.

Without question, BLM faces a unique challenge. The Bureau will continue to enhance its limited resources through proactive, creative low-cost or no-cost solutions and partnerships with state and federal agencies, universities, and museums. Bureau efforts can also benefit from interns and volunteers. This pragmatic approach recognizes that progress will probably be accomplished within the constraints of existing or lower funding, requiring a great deal of creativity and time to accomplish.

The people of the United States have an abiding thirst for knowledge about the past and treasure their heritage. By bringing the past to life, we are linking the past to the future.

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Photos courtesy Anasazi Heritage Center.

Donald R. Sutherland

Bureau of Indian Affairs

The Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) evolved from the British colonial system of regional Indian superintendents, whose main function was to regulate trade with Indian tribes. The Continental Congress continued this system through its Ordinance of 1786. In 1793, the United States began assigning Indian agents to particular tribes or areas. These superintendents and agents, plus other personnel within the United States War Department assigned to deal with Indian matters, reported to the Secretary of War. They were not, however, organized as a unit until 1824, when Secretary of War John C. Calhoun administratively established an Office of Indian Affairs. It was not until 1834 that Congress formally created the Indian Department within the War Department. In 1849, Congress transferred the Indian Department, which became the BIA, to the newly created Department of the Interior.

Today, the BIA administers the trust responsibility of the United States on approximately 54 million acres of lands that the government holds in trust for the beneficial use of the Indian owners of those lands. The BIA conducts this responsibility through 12 Area (regional) Offices, each of which has a number of Indian Agencies under its jurisdiction. These agencies each serve a single Indian tribe or small group of tribes. The Deputy Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Area Directors, and Agency Superintendents constitute the line of authority within this system.

As with much else in the BIA, cultural resources management has been subject to varying concepts about Indian lands and how these lands should be treated. In the Antiquities Act of 1906, the United States Congress made no distinction between Indian lands and other lands owned or controlled by the United States. Accordingly, the role of the BIA at the inception of statutorily imposed cultural resource management was minimal.

All duties relating to the Antiquities Act in the BIA were delegated, through BIA-specific implementing regulations, to Agency Superintendents. These duties were limited, within their jurisdictions, to examining permits issued under the Act and the work done under those permits; confiscating, reporting on, and obtaining instructions on the disposition of antiquities that may have been illegally obtained; posting copies of the Antiquities Act and its interdepartmental implementing regulations in conspicuous places "at all agency offices where the need is justified," and warning notes "on the reservations and at or near the ruins or other articles to be protected"; "immediately" notifying all licensed traders "that failure to cease traffic in antiquities will result in a revocation of their license"; and inquiring and reporting "from time to time ... as to the existence, on or near their reservations, of ... archeological sites, historic or prehistoric ruins ... and other objects of antiquity."

Permits under the Antiquities Act were issued for the BIA by the Secretary of the Interior. In fact, it was not until 1974 that permission from the Indian landowner or the concurrence of BIA officials was even required in order to obtain a permit. That same year, the Secretary delegated the authority to issue Antiquities Act permits for the BIA to the Departmental Consulting Archeologist (see article by McManamon and Browning, p. 19). The BIA did not establish full authority to issue these permits on its own until 1996, when it completed regulatory changes merging the process for issuing Antiquities Act permits with that for issuing permits under the Archaeological Resources Protection Act of 1979 (ARPA).

In ARPA, Indian lands are distinguished from public lands, but in most respects are treated like public lands for the purposes of the Act. The role of the BIA in issuing permits under ARPA and in enforcing violations of the Act on Indian lands is similar to that of other agencies, such as the Bureau of Land Management, that manage public lands. How Indian lands are defined in ARPA, however, is not the same as

they are defined or viewed in other cultural resources statutes.

Indian lands under ARPA are lands that are held in trust by the United States or that are subject to a restriction against alienation imposed by the United States (restricted fee land). Most of the land the federal government holds in trust is in the lower 48 states. Most of the restricted fee land is in Alaska. Even though ARPA treats Indian trust lands much the same as public lands, the government does not exercise the same rights of ownership over these as it does over its public lands.

The best way to understand what holding land in trust means is to view rights to land as a bundle of straws, each one representing a single right. These may include water rights, hunting or fishing rights, the right to erect structures, or the right to transfer title or to lease. The government does not hold all of the straws, just those for transferring title, leasing, or exploiting certain natural resources. Even in these cases, the government may not treat Indian land as if it were its own land. The government's role as trustee is to approve realty actions or business arrangements with non-tribal parties that are initiated by an Indian landowner, and this approval is not discretionary. It is based on a determination that the transaction is to the benefit of the Indian landowner.

Interior building south penthouse mural by Velino Herrera. Photo by David Olin, conservator.

In the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act (NAGPRA), Indian lands, called "tribal lands," include all of the lands within the exterior boundary of an Indian reservation. As with ARPA, these lands are treated in many ways like public lands for the purposes of the Act. Not all of the lands within the exterior boundary of a reservation, however, are Indian trust lands.

Because of various historical circumstances—most particularly the General Allotment Act of 1887, which for several decades before the process was halted allotted Indian reservations in severalty to individual Indians—much land within the exterior boundaries of reservations passed into private ownership. On some reservations, more than half of the land within the exterior boundary is no longer Indian-owned. Other historical circumstances have created an opposite situation, such as in Oklahoma, where there are Indian trust lands that are *not* within the exterior boundary of any reservation.

The fact that the Indian lands to which ARPA and NAGPRA apply do not coincide primarily affects permitting and enforcement under these statutes. ARPA permits are required on Indian trust lands, whether they are inside or outside the exterior boundary of an Indian reservation, but are not required for private lands within this boundary. NAGPRA applies to all lands that are inside, but not necessarily to Indian trust lands that are outside, the exterior boundary of a reservation. For ARPA, permitting is further complicated by the fact that Indian trust lands may be tribally owned or be allotments owned by Indian individuals or groups of individuals. The procedures for issuing and administering permits for these two types of trust lands also differ.

The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (NHPA), like NAGPRA, also includes all lands within the exterior boundary of an Indian reservation in its definition of "tribal lands." Unlike NAGPRA or ARPA, however, these lands are treated more like private lands than public lands for purposes of the Act. For example, on public lands, the land-managing agency must comply with Section 106 of NHPA for activities that take place on those lands. That is not the case with Indian lands. Neither Indian landowners nor the BIA have to comply with Section 106 for activities Indian landowners undertake on their own lands, unless there is an associated federal action, such as a land transfer or lease approval. BIA compliance with Section 106 is triggered by its own federal actions, not by the fact that something is happening on Indian lands.

That Indian lands behave more like private lands than public lands under NHPA has led to some misunderstanding among the public as to how the BIA manages cultural resources on Indian lands. We might say that, except for sites

and items covered by ARPA and NAGPRA, the BIA does not manage cultural resources on Indian lands. Remember, holding Indian land in trust does not entitle the federal government to treat that land as if it were its own land. The government does not hold the "straw" for cultural properties. Cultural properties belong to the Indian landowner.

The BIA has no legal authority to prevent an action by an Indian landowner that would alter the character of a historic property. For example, the BIA may not nominate properties on Indian lands to the National Register of Historic Places or conduct surveys on those lands without the consent of the Indian landowners.

Although the legal framework is complex, the BIA has never had a very large professional staff to manage its cultural resources responsibilities. The BIA actually had little to do with cultural resource management on Indian lands from 1906 until the NHPA was enacted. Faced with new responsibilities under NHPA in the early 1970s, two BIA Area Offices in the Southwest entered into contractual agreements with an office established in the Southwest Region of the National Park Service (NPS) to assist federal agencies with Section 106 compliance and with permitting under the Antiquities Act. The tie between the BIA and the NPS became closer in 1974 with the passage of the Archeological and Historic Preservation Act and when the Departmental Consulting Archeologist began issuing Antiquities Act permits for the BIA. In 1975, the Albuquerque Area Office of the BIA decided it could handle Section 106 compliance more economically on its own than by contract, so Bill Allan was hired as BIA's first cultural resource management professional. A year later, the Navajo Area Office added an archeologist, Barry Holt. The NPS continued offering support to other BIA offices until 1984. The BIA's Washington, DC, office established a formal program in 1980 headed by an environmental protection specialist, George Farris. In 1984, the BIA decided that it would start its own cultural resource management program nationwide. The program currently employs fewer than 25 cultural resource professionals.

Because of the trends over the past two decades toward self-determination in the relationship of Indian tribes to the United States, it is unlikely that the BIA's professional cultural resources staff will become much larger. Under the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975, Indian tribes may enter into contracts with the BIA through which they may assume responsibility for all or part of a federal program for Indians. Since cultural resources compliance is a part of many federal programs for Indians, most cultural resources activities, such as data gathering or making professional recommendations to federal agency officials, are eligible for "638" contracts. When this happens, the professional positions associated with these activities may be taken over by a tribe as a part of the contract. So far, this has only happened with the Navajo Nation and the San Carlos Apache Tribe where BIA professional staff served a single tribe. Where staff serve multiple tribes, the BIA has not yet found a practical way to contract out portions of their time.

The trend toward Indian self-determination is also reflected in the recent amendments to NHPA, which allow Tribal Historic Preservation Officers to assume the responsibilities of State Historic Preservation Officers. This has encouraged a number of tribes to hire their own professional cultural resources staff, which could eventually reduce the need for such staff in the BIA. To date, however, only about 16 of 557 federally-recognized Indian tribes have assumed historic preservation responsibilities. Since many of these other tribes may never wish to follow suit, the BIA's professional staff is more likely to shrink or remain static over time than it is to disappear.

The passage of NAGPRA has been a watershed event in the history of cultural resource management from the perspective of the BIA. The Act has stimulated Indian people to become more assertive in taking charge of their own cultural resources through such means as tribal preservation offices and cultural resources ordinances. It has also stimulated the public to become concerned about the protection of Indian burial sites and, through this, more alert to threats to archeological sites in general. And, finally, it has stimulated cultural resources professionals, especially archeologists, not only to reassess their relationship to Indian people, but rethink their entire field of study.

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Curtis E. Larsen

Cultural Resources and the U.S. Geological Survey

The U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) is not normally associated with cultural resource management (CRM) within the Department of the Interior. USGS is a research bureau. It does not regulate or manage federal lands and rarely initiates "undertakings" that disrupt land surfaces and affect historic or archeological sites. Although USGS plays a limited role in the federal CRM program, it is responsive to federal and state laws on historic preservation and complies with the CRM and permitting programs of the federal agencies with which it works. There are many other ways, however, in which the USGS contributes to cultural, historic, and archeological studies.

The USGS has a longstanding interest in and appreciation of the history, prehistory, and ethnology of the United States. The post-Civil War mapping and assessment of the American West by geographical and geological surveys led by Ferdinand Hayden, Clarence King, John Powell, and George Wheeler led to the formation of the USGS in 1879. These predecessor surveys collected ethnographic, as well as geologic records. The Anasazi ruins at Mesa Verde and Chaco Canyon, for example, were brought to public attention by Hayden's and Wheeler's surveys, largely through the artwork and photography of William Henry Jackson. The Bureau of Ethnology established in 1879 within the Smithsonian Institution received the ethnological collections from Powell's survey and he devoted much of his life to anthropology.[1] A wealth of information on Native American culture was gathered and preserved at that time as the direct result of the dedication of Powell and his colleagues.

Apart from this late-19th-century awareness, USGS has gone on to help provide an earth science context to historical, ethnographic, and archeological studies. Until 1996 when the National Biological Service was incorporated within the USGS as a new program division, the agency emphasized mapping and studies of geology and water resources. These main topic areas—land and water as portrayed on detailed maps—form frameworks for organizing modern cultural resource studies.

Spatial Organization

Human culture is not static, but it is difficult to study language, myth, or trade systems without a comparative framework. For culture history, archeology, and cultural geography, maps form a clear and concise aid for describing patterned group behavior on scales from village to region. Archeologists, historians, and CRM programs throughout the country use up-to-date USGS maps for plotting sites. The USGS mapping program, combining the cadastral land survey system and a Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) grid, has linked the U.S. by detailed topographic, geologic, and geographic maps. The history of mapping in the USGS over the past 119 years is itself a cultural resource. Historic maps prepared by the USGS trace the development of Euro-American culture in the United States and its interactions (both positive and negative) with Native American, as well as former colonial French and Spanish, land use systems.

Modern advances in mapping, especially remote sensing, mark the course for the future study of human geography, past and present. When the first civilian remotely sensed imagery became available in 1972 with the launch of ERST-1 (Earth Resource Technology Satellite), USGS managed the effort at its EROS Data Center in Sioux Falls, SD. Satellite imagery, when first available, seemed to provide only the most general impression of landscape analysis, due to its large scale and poor definition. After 25 years of development and the end of the cold war, remotely sensed images are now highly detailed and give definition and identification of soil types, vegetation, and landforms. These attributes help define present and past settlement systems and give clues for the location of prehistoric archeological sites. Computers have brought

John Wesley Powell

John Wesley Powell held a key role in the history of the USGS and Interior because of his broad view of scientific research and its value for more rational decisions on public land use. He and his team mapped and assessed lands and resources in the Southwest during the early 1870s, using Interior funds supplied to the Smithsonian Institution, until they were transferred to Interior in 1874. The Powell Survey was discontinued by the funding legislation that established the USGS in 1879.

Photo by J. K. Hillers, 1872. U.S. Geological Survey files.

Powell's principal scientific interest passed from geology to anthropology during this period. He was fascinated by Native American culture, as well as by the ruins and artifacts he encountered. During months spent among the tribes of the Southwest, Powell attempted to catalog vocabularies and dialects. To allow him to continue these studies, the Secretary of the Smithsonian supported a section of Interior's 1879 appropriations to establish a Bureau of Ethnology (led by Powell) in the Smithsonian's National Museum, provided that Powell's ethnological collections came to the museum as well. Powell became the second director of the USGS in 1881, and merged some of the staff of the Bureau into the USGS. When he resigned as USGS Director in 1894, he continued as Chief of the Bureau until his death in 1902.

about major changes in mapping at USGS as they have to most other parts of society. The ability to store data and print large files on command now makes it possible to create digital overlays on base maps of specific data sets such as roads, rivers, vegetation, soils, and archeological sites. These data, combined as a geographic information system (GIS), lead to an understanding of man and the land that cultural resource managers could only speculate about a few decades ago. USGS cartographers continue to develop new techniques with private industry and will continue to offer state-of-the-art technologies for cultural, historical, and archeological research.

Land and Water

Land, water resources, and climate are the backdrop to human settlement. As such they are important variables in understanding cultural development and change through time. So long as researchers rely on material culture within a landscape to help reconstruct the human past, land, water and climate will be critical components for understanding ecosystems. Research into geomorphology, Quaternary geology, surface and groundwater flow, and climate change are major areas of inquiry at the USGS. Apart from 19th-century links to anthropology mentioned above, geomorphological studies, especially those carried out before the formal advent of CRM in the 1970s, have utilized archeological dating to better understand episodic changes in rivers and other environmental systems. The study of earth processes goes hand-in-hand with archeological investigation.

In some ways, archeological geology gained a foundation within the USGS. Former USGS geomorphologist and Harvard professor Kirk Bryan,[2] who trained in the Southwest and at Chaco Canyon, mentored subsequent USGS geomorphologists like Luna Leopold, M. Gordon ("Reds") Wolman, Stanley Schumm, and John T. Hack. Their research involved earth processes in a human time framework, which has been instrumental in building bridges between geologists and archeologists. Their classical studies continue to influence current research directions.

Quaternary geology, processual geomorphology, and climate change have gained importance in the past 25 years. USGS scientists are among those most active in these fields. Outstanding research in support of archeology ranges from palynological reconstructions of climate change using packrat-midden deposits in the Southwest[3] to archeological site and feature identification using geophysical methods.[4] USGS research that relies on archeology includes archeological dating of seismic events in the Wabash River valley of Indiana,[5] determination of sedimentation rates and fluvial events in Piedmont North Carolina,[6] and the fluvial geomorphology of Anasazi sites in southwestern Colorado.[7]

Although archeological and historical research is not a formal part of the USGS mission, it is often an integral part of the earth science research we perform. As societies seek a better understanding of human impact upon the earth, cultural resources will play an increasingly

important role in interpreting past environmental change and understanding future impacts of dynamic earth systems.

Flora and Fauna

In 1996 the National Biological Service was discontinued as a separate bureau of Interior and was transferred to the USGS. This action added important new research skills and direction to the agency. One of its key roles within the USGS is to service the biological research needs of Interior bureaus on virtually all aspects of living resources. At the same time, zooarcheology and archeobotany are growing subdisciplines in both academic and government archeology programs. The biological research potential for floral and faunal studies in connection with federal CRM programs is great and is available for use.

Summary

USGS is not a cultural resource manager. Historic and archeological research is a sidebar to the USGS mission, and land and resource management is left to other bureaus. USGS, however, is a scientific resource for cultural resource managers throughout the federal government. Maps, biological resources, geology, and water are each aspects of cultural resource research and viable CRM programs. It is sometimes difficult to define a cultural resource role for the USGS because its research is so broad in scope and official USGS publications rarely pertain to history and archeology. Yet, when primary sources of data are used for studying the human past, USGS research is often one of the first resources chosen.

Web Sites for Interior Agencies and Programs

Bureau of Indian Affairs	<www.doi.gov/bureau-indian-affairs.html>
Bureau of Land Management	<www.blm.gov>
Bureau of Reclamation	<www.usbr.gov/cultural>
Department of the Interior	<www.doi.gov>
Department of the Interior Museum	<www.doi.gov/museum>
Fish and Wildlife Service	<www.refuges.fws.gov/NWRSfiles/Cultural Resources/Cultural Resources.html>
Minerals Management Service	<www.mms.gov>
National Park Service—*Links to the Past*	<www.cr.nps.gov>
Office of Surface Mining	<www.osmre.gov/osm.htm>
U.S. Geological Survey	<www.usgs.gov>

Also see the articles in this issue of *CRM* for many relevant web sites.

Notes

1 M.C. Rabbitt, *Minerals, Lands, and Geology for the Common Defence and General Welfare, Vol. 1, Before 1879* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1979); M.C. Rabbitt, *Minerals, Lands, and Geology for the Common Defence and General Welfare, Vol. 2, 1879-1904* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1989).

2 K. Bryan, *The Geology of Chaco Canyon, New Mexico, in Relation to the Life and Remains of the Prehistoric Peoples of Pueblo Bonito* (Washington, DC: Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections, 1954), 122.

3 J.L. Betancourt and T.R. Van Devende, "Holocene Vegetation in Chaco Canyon, New Mexico," *Science* 21 (1981): 656-658.

4 J.C. Wynn, "Applications of High-Resolution Geophysical Methods to Archeology," in N.P. Lasca and J. Donahue, eds., *Archeological Geology of North America* (Boulder, CO: Geological Society of America Centennial Special Volume 4, 1990), 603-617.

5 P.J. Munson, S.F. Obermeier, C.A. Munson, and E.R. Hajic, "Liquefaction Evidence for Holocene and Latest Pleistocene Seismicity in the Southern Halves of Indiana and Illinois: A Preliminary Interpretation," *Seismological Research Letters* 68 (1997):521-53.

6 C.E. Larsen and J. Schuldenrein, "Depositional History of an Archeologically Dated Flood Plain, Haw River, North Carolina," in N.P. Lasca and J. Donahue, eds., *Archeological Geology of North America* (Boulder, CO: Geological Society of America Centennial Special Volume 4, 1990), 161-181.

7 E.R. Force and W.K. Howell, *Holocene Depositional History and Anasazi Occupation in McElmo Canyon, Southwestern Colorado* (Tucson: Arizona State Museum Archeological Series 188, University of Arizona, 1997).

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Barry Mackintosh

The National Park Service and Cultural Resources

Most Department of the Interior bureaus and offices have some concern for cultural resources. But this concern is integral to the basic purpose of only one: the National Park Service. In the 1916 law creating it, the NPS was charged by Congress "to conserve the scenery and the natural *and historic objects* and the wild life [emphasis added]" in the places entrusted to it and to provide for their enjoyment "in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for the enjoyment of future generations."

Notwithstanding this mandate in its organic act, the NPS saw cultural resource management as a distinctly minor responsibility in its early years. Only one of the 14 national parks and seven of the 21 national monuments it inherited in 1916 had been set aside for their cultural resources, most of which were prehistoric archeological remains. Compared to the great natural parks like Yellowstone and Yosemite—the "crown jewels" of the national park system—these areas were generally smaller, less spectacular, and less likely to attract the public use and support eagerly sought by the fledgling bureau. The first NPS management policy statement, a 1918 letter from Secretary of the Interior Franklin K. Lane to Director Stephen T. Mather, completely ignored cultural resources in its prescriptions for park preservation, development, and use and for park system expansion.

After tenures as NPS assistant director and superintendent of Yellowstone National Park, Horace M. Albright served as the second director of the National Park Service from 1929 to 1933. Under his expansive leadership, historical parks and preservation became major NPS concerns. Photo by George Grant, National Park Service, 1933.

The author of this letter, Assistant Director Horace M. Albright, nevertheless had a personal interest in American history and soon perceived historic preservation as a major growth opportunity for the Park Service and system. The great natural parks were concentrated in the West, far from the major eastern population centers with their heavy representation in Congress. To substantially increase its public and political support and protect itself from being swallowed up by its larger and better-established rival bureau, the Agriculture Department's Forest Service, the NPS needed to broaden and diversify its domain. The East, lacking spectacular scenery already in federal ownership, presented few opportunities for new natural parks. What it had in abundance were sites, monuments, and memorials commemorating the nation's past.

Beginning in 1890, Congress had charged the War Department with acquiring and preserving some of America's most important battlefields. Under the 1906 Antiquities Act, presidents proclaimed as national monuments several historic forts and other features on military reservations, as well as significant natural and cultural features in national forests. Albright coveted these battlefield parks and national monuments that remained under War and Agriculture department jurisdictions. After succeeding Mather as director in 1929 he supported legislation to transfer the War Department's areas—nearly all in the East—to the NPS.

The transfer bill stalled, but in 1930 and 1933 Albright got Congress to establish three new historical parks in Virginia and New Jersey under NPS administration: George Washington Birthplace National Monument, where the War Department had erected and maintained a stone

shaft; Colonial National Monument, including Yorktown Battlefield; and Morristown National Historical Park, site of Continental Army encampments during the Revolution. Having launched his bureau into military history, Albright was well positioned in April 1933 to lobby the newly inaugurated President Franklin D. Roosevelt for the War Department's parks. A recent law authorizing the president to reorganize the executive branch enabled Roosevelt to give the NPS not only the War Department's areas, but the national monuments held by the Forest Service and the National Capital Parks, previously managed by a separate office. Forty-four of the 52 areas transferred that August were predominantly historical or cultural. Such areas would henceforth compose a majority of NPS holdings; of the 378 present park system units, 224 are predominantly cultural. Thanks largely to cultural resources, what had initially been a western park service and system became truly national.

The Service's involvement with cultural resources before the 1930s stemmed largely from the Antiquities Act. All its archeological and historical national monuments had resulted from presidential proclamations under that act. The act also outlawed disturbance and removal of cultural features on federal lands without permission from the responsible government department. Interior and the NPS initially relied on the Smithsonian Institution for archeological expertise, but in 1921 Jesse L. Nusbaum, a professional archeologist, became superintendent of Mesa Verde National Park. In 1927 Secretary Hubert Work ordered all Interior bureaus to consult Nusbaum on Antiquities Act permit requests and other archeological matters. Thus began the Departmental Consulting Archeologist position, held ever since by the senior NPS archeologist (see McManamon and Browning article, p. 19).

The influx of historic sites in the early 1930s required the NPS to employ historians, historical architects, and museum professionals to research, interpret, and care for their structures and objects. President Roosevelt's receptivity to Depression relief programs prompted one of the architects, Charles E. Petersen, to propose hiring unemployed architects, photographers, and draftsmen to record significant examples of American architecture. The Historic American Buildings Survey, an NPS program launched in 1933 and still functioning in partnership with the American Institute of Architects and the Library of Congress, extends far beyond park boundaries. The NPS began a companion program for historic engineering works, the Historic American Engineering Record, in 1969.

Interior's 150th anniversary year coincides with the 125th anniversary year of the Au Sable Light Station at Pictured Rocks National Lakeshore, Michigan. The National Park Service began restoring the historic light station in 1988. Work accomplished since then includes restoration of the double keepers' quarters (pictured before and after) and return of the third order Fresnel lens to the tower. The single keeper's quarters is scheduled for restoration this year.

The Au Sable Light Station is one of more than 65 historic light stations on Interior lands. Photos courtesy Pictured Rocks National Lakeshore.

A view of Old Faithful Inn lobby in Yellowstone National Park. Built by the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1903-04, this grand rustic hotel is a prominent example of the nationally significant cultural resources in parks established for their natural values. Photo by Laura Soullière, National Park Service, 1985.

To provide firmer legal authority for the Service's greatly expanded historic preservation activities, Congress enacted the Historic Sites Act in 1935. The Act declared "a national policy to preserve for public use historic sites, buildings and objects of national significance for the inspiration and benefit of the people of the United States." It authorized the NPS to obtain and preserve records of historical and archeological properties; conduct research on them; make a survey to determine national significance; acquire and operate historic properties and contract with others for their preservation and operation; "restore, reconstruct, rehabilitate, preserve, and maintain" nationally significant properties and establish associated museums; place markers at nationally significant properties; and develop an educational program to inform the public about them.

The survey to identify nationally significant properties was seen as a tool for expanding the national park system with areas representing more aspects of American history. Its findings were at first kept confidential to avoid alarming property owners, but it became clear that there were many more nationally significant properties than the NPS could ever acquire. To make them known and encourage their preservation by others, the NPS began referring eligible properties to the Secretary of the Interior for designation as national historic landmarks in 1960. Landmarks whose owners agree to preserve them receive bronze plaques. Secretaries have so far designated some 2,300 landmarks, which are owned by federal, state, and local governments as well as private parties.

In the decades after World War II, national energies previously subdued by the Depression and diverted by the war effort were unleashed on the American landscape. Dams and other river and harbor improvements, urban renewal projects, airports, interstate highways, and other federal undertakings inundated, damaged, and destroyed archeological sites, old buildings and neighborhoods, and other cultural properties. Congress appropriated funds to and through the NPS for archeological survey and salvage work in areas to be affected by dams and other river projects. There was also growing sentiment that cultural resources needed to be identified and considered in project planning.

Congress responded with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. The Act charged the Secretary of the Interior—in practice, the NPS—with expanding and maintaining a National Register of Historic Places. In addition to the nationally significant historical parks and landmarks managed and identified by the NPS, the National Register was to include properties of state and local significance selected and nominated by state historic preservation officers. A 1971 executive order and 1980 amendments to the Act directed federal agencies to identify and nominate all qualified properties under their jurisdictions. For the NPS, this included properties in predominantly natural and recreational parks. The Act's key protective provision, Section 106, requires federal agencies to consider the effects of their planned undertakings on properties in or eligible for the Register and to allow the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation to comment on them. (Congress created the Advisory Council in the Act under NPS auspices but made it an independent agency in 1976.)

The Act also authorized federal grants for state historical surveys and plans and for preservation work on Register properties. The 1971 executive order and 1980 amendments encouraged federal agencies to protect and make appropriate use of their Register properties. And federal tax laws beginning in 1976 provided incentives for the commercial rehabilitation of Register buildings. Charged with overseeing and ensuring the legal and professional adequacy of these various activities, the NPS has developed and issued

a substantial body of preservation standards, guidelines, and technical information for use by state and local governments, other federal agencies, and private parties engaged in identifying, evaluating, registering, documenting, and treating historic properties. Notable among them are *The Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation* (1983) and *The Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Federal Agency Historic Preservation Programs Pursuant to the National Historic Preservation Act* (1998). (See <www.cr.nps.gov/linklaws.htm>.)

Museum objects, not being "places," are ineligible for the National Register unless they are relatively large and stationary or integral components of Register sites or structures. Museum objects and collections nevertheless constitute a cultural resource category of major responsibility for the NPS. Many archeological and historic properties came to the NPS with associated collections, like the tools and furnishings at Grant-Kohrs Ranch National Historic Site in Montana. At other parks the NPS later acquired furnishings for historic structures and objects for museum displays, such as the Fuller firearms collection at Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park in Georgia.

With more than 36 million cultural objects and natural history specimens and more than 35 million archival and manuscript items, the NPS now has one of the largest and most valuable federal museum collections. It includes such treasures as a tent used by George Washington during the Revolution, flags that flew over Fort Sumter at the opening of the Civil War, and the papers of Thomas A. Edison. In addition to caring for this vast and varied array, its curators, conservators, and other museum professionals play important roles in the curatorial activities of Interior and its other bureaus and have made their expertise widely available beyond the Department. In 1936–38, for example, they developed the Interior Department Museum in the Department's new headquarters building. And in recent years they have published the *Conserve O Gram* series containing technical information on collection preservation for both park and outside museum managers.

Ethnographic resources are yet another cultural resource category. All other types of cultural resources—archeological and historic sites, structures, objects, districts, landscapes—may be ethnographic resources, as may intrinsically natural resources. What makes them ethnographic is their special meaning or significance to particular contemporary groups traditionally associated with them. Devils Tower National Monument, for example, is a noted geologic feature but also an ethnographic resource because of its prominence in the origin accounts of Northern Plains Indians. The Atlanta neighborhood occupied by Martin Luther King, Jr., National Historic Site has special significance to the African Americans whose families have lived there for several generations. Employing ethnographers, the NPS has lately made a concerted effort to identify its many ethnographic resources and manage them with sensitivity to their traditional cultural associations.

Most people still associate the NPS primarily with the great natural parks—Yellowstone, Yosemite, Glacier, Grand Canyon, and the like. But there is now much greater awareness that these places also contain important cultural resources, some of national significance in their own right. Outstanding examples of early park architecture and landscape architecture, like Old Faithful Inn at Yellowstone, the Ahwahnee Hotel at Yosemite, Lake McDonald Lodge at Glacier, and Grand Canyon Village at Grand Canyon, have been designated national historic landmarks and are preserved and interpreted accordingly. Cultural resources in parks established primarily for their recreational values, like Cape Hatteras Lighthouse at Cape Hatteras National Seashore and Fort Hancock at Gateway National Recreation Area, have received similar recognition and attention. The Blue Ridge Parkway, begun by the NPS as a Depression relief project, today is considered one of the nation's preeminent designed cultural landscapes.

Initially seen by the NPS as confined to a few of its secondary attractions, cultural resources are now valued as significant components of nearly all national park system areas and are the focus of the Service's most extensive activities beyond the parks. NPS historians could once provoke natural resource professionals and managers with the notion that Yellowstone National Park in toto—the world's first area so designated—is a cultural resource, worthy of national historic landmark status. Few today would disagree.

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Ed Friedman and Brit Allan Storey

CRM at the Bureau of Reclamation

The U.S. Reclamation Service was created within the U.S. Geological Survey in July 1902. The new Reclamation Service—later to become the Bureau of Reclamation—studied potential water development projects in each western state with federal lands with the express purpose of reclaiming the arid and semi-arid West for settlement. Reclamation's first project, the Salt River Project in Arizona, got underway in 1903 and included construction of Roosevelt Dam (designated a national historic landmark in 1963). In addition to such major dams, Reclamation's projects often built hundreds of individual features including smaller diversion dams, flumes, siphons, and small head gates. (More information about Reclamation may be found on the Internet at <www.usbr.gov>.)

After World War II, Reclamation entered into construction projects implementing congressional authorizations like those for the Pick-Sloan Missouri Basin Program, the Colorado River Storage Project, and the Colorado River Basin Project. Congress authorized approximately two-thirds of Reclamation's projects between 1944 and 1968. Among the most famous of these later projects were extensions of the Central Valley Project in California, Glen Canyon Dam, and the Central Arizona Project.

Reclamation's first encounter with professional archeology can be dated to the mid-1940s and the creation of the River Basin Survey. Reclamation's exposure to archeology at that time was limited in nature and duration. For two years, 1946 and 1947, it transferred funds to the National Park Service and Smithsonian Institution to conduct surveys in its proposed project areas. After 1947, its involvement with the River Basin Survey diminished and was restricted to giving the Park Service and the Smithsonian the locations of its proposed construction. The initial work of the survey was carried out under the authority of the Historic Sites Act of 1935.

As these extensive postwar construction projects were getting started, the American public began to develop a sensitivity toward environmental issues. In the arena of historic preservation before World War II, general legislation covering archeological and historic resources was limited to the Antiquities Act of 1906 and the Historic Sites Act of 1935. The newer environmentally oriented legislation included the Reservoir Salvage Act of 1960, which was to provide for the preservation of historical and archeological data that might be lost as the result of dam construction. Soon afterward, the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 established a nationwide program for the preservation and protection of historic properties. These acts placed positive requirements on Reclamation regarding archeological, architectural, historical, and cultural properties affected by its projects, particularly properties that would be included in the National Register of Historic Places.

Other historic preservation mandates followed in the 1970s, including Executive Order 11593, "Protection and Enhancement of the Cultural Environment," in 1971 and the Archeological and Historical Preservation Act of 1974, which expanded federal responsibilities for protection of historic properties in all construction projects. As a result of these new responsibilities, Reclamation's first federal preservation officer, an archeologist, was hired in 1974. The federal preservation officer, while officially on the staff of Reclamation's Commissioner in Washington, DC, was stationed in Denver near Reclamation's seven regions in the West. In 1975 each region hired staff to deal with cultural resource issues, and as the number of issues grew, so did the staff. Today Reclamation's cultural resources staff numbers about 30 and includes prehistoric and historic archeologists, historians, architectural historians, and cultural anthropologists.

Reclamation has responsibilities for protecting cultural resources on the eight million acres under its jurisdiction (approximately four million of which are inundated) and for considering the effect of its actions on cultural resources on non-Reclamation lands. Reclamation constructed more than 180 projects in the arid and semi-arid West (17 western states), and these projects tend

Ward Frederick Weakly

Photo courtesy Bureau of Reclamation.

Dr. Ward Frederick Weakly, Bureau of Reclamation Senior Archaeologist and Federal Preservation Officer from 1974 to 1985, was among the earliest professionals appointed to guide federal bureau compliance after the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966.

In 1974 Reclamation thought its archeologists should focus on its huge new construction project, the Central Arizona Project. As senior archeologist, Dr. Weakly became the center of a small program, which grew as Reclamation management understood its needs. It was apparent by 1976 that the Central Arizona Project required full-time staff in the project area, while the other regions needed staff to deal with the new federal cultural resource management laws, regulations, and programs. When Dr. Weakly died of cancer in September 1985, the Reclamation's CRM staff numbered about 10 people who practiced the high professional standards that Weakly established and Reclamation maintains today.

After Weakly's death, the Colorado Council of Professional Archaeologists established the Ward Weakly Memorial Fund scholarship which honors all of CCPA's deceased members.

to be heavily concentrated in river corridors that were the focus of prehistoric and historic settlement. In the 24 years that Reclamation has had staff archeologists, it has identified more than 15,000 sites.

In the context of today's historic preservation legislation, most of Reclamation's 180 projects are eligible for the National Register of Historic Places at least at the local and regional levels. They are significant in the broad historical patterns of water development, settlement, agriculture, and economic activity in the West. Therefore, Reclamation implements historic preservation law to deal not only with prehistoric and historic sites created by others, but to protect buildings and structures the bureau built to fulfill its historic mission of water development and distribution.

Like other federal land-managing bureaus, Reclamation must carry out its current primary mission (water resources management) and its cultural resources compliance with shrinking budgets while its legislative mandates continue to expand. During the 1990s, the cultural resources program has acquired numerous new or expanded responsibilities from Indian trust assets policy, an executive order to protect and allow access to sacred sites, the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act, 36 CFR Part 79, "Curation of Federally-owned and Administered Archaeological Collections," and Departmental Manual 411, "Managing Museum Property."

A major component of this expansion of duties is acknowledgment that consultation and coordination with Indian tribes, on a government-to-government basis, is an integral part of Reclamation's mandate. No longer can a letter to a tribe be considered to fulfill the government's trust responsibilities. Under NAGPRA Reclamation will be consulting with more than 80 tribes regarding human remains, associated and unassociated funerary objects, sacred objects, and objects of cultural patrimony located in 19 repositories as well as intentional and unintentional discoveries.

Another facet of this expansion of duties is the accountability for museum property under Reclamation's jurisdiction. This effort is motivated by an Interior Inspector General's audit which found that Interior's bureaus did not have control over or exercise responsibility for their collections. As part of its effort to eliminate material weakness for museum property, Reclamation has located collections in more than 80 facilities, with a total number of objects in excess of 4.5 million. Reclamation's museum property collection includes more than 200 pieces of fine art. (For more information relating to the art collection, see Stinger and Ferguson article, p. 48.)

Reclamation is one of the few federal bureaus that is actively participating with the National Park Service as they work to compile a list of all cultural resources reports in their database. The National Archeological Database is a computerized communications network for the archeological and historic preservation community and is a source of information on public archeology. This database was established to meet a congressional directive to improve access to information on archeological activities nationwide. Reclamation's entries number more than 3,500 reports. (Reclamation's contribution to the National Archeological Database Reports module can be found at <www.cast.uark.edu/other/nps/

nadb/nadb_brcl.html>.)

Another aspect of Reclamation's interest in assuring that its CRM activities are efficient and economical is exemplified in its decision to invite other federal agencies to join with it in creating the Federal Preservation Forum in 1989. Reclamation has continued to actively support the Federal Preservation Forum with its goals of improving federal historic preservation programs by promoting constructive dialogue among participants and improving communications and cooperation between field personnel implementing programs and policy-making personnel in head offices. Additionally, Reclamation's staff are active in professional archeology and history organizations and particularly in the Society for American Archaeology's public education initiatives.

A recent initiative was the development of a cultural resources training course for the non-cultural resources professional. This two-day course is taught by Reclamation's contractor, Environmental Training and Consulting International. In 1998 a mini-course was developed that focuses on upper-management information needs. This course was piloted by members of the target audience and will be offered five times a year at field office locations.

In addition to a traditional cultural resources management program, Reclamation has a history program that concentrates on historical studies, oral history, and preserving data about Reclamation's past. The history program also is the focus of activity for Reclamation's centennial celebration forthcoming in 2002. (More information regarding the history program can be found at <www.usbr.gov/history>.)

Reclamation has an outstanding record of implementing federal cultural resource mandates. The work funded and carried out by the bureau has made significant contributions to understanding the prehistoric, as well as the historic settlement of the West. Reclamation is committed to maintaining the leadership role it has established.

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Elephant Butte Dam

When completed in 1916, Elephant Butte Dam was among the largest dams in the world. Its construction, however, was the focal point of much controversy. During the late 1800s, population growth along the borders between the United States and Mexico led to increasing conflicts over the waters of the Rio Grande River. In 1896, Mexico protested a proposed dam on the Rio Grande near Elephant Butte, New Mexico, fearing the dam would reduce the amount of water available to Mexico. The matter was sent to the International Boundary Commission, which advised against the Elephant Butte dam and proposed an agreement between the two nations to provide equal distribution of the river waters. The U.S., having already granted permission for dam construction near Elephant Butte, obtained a decree permanently enjoining its construction.

Congress passed a bill in 1905 authorizing construction of Elephant Butte Dam as part of Reclamation's Rio Grande Project. Mexico protested that the bill did not recognize her rights to fair allocation of the Rio Grande waters. The U.S. responded by claiming absolute territorial sovereignty, although in May 1906 the two nations reached agreement. Under the signed treaty, the U.S. delivers 60,000 acre-feet to Mexico each year via the Rio Grande using water stored behind Elephant Butte Dam.

The 1906 treaty marked a major milestone in international water law and established a doctrine of cooperation among nations that has lasted almost a century. Although controversies surrounding water resources in border regions still exist, the treaty established a solid foundation on which later agreements could stand.

Elephant Butte Dam, Rio Grande Project, New Mexico-Texas. Photo courtesy Reclamation/Denver.

Leslie Stinger and Bobbie Ferguson

Portraits of Reclamation

A portrait allows some portion of the sitter's personality to be revealed. In the moment that an individual views a portrait, some fact, a mood, or some quirk about the person in the portrait becomes apparent. Even if the person remains inscrutable, the observer will learn something about the time in which the work was painted or the feelings of the artist. Through the work of art, the silent subject has the power to communicate.

In 1969, the Bureau of Reclamation sponsored an art program to portray the results of Reclamation's efforts to "reclaim the arid West" through the construction and management of large water projects. The Bureau of Reclamation became the sitter, painted by 40 artists, giving the public numerous interpretations of the organization. As each artist sees the world differently, the paintings provide a multitude of messages and endless possibilities for communication.

Among those commissioned to paint their impression of Reclamation projects were such well-known artists as Norman Rockwell and Richard Diebenkorn. Each artist was given an all-expense paid tour of the project site, including if the artist wished, a helicopter tour of the surrounding area. Much latitude was given to the artists in their choice of what to paint; the only requirement was that the finished piece relate in some way to the mission of the agency and the results of its projects. Reclamation had the opportunity to select one or more pieces of the artist's work for its collection; in some cases no work was selected. Two hundred ten pieces created under the program became Reclamation's art collection.[1] Some 70 pieces were displayed in a 1972 National Gallery exhibit, *The American Artist and Water Reclamation.* Following the exhibit, selected pieces were shown around the country by the Smithsonian Institution Traveling Exhibitions Service.

Why did a federal agency recognized for its engineering capabilities and accomplishments commission art? In the late 1960s the environmental movement was gaining momentum, and members were quite vocal in protesting Reclamation projects that they viewed as detrimental to the natural environment. As the funding for these projects came from Congress, the Bureau was susceptible to the whims of the congressmen and by extension, their constituents. Surely one of Reclamation's motives for hiring artists was to improve its image beyond its traditional clients, the irrigators. The question remains, however, why art instead of, say, community service and educational programs? Although the thoughts behind the decision are unknown today, there are possible answers. These include the permanence of art—a work of art continues to communicate long after both the artist and the patron, in this case Reclamation, are gone. There is also the multiplicity of readings inherent in a work of art. Although one message may dominate, there are many other ways to interpret and understand a painting, which allows dialog to occur. The program organizers may have been aware of the tradition of western landscape painting; commissions such as these would have added another chapter in a recognizable school of painting, adding all sorts of secondary meanings and messages to the artwork. Perhaps the most compelling reason was that government-sponsored art programs seemed to be *en vogue* at the time. One was that of the

Campsite at Dawn, *Dean Fausett.*

Shasta Dam, *B.M. Jackson.*

National Aeronautics and Space Administration which began its Artist Cooperation Program in 1963.

Having decided on an art program, goals were defined. The primary goal, according to John DeWitt, Reclamation's program director, was to employ "the assistance of established creative artists to convey the meaning of its programs to the general public" (1973).[2] How does the collection of paintings represent the Bureau? At least one critic, Allegra Berrian, was positive about the government sponsorship of artists, but she wrote of the art itself, "Excepting the recognizable quality of the heavies in the show, there's little real visual or mental excitement in the work."[3]

Regardless of the critical reaction, the artwork carried messages to the public at large. The messages can be placed in four broad categories, each of which contains many artistic styles. The first category is representational pieces of the projects themselves; the second, landscapes and natural abstractions; the third, paintings that show the benefits of the project, and the last, construction. Each of these four categories shows a different aspect of the Bureau of Reclamation.

The representational pieces, such as Billy Morrow Jackson's painting of Shasta Dam, (left) focus on physical aspects of the projects. These paintings usually depict a dam or other project feature as their main subject. Jackson's depiction of Shasta Dam is pictorially accurate, showing the dam from the vantage point of a spectator approaching the power plant at the base of the dam. In fact, this painting is practically an architectural rendering in its precision. This is the type of art that one would expect to see from an engineering organization. Its main purpose is to describe the physical qualities of the dam, as if the viewer of the painting were actually there, viewing the dam. To an educated eye, this painting may convey a great deal of information about the workings of the project, but to the lay public, it appears as a snapshot rendered in watercolors.

A subtle message is advanced through the landscape paintings. These landscapes, painted in a wide variety of styles, generally portray some natural feature that has been created as a result of a Reclamation project. Alternatively, the painting shows the project in the surrounding landscape. Often the structure is not present in the painting, or if it is, it is rendered inconsequential by its size, treatment and placement in the painting. An example of a landscape painting that does not include the structure is Dean Fausett's painting *Campsite at Dawn* (p. 48). Here, a craggy landform rises majestically from a serene body of water. The clouds are suitably stormy to provide the dramatic background, and the lighting is relatively harsh, creating sharp shadows on the cliff-

Whiskeytown Patterns, *Roland Petersen.*

Builder at Grand Coulee, No. 9, *Anton Refregier.*

face. The tradition of landscape painting in the West began with explorers from the East Coast. The works created by the artists who came with them were of grand, dramatic images of sublime, untouched nature at its finest. Fausett's grand landscape recalls the first western landscape paintings, and the landscape does not look any different. It is as if the artist is claiming that despite the large interventions of the Reclamation, the spirit of the West remains unchanged.

The third category could possibly be considered a subset of landscape painting, but the message is slightly different. Whereas in the landscape paintings it would be easy to ignore or forget Reclamation's role entirely, here, either by title or by the subject matter of the painting, the benefits of the Bureau's projects are explicitly shown. Roland Petersen's intaglio print, *Whiskeytown Patterns* (page 49), shows the patterns that form a landscape of irrigated fields. Irrigation is clearly the main benefit of Reclamation's activities. Once again, there is no evidence of the project itself, only the positive results.

The last category, construction paintings, often glorify the immense effort it took to construct a project, similar to the paintings of the Works Progress Administration in the 1930s. Some pieces focused on the human effort, such as Anton Refregier's pastel drawing, *Builders at Grand Coulee, No. 9* (above). This drawing shows two workers setting rebar in place in preparation for the placing of concrete. A man in a welder's mask holds a flaming torch, while another in a hard hat and overalls, holds the rebar in place. A sense of dynamism is imparted to the piece by the artist's use of stylized swirls and quick strokes. Other artists looked at the machinery and parts that built the projects. These artists who focused on the human and construction aspect of the projects reflect the Social Realist movement, glorifying the mechanical and human feats that went into Reclamation projects.

While Reclamation relinquished direct control over how the artists represented the projects, it carefully selected the artists who participated, thereby influencing the final portrayal of the Bureau. Aside from a few famous names, many of the artists selected had worked previously with the government. Some artists, such as Billy Morrow Jackson and Mitchell Jamieson, had participated in the NASA art program. The majority of the artists had worked with the WPA or had taken commissions to paint Post Office murals; a few were artist correspondents during World War II. Thus, most of the artists that participated in Reclamation's art program were tried and tested. More important is that the art was created and that these paintings present a multitude of views of Reclamation's projects. To fulfill the original goal of the program to convey the meaning of Reclamation's program of water resource development to the general public, every opportunity should be taken to make the art available to the public now and in the future.

Notes

1 For a list of the artists who participated in this program, their biographies, and their art work, visit the Bureau of Reclamation web site and look under fine arts programs: <www.usbr.gov/art>.

2 John DeWitt, "Reclamation and the Creative Artist," *Reclamation Era,* 59:2 (1974): 16.

3 Allegra Berrian, "U.S. Show at 2 Colleges," *The Spokesman Review,* September 15, 1974, 12-15.

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Kevin Kilcullen

The Fish and Wildlife Service
Protecting Habitat and History

Although the U. S. Fish and Wildlife Service is a relative newcomer to the Department of the Interior, its origins can be traced to the Commission of Fish and Fisheries created in 1871 (later assigned to the Department of Commerce) and the Division of Economic Ornithology and Mammalogy created in 1885 in the Department of Agriculture. Its role in protecting what we now consider cultural resources is nearly as old.

In 1872, the Commission began construction of the first federal fish hatchery in Northern California. The hatchery was intended to collect salmon eggs for shipping across the country by rail to replenish declining fisheries stocks along the Atlantic seaboard. Shortly after his arrival, the hatchery's manager, Livingston Stone, was approached by members of the McCloud River Indian Tribe. The hatchery's location was adjacent to an area used by the tribe for centuries as a burial ground, and there was widespread concern among tribal members that the area would be desecrated by Commission employees and other settlers. In what was likely one of the first federal efforts to protect a cultural area, Stone accepted a petition from the tribe in September 1874 requesting the Commission's assistance in protecting the burial ground from disturbance.

Over the ensuing 125-plus years, what became the FWS grew dramatically, adding new programs and acquiring lands to protect important fish and wildlife habitat. The bureau's role in protecting fish, wildlife, and wetlands is well-known nationally and internationally—its contributions to preserving our cultural heritage have been less visible.

Programs affiliated with the FWS were conceived at the end of the 19th century to address the decline of fish, wildlife, and other natural resources throughout the United States. Early efforts were modest and geared more toward research, but by the first decade of the 20th century, they began to expand and include land-management responsibilities. At the end of President Theodore Roosevelt's administration in 1909, 53 federal wildlife reservations had been established by executive order and 48 fish hatcheries were in operation.

By 1940, when the Fish and Wildlife Service was established in the Department of the Interior by combining bureaus transferred from the departments of Commerce and Agriculture, there were over 260 national wildlife refuges and 100 fish hatcheries. The new Interior bureau was responsible for managing 13 million acres of land acquired to provide habitat for migratory birds, mammals, and fish. Four decades later, Congress passed the Alaska National Interest Lands Conservation Act adding 53 million acres to the National Wildlife Refuge System and mandating a planning program to identify and describe archeological and cultural sites in Alaska. Ninety-six years after acquisition of the first federal refuge, a three-acre island near Sebastian, Florida, the FWS land base has expanded to 93 million acres managed by nearly 600 field units located in every state and a number of U.S. territories and possessions.

In terms of historic preservation responsibilities, the FWS resembles other federal agencies in many respects. Each year it reviews thousands of projects to avoid or minimize damage to significant prehistoric and historic sites in compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act. A variety of other laws, executive orders, and regulations provide direction in such areas as law enforcement programs to deter theft and vandalism, protection of areas considered sacred by Native Americans, repatriation of human remains and burial goods to tribes, preservation of unique scientific and cultural collections, and maintenance of hundreds of historic buildings and structures. The FWS to date has identified over 11,000 archeological and historic sites on its lands, and hundreds of thousands of additional unrecorded sites are likely to exist. Prehistoric sites on Guam in the far western Pacific, cold war era buildings in Colorado, 19th-century homesteads in the midst of the

The Bertrand *Collection*

The Desoto National Wildlife Refuge in Iowa is home to a premier archeological collection of 200,000 artifacts excavated from the buried hull of the Steamboat *Bertrand*. In 1865, the boat hit a snag in the Missouri River 20 miles north of Omaha, Nebraska. Local legend indicated the ship carried whiskey, coins, and 500 flasks of mercury to be used in the mining process, a treasure trove worth hundreds of thousands of dollars! Salvors discovered the wreck on the refuge in 1968 and the following year its remains were excavated. Under the terms of an Antiquities Act permit, all artifacts were turned over to the FWS for permanent exhibition and preservation in a public museum. The FWS built a new visitor center on the refuge in 1981 designed to store and display the salvaged items. In addition to the necessities of clothing, tools, and food, the collection also contains materials imported from Europe, alcoholic beverages and even powdered lemonade in a can.

Photo courtesy Desoto National Wildlife Refuge, FWS.

Okefenokee Swamp in southern Georgia, and a 1,400-year-old village site in the U.S. Virgin Islands exemplify the geographic and cultural diversity of these resources.

Information on the bureau's cultural resource work before the 1970s is sketchy. The FWS did receive considerable assistance from the National Park Service's Interagency Archeological Services program and others to identify, evaluate, and protect important sites on refuges and hatcheries after World War II. It hired its first cultural resource professional in 1977 to address management issues on national wildlife refuges in Alaska. By the early 1980s, FWS was hiring additional full-time staff in response to a growing workload associated with the NHPA and the Archaeological Resources Protection Act. The FWS currently employs about 20 cultural resource professionals from a variety of academic disciplines, including archeology, history, anthropology and museum studies. Most are located in the agency's seven Regional Offices to provide oversight, support and compliance assistance to field stations. The bureau's preservation officer is located in the Washington Office's Division of Refuges.

The mission of the FWS to protect and enhance fish and wildlife benefits the preservation of cultural resources as well. If one examines the distribution of the bureau's land holdings, obvious patterns emerge. The rivers, lakes, coastal areas, and wetlands with which they are associated are not only critical to wildlife, but have been used by humans for thousands of years for subsistence, settlement and transportation. A good example is found at the DeSoto National Wildlife Refuge in Iowa, where the Steamboat *Bertrand*, sunk in 1865 while navigating the Missouri River to Montana's mining camps, was discovered in one of the river's former channels in 1969. Preserved with its cargo under 15 feet of silt, the boat was a time capsule illuminating 19th-century life on the American frontier. The refuge's visitor center exhibits many of the 200,000 recovered objects. For more web information on these exhibits, see web site: <refuges.fws.gov/NWRSFiles/CulturalResources/Bertrand/Bertrand.html>.

Numerous other refuges and hatcheries contain sites that are significant for a variety of reasons. Examples include:

- National historic landmarks established on Midway Atoll and Kiska and Attu Islands in the Aleutian chain contain remains from a series of pivotal World War II events in 1942 that turned the tide against Japan. Hundreds of associated sites are still intact on these remote outposts managed as national wildlife refuges. Work is planned during 1999 to rehabilitate and interpret historic structures on Midway and recover materials from the Aleutians.
- Some FWS cultural resources are significant because of their association with the history of the bureau and its predecessors. Two areas protected by President Theodore Roosevelt as wildlife reservations, Pelican Island in Florida and Lower Klamath Lake in California, were designated national historic landmarks for their association with early efforts to protect dwindling bird populations. Other examples

include light stations that played an important role in identifying and monitoring migratory birds along North America's flyways during the 1880s and 90s. The bureau has acquired some 20 light stations over the years to protect important habitat; they also offer opportunities for interpretive programs focusing on human adaptation to the environment. A number of these lighthouses have been repaired and maintained through federal grants and the support of local communities. The bureau's oldest program is credited to the D.C. Booth National Historic Fish Hatchery in Spearfish, South Dakota. Built in 1895, the hatchery complex includes a Victorian-era house listed on the National Register of Historic Places that is visited by over 120,000 people each year. The D.C. Booth Hatchery recently added a curation facility to preserve unique historical collections.

- During the 1930s, refuges and hatcheries benefitted tremendously from work performed by thousands of young men stationed at Civilian Conservation Corps camps across the country. CCC enrollees were involved in the construction of roads, water control structures, and buildings, as well reforestation and soil conservation efforts. The program left an important cultural legacy as well. A number of field stations, such as the Tule Lake National Wildlife Refuge in California, contain the remains of camps that help tell the story of this important era in American history.

What about the future? Two recent laws provide new direction for FWS-managed cultural resources. In 1997, President Clinton signed into law the National Wildlife Refuge System Improvement Act to clarify the mission of the National Wildlife Refuge System. The Act directs the FWS to complete comprehensive plans for every refuge within a 15-year period that address, in part, the management of archeological and cultural sites. This is an important step forward. Likewise, the National Wildlife Refuge System Volunteer and Community Partnership Act of 1998 requires a new environmental education initiative promoting the understanding and conservation of fish, wildlife, habitat and cultural resources on refuges. Finally, the National Wildlife Refuge System is a dynamic entity, growing each year by an average of 100,000 acres. These new directions and growth bode well for the continued protection of critical wildlife habitat and the preservation of our history.

Clinton Hart Merriam (1855-1942)

Clinton Hart Merriam was the first Chief of the Division of Economic Ornithology and Mammalogy and later the Bureau of Biological Survey, both predecessors to the FWS. During a 25-year federal career starting in 1885, he was instrumental in creating various programs to study North American mammals and birds, collecting evidence on the harm of exotic species to native flora and fauna, and mapping the continent's major wildlife zones. Merriam traveled extensively throughout the western United States and became acquainted with many Indian tribes in California. By the late 1890s, he had developed a deep interest in Native American culture, language, and mythology resulting in the publication of an article in *Science* in 1903 on Native American basket-making techniques. After his resignation as Chief of the Biological Survey in 1910, he pursued his interest in ethnology further in association with the Smithsonian Institution, continuing to publish articles and collect extensive information on tribal cultures until his death in 1942.

Photo courtesy FWS.

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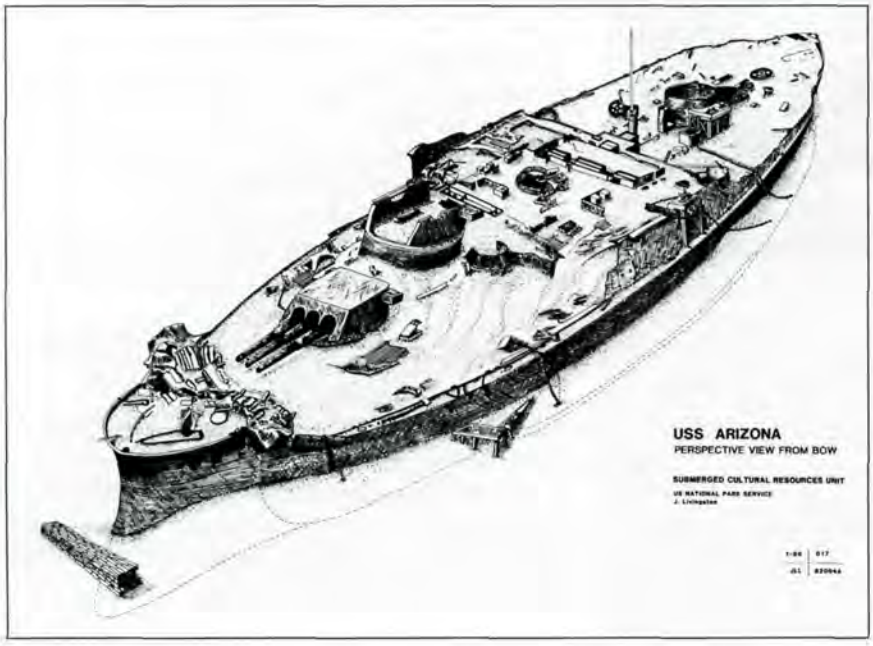
Beneath the Waters of Time

Interior's Submerged Cultural Resource Programs

The name RMS *Titanic* evokes powerful images: the most magnificent luxury liner of its day, an unsinkable ship built to exacting standards; the tragic maiden voyage that ended abruptly when it scratched a behemoth iceberg on April 14, 1912, sending 1,523 people to their deaths; its amazing discovery 73 years later on the floor of the Atlantic Ocean at a depth of two-and-one-half miles beneath the surface, and the remarkable recovery of artifacts by a court-appointed salvor.

RMS *Titanic*, like other shipwrecks in international waters, is subject to the maritime laws of salvage and finds. With some exceptions, so are most shipwrecks in U.S. waters. Tens of thousands of submerged cultural resources scatter the bottomlands of U.S. waters. They include shipwrecks, aircraft, lighthouses, forts, wharves, and prehistoric sites that have become inundated due to subsidence, migration of barrier islands, and the 120-meter rise in global sea level since the height of the last ice age around 19,000 years ago.



USS Arizona shipwreck showing intact No. 1 turret. Drawn by Jerry L. Livingston, NPS. Copyright Arizona Memorial Museum Association.

Most of these resources are in inland waterways and near shore on state submerged lands, generally out three nautical miles from the coastline. Some are further offshore on the Outer Continental Shelf (OCS). They contain invaluable information about the nation's prehistory and history from the earliest periods of migration to and occupation by native peoples and subsequent exploration and colonization by Europeans to the present day.

The Department of the Interior is responsible for many of these resources, be it through regulatory control, land management, program oversight, or technical assistance. This includes the Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Bureau of Land Management (BLM), the Bureau of Reclamation, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, the Minerals Management Service (MMS), and the National Park Service (NPS). At a minimum, each bureau takes steps to ensure that submerged historic properties under its jurisdiction or control are identified, evaluated, and protected from impacts by its projects and programs.[1] Each land managing bureau regulates scientific research at submerged archeological resources on its lands.[2] Two bureaus have developed programs specifically for addressing submerged cultural resources. This article describes those programs as they developed over time and describes current efforts in the Department to improve protection and preservation of historic shipwrecks inside and outside U.S. waters.

Minerals Management Service

Interior administers a program of mineral exploration and development on the OCS through leases and regulation.[3] However, the OCS is not federally owned and the federal government does not claim title to cultural resources on the OCS. As a result, and as described in a series of legal opinions, beyond avoidance or mitigation of adverse impacts, Interior does not have

the authority to manage or regulate scientific research at cultural resources on the OCS.

Initially, the BLM was responsible for conducting cultural resource assessment studies and developing cultural resource policies and lease stipulations while the U.S. Geological Survey supervised mineral leases, making sure that lease stipulations were followed. This program approach was developed in the 1970s and, in 1982, these and other OCS mineral leasing program responsibilities were consolidated and transferred to the MMS.

The MMS ensures that its undertakings do not adversely affect potentially significant historic properties on the OCS through a multi-step process. First, archeological baseline studies of the entire OCS have been conducted to determine where known historic properties are located and identify areas where presently unknown historic properties may be located. Prior to approving any exploration or development activity on a mineral lease within an area identified as archeologically sensitive by the baseline studies, the lessee is required to conduct a marine remote sensing survey and prepare an archeological report. Often the same survey data collected for geo-hazards evaluations can be used for the archeological assessment. Since 1973, when the archeological survey requirement was initiated, about 38 million acres of the OCS have been surveyed.

If the survey indicates any evidence of a potential historic property, the lessee must either move the site of the proposed lease operations a sufficient distance to avoid the area or conduct further investigations to determine the nature and significance of the potential historic property. If it is determined that a significant historic property is within the area of proposed lease operations, Section 106 consultation procedures are followed.

In addition to the baseline studies, the MMS conducts other cultural resource studies. A sedimentary study[4] of terrestrial prehistoric archeological sites in coastal areas of the northern Gulf of Mexico outlined for the first time workable criteria for identifying such sites that may exist on submerged relict landforms on the OCS. A follow-up study[5] evaluated the methodology and technology for locating submerged and buried prehistoric archeological sites on the OCS. Another study is examining the effects of marine erosion and wave action on archeological site deposits.

The MMS also maintains a database of known historic shipwrecks on the OCS and makes the database available to other federal, state and local government agencies and to qualified researchers.

National Park Service

The national park system contains about 90 national seashores, lakeshores, rivers,[6] and other units with submerged lands. Most of these units contain submerged cultural resources. The NPS conducts research to identify, evaluate, document, and nominate these resources for listing in the National Register of Historic Places and takes steps to manage, preserve, protect, and interpret them for public enjoyment and understanding.

One unit that has been the focus of such research is the USS Arizona Memorial in Honolulu, Hawaii. The Japanese bombs that fell in Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 transformed the USS *Arizona* from a great battleship into a war grave. Afterward dive teams salvaged most of the ship's superstructure in support of the war effort and left the rest of it in place as a memorial to the 1,000 service personnel entombed inside. In 1983, another team of divers examined the ship, this time as a submerged cultural resource. What they found was startling—the entire No. 1 turret with its 14-inch guns still in place and a profusion of live 5-inch shells. The live shells were immediately removed and the park's interpretive program was updated to incorporate the remarkable discoveries made then and in subsequent years.[7]

The NPS has, in fact, a long association[8] with underwater archeology, undertaking its first project in the 1930s to salvage Revolutionary War artifacts from the York River at Colonial National Historical Park, Virginia. Subsequent projects were undertaken in the 1950s to search for a colonial fort at Fort Caroline National Memorial, Florida, and to raise the Civil War ironclad USS *Cairo* near Vicksburg National Military Park, Mississippi. In the 1960s, a magnetometer survey was conducted at Point Reyes National Seashore, California.

A comprehensive underwater archeological program was established in the early 1970s. Initially, the program focused on shipwrecks and later studied submerged prehistoric sites. It also studied the effects of inundation from water impoundment projects on archeological sites[9] and developed remote sensing techniques for use on the OCS. Today, the Submerged Cultural

An archeologist studies a turret on a battleship sunk in War of the Pacific NSP. Photo by Larry Murphy, NPS.

Resources Unit (SCRU)[10] coordinates the underwater archeology program; conducts studies to inventory, map, and assess submerged cultural resources; develops management, preservation, and recreational use plans; and coordinates and cooperates with other agencies and nations on projects and issues of concern.

In the 1980s, Interior supported enactment of legislation to improve protection and preservation of historic shipwrecks in U.S. waters. In 1988, the Abandoned Shipwreck Act was enacted to establish government ownership over most abandoned shipwrecks within three nautical miles of the coastline or the internal navigable waters of the United States. The Act removed the shipwrecks from federal admiralty jurisdiction and established a framework within which states and federal agencies, as the owners, now manage the shipwrecks. The NPS issued guidelines to assist agencies in carrying out their new responsibilities, and the Archeology and Ethnography Program[11] and the SCRU provide programmatic, policy, and technical assistance through training, publications, workshops, and interagency efforts.

The Future

Interior continues to participate in national and international efforts to improve the ways in which the nations of the world protect submerged cultural resources under their jurisdiction or control. Working through various interagency task forces, many activities are underway.

Foremost among them is the effort to protect RMS *Titanic* from further unregulated salvage through the signing of an agreement by the United Kingdom, France, Canada, and the United States. Another is the effort by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization to develop a widely accepted Convention on the Protection of Underwater Cultural Heritage. Domestically, an effort is underway to amend the Abandoned Shipwreck Act to clarify several matters and to enact new legislation to protect historic shipwrecks in U.S. waters beyond three nautical miles from shore. Another is exploring ways domestically and internationally to protect sovereign immune vessels, whether sunk in the 20th century, the 15th century, or earlier. These and related efforts hold great promise for ensuring that, on a global scale, shipwrecks like RMS *Titanic* and USS *Arizona* are preserved and protected for future generations.

Notes

1 Under the National Historic Preservation Act.

2 Under the Antiquities Act and the Archaeological Resources Protection Act.

3 Under the Outer Continental Shelf Lands Act.

4 Sherwood M. Gagliano, Charles E. Pearson, Richard A. Weinstein, Diane E. Wiseman, and Christopher M. McClendon, *Sedimentary Studies of Prehistoric Archaeological Sites: Criteria for the Identification of Submerged Archaeological Sites of the Northern Gulf of Mexico Continental Shelf* (Baton Rouge: Coastal Environments Inc., 1982).

5 Charles E. Pearson, David B. Kelley, Richard A. Weinstein, and Sherwood M. Gagliano, *Archaeological Investigations on the Outer Continental Shelf: A Study within the Sabine River Valley, Offshore Louisiana and Texas* (Baton Rouge: Coastal Environments Inc., 1986).

6 Includes national rivers and national wild and scenic rivers and riverways.

7 Daniel J. Lenihan (editor), *Submerged Cultural Resources Study: USS Arizona Memorial and Pearl Harbor National Historic Landmark* (Santa Fe: National Park Service, 1989).

8 George R. Fisher, "The History and Nature of Underwater Archeology in the National Park Service" in Daniel Lenihan (editor), *Underwater Archeology in the National Park Service* (Santa Fe: National Park Service, 1974), 3-8.

9 Daniel J. Lenihan, Toni L. Carrell, Stephen Fosberg, Larry Murphy, Sandra L. Rayl, and John A. Ware, *The Final Report of the National Reservoir Inundation Study, Volumes 1 and 2* (Santa Fe: National Park Service, 1981).

10 See <http://www.nps.gov/scru/home.htm>.

11 See <http://www.cr.nps.gov/aad>.

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Foster Kirby and Robert Block

Coal and Culture

The Office of Surface Mining's Tale of Two Resources

Congress acknowledged a dual purpose when enacting the Surface Mining Control and Reclamation Act of 1977 (SMCRA): a healthy coal mining industry is essential to the national interest, while the industry's surface coal mining operations must be conducted in a manner that protects the environment, including the cultural environment. Many states already had mining programs in place that included provisions for the consideration of cultural resources prior to the passage of this legislation. However, the Act introduced a nationwide, uniform approach to coal mining and reclamation operations. Historic properties were addressed from a national perspective that required applicants for surface coal mining permits to include in their applications accurate maps showing all manmade features and significant archeological sites that are known to exist in the proposed project area. The regulatory authority could designate an area unsuitable for all or certain types of coal mining if it affected fragile or historic lands where such operations could result in significant damage to important historic, cultural, scientific, and esthetic values and natural systems. Surface coal mining operations "which adversely affect any publicly owned park or places included in the National Register of Historic Sites (sic) unless approved jointly by the regulatory authority and the federal, state, or local agency with jurisdiction over the park or the historic site." were prohibited, as were mining operations within 100 feet of a cemetery. The Act also created the Office of Surface Mining (OSM) as the federal agency responsible for implementing the provisions of the Act, and it provided for the delegation of most responsibilities to coal producing states that want to assume their own regulatory programs.

Roadside Mine—Coal Load Out. Photo courtesy Montana Abandoned Mine Reclamation Program.

Two major statutes address the consideration of historic properties affected by surface coal mining operations. In addition to the specific requirements for the protection of historic properties in SMCRA, Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) requires federal agencies to take into account the effects of their undertakings on historic properties. While the requirements in Section 106 of NHPA apply only to federal or federally assisted undertakings, the requirements in SMCRA apply to all activities authorized by that Act. Such activities include those a state assumes when it accepts a grant to cover a portion of the cost of its own regulatory program, thereby agreeing to assist the Secretary of the Interior in fulfilling his Section 106 responsibilities. In order to ensure that the requirements in SMCRA are implemented at all levels, including those instances where a state has a responsibility for meeting federal program requirements, OSM developed regulations that contain specific mechanisms for the consideration of historic properties in the context of SMCRA.

States with approved coal mining regulatory programs, called primacy states, must have in place regulations that are no less effective than OSM's regulations governing the consideration and protection of cultural resources. These programs call for the regulatory authority to consult with the State Historic Preservation Officer

regarding information on known cultural resources, including sites listed or eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, regardless of land ownership. The regulations also require permit applicants to provide information on cultural, historic, and archeological resources listed or eligible for listing in the National Register and known archeological sites within the proposed permit area and adjacent areas. In addition, the regulatory authority may require a permit applicant to collect additional information and conduct field investigations or other appropriate analyses, and to protect eligible or listed National Register properties through appropriate mitigation and treatment measures. Prior to issuing a permit for a proposed mining operation, the regulatory authority is required to make a written finding that it has considered the effect of the permitting action on properties listed in or eligible for the National Register.

A second major aspect of SMCRA, the abandoned mine land reclamation program, is covered under Title IV of the Act. The abandoned mine land program provides for the restoration of lands mined and abandoned or left inadequately restored prior to the implementation of the Act. Reclamation of these properties often involves dealing with buildings, structures, and features associated with mining that are more than 50 years old. OSM has always considered the granting of abandoned mine land funds to state and tribal abandoned mine reclamation programs as federal undertakings subject to the full requirements of the NHPA. Historic preservation consultations on thousands of abandoned coal mine sites have been conducted since the program began. Many of the properties have been determined significant and warrant additional preservation work or project redesign. Abandoned mine land preservation work has ranged from simple recording to complex Historic American Buildings Survey and Historic American Engineering Record documentation, from stabilization to restoration, from simple data recovery programs to full development of museum displays and site development for public tours. A visit to the Montana abandoned mine land program web site allows the viewer to see maps of abandoned mine land sites from over 200 mining districts along with background narratives that place each mine within its historical context:<www.deq.state.mt.us/mtmines2//inmines.htm>.

These statutory and regulatory requirements translate into various kinds of OSM activity. An OSM archeologist may visit a field site with a concerned local citizen or consult in the tribal council chambers with the religious elders from an Indian tribe. The archeologist frequently meets with his counterparts in other federal or state agencies to develop strategies for the protection of historic and cultural resources, and sometimes consults directly with state historic preservation officers or the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation in this regard. The archeologist is also the principal instructor in OSM's three-day historic preservation training course that is provided for agency, state, and tribal personnel. This training focuses on the application of federal preservation laws as they relate to coal mine permitting and abandoned mine reclamation. More than 350 students have attended this OSM preservation course since its inception.

Several recent preservation projects illustrate some of the preservation activities that OSM is directly or indirectly involved in. As part of commemorating the 20th anniversary of SMCRA, the Utah Abandoned Mine Reclamation Program was awarded a National Abandoned Mine Land Reclamation Award for its Silver Reef Reclamation Project. One important aspect of the project was the reclamation of a historic mining district that covered 800 acres and included the closure of more than 500 mine openings. Mitigation efforts at a site located on the Cordero Mine in the Powder River Basin of Wyoming drew considerable attention: excavation work at the site recovered components from the Middle Missouri River Valley culture, which were the first of their kind ever identified in the state. Data recovery work at another Powder River Basin site at Belle Ayr Mine fully documented through archival and archeological research the Sawyers Caballo Creek Rifle Pit site. The Caballo Creek Rifle Pit site was occupied on August 9 and again on August16-18, 1895, by members of the James Sawyer road survey expedition. The rifle pits were constructed in anticipation of attacks by Cheyenne and Sioux raiding parties.

OSM funding supported two award-winning films, *Against the Darkness* (1991) and *Paupers' Dreams* (1992), produced by the Montana Department of Environmental Quality, Abandoned Mine Reclamation Program, which depict the development of coal and metal mining

in Montana. The OSM homepage <http://www.osmre.gov/osm.htm> has a cover picture of Ellison's Rock Petroglyph Site, a sandstone rock formation, that contained several outstanding petroglyphs or rock art done by Native Americans. The accompanying text and pictures show the recovery of several of the rock art panels and their relocation to the Northern Cheyenne Tribal Center in Lame Deer, Montana.

On Indian lands, OSM works very closely with tribal governments to protect cultural resources associated with either coal mining or abandoned mine reclamation activities. Such efforts often include ongoing consultations with tribal counterparts, joint visits to archeological sites for field investigations, mutual sharing of information between OSM and the tribes, and respect for a tribe's desire for confidentiality as it pertains to certain information about its cultural and historic past. In conjunction with its Indian trust responsibilities, OSM together with the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) and Bureau of Indian Affairs also offers formal trust training to federal employees from several agencies. One of the specific trust training sessions focuses on traditional cultural properties and how they must be considered. These federal trust responsibilities are the subject of an award-winning film entitled *Sacred Domain: Tribal Perspectives in Land Management* (1998) that OSM produced in partnership with BLM and uses in the trust training program to provide heightened awareness of sacred sites and traditional cultural properties.

There are a number of challenges facing OSM as the agency moves into the 21st century.

Locust Summit Breaker, anthracite coal region, Pennsylvania. Photo courtesy Office of Surface Mining, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

Even after 20 years of existence, coordination of cultural resource activities between the various land management agencies, state regulatory authorities, and OSM continues to evolve. For example, in 1987 OSM set forth regulations governing the protection of historic properties, but these regulations were subject to legal challenges by both the coal industry and the preservation community. The court ruled that the regulations were based on the incorrect premise that state permitting actions are not federal undertakings, and then remanded the matter to the Secretary for action to bring OSM into compliance. As a result of this lawsuit and subsequent amendments to the NHPA, OSM in cooperation with the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation and the National Conference of State Historic Preservation Officers is currently pursing the development of a nationwide programmatic agreement as an instrument for implementing its Section 106 responsibilities relative to state-issued mining permits.

The passage of time also creates other dilemmas for OSM, such as the status of buildings and structures that are more than 50 years old and may have characteristics that would make them eligible for the National Register, but are subject to reclamation under both SMCRA's active and abandoned mine lands programs. The creation of new laws, regulations or executive orders are all actions that trigger OSM involvement. A case in point is the consideration of Executive Order 13007 that concerns Native American cultural and religious beliefs and practices on federal lands. In order to fully implement the order, collection of information and consideration of Native American concerns need to be undertaken at the earliest possible time. This involves the federal land management agency at the coal leasing stage, and also raises the issue of the role that state regulatory authorities have in the application of the executive order under their approved federal lands primacy programs. OSM is working with various parties to clearly define these kinds of roles as well as the many other responsibilities and challenges related to the protection of historic and cultural resources that will continue to be associated with coal mining activity in the approaching millennium.

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