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Section 81, Pages 2401 - 2430

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Creator: Kansas State Historical Society

Date: 1978-2009

Callnumber: SP 906 K13qh

KSHS Identifier: DaRT ID: 217226

Item Identifier: 217226

www.kansasmemory.org/item/217226

KANSAS HISTORICAL SOCIETY



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Posing for the camera of the Coffeyville Journal are "fifth columnists" apprehended during training exercises in October 1941.

personnel with CMTC (Campus Military Training Corps) and ROTC (Reserve Officers' Training Corps) experience.¹³

The recruiting drive, which began in early May, was well under way. Age requirements differed between the ranks. For those seeking commissions as officers, the maximum age was sixty-four, while

13. General Orders, No. 5, May 7, 1941, 1; "Col. C. H. Browne Will Command Kansas Guard," *Topeka State Journal*, May 8, 1941; General Orders, No. 9, August 6, 1941, 1; "To Form New Guard Units," *Holton Signal*, May 15, 1941.

those in the enlisted ranks were expected to be between the ages of twenty-one and fifty. Age restrictions varied, like the results of the physical examinations, during the course of the war to meet manpower needs. In terms of supply, the State Military Board was obligated to furnish uniforms and arms to the State Guard. At times this caused considerable confusion. According to Army Regulations 850-250, "The uniform prescribed and furnished by the state for its State guard should be unmistakably different from that of any Federal military force and from that heretofore authorized for certain units of the National Guard of the several States." Also, the uniform designated was to be marked in such a way as to clearly identify the wearer as a member of the State Guard. The State Guard was not to compete with the War Department in the procurement of uniforms. This even included the selection of sleeve braid. The Kansas State Guard could choose any color other than brown, gold, vellow, black, and forest green to be "worn on all overcoats, coats and shirts." The Kansas State Guard selected two uniforms. The summer dress uniform was composed of cotton khaki with a black tie. On the left shoulder, a blueand-yellow patch was worn to signify membership in the State Guard. The Fruhauf Southwest Uniform Company of Wichita produced the green gabardine winter uniform. A green-and-yellow triangular patch was used with this uniform. Enlisted brass



Riot control was an important phase of instruction at Hutchinson and Topeka summer encampments.



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Members of the Wyandotte Company take time to relax during the Topeka summer encampment of 1942.

was taken from surplus stocks from the pre-1917 period. On the other hand, a Kansas City, Missouri, firm, the Green Jewelry Company, designed and manufactured the officers' brass.14

Kansas officials ultimately hoped to attract former veterans and National Guard personnel to the ranks of the Kansas State Guard, but the organization was not totally closed to other interested parties. Those wishing to join the State Guard were urged to attend organizational meetings held at their local armories. The typical company was composed of three officersa captain, a first lieutenant, and a second lieutenantand forty enlisted men. The object was to complete the recruitment as quickly as possible so that physicals, uniforms, and other necessary equipment could be ordered. Physicians who performed physicals received a dollor per applicant. Although state authorities originally notified recruits that they should not expect compensation unless the State Guard was

14. General Orders, No. 2, April 28, 1941, 4; General Orders, No. 1, April 15, 1941, 2; "Recruiting for Home Guards," Topeka Daily Capital, May 3, 1941.

activated, the legislature did make some form of monetary contribution in recognition of guard service. To underscore this point, the Topeka Daily Capital earlier claimed, "No pay will be allowed unless the State Guard is called into active service, then the pay will be the same provided for officers and men of comparable rank in the United States Army." The Kansas legislature made a conscious effort to arrange financial remuneration for State Guard personnel. In March 1943, a pay increase that covered grades E-1 through O-3 was authorized to go into effect after July 1 of that year. This applied to those who participated in weekly drills for no less than one and a half hours for no more than five training periods per month. For such service, a private could expect \$.60, a corporal \$.80, a second lieutenant \$1.25, and a captain \$2.50.15

By the end of May 1941, twenty-one states, mainly in the West, had organized State Guard elements. An additional eight states were in the process of establishing units of their own. According to War Department sources, the "status of each member is that of a lawful belligerent as a soldier in the military service of his state."16 As a consequence, military specialists designed instruction to meet the specific mission and tasks established for the State Guard. Unit commanders were responsible for directing the training sequence to meet that objective on the local level. As in all military units, the battalion and company commanders were accountable for maintaining the appropriate levels of discipline and morale among their troops.17

One of the oddest moments in the history of the State Guard occurred when the War Department recalled the Guard's weapons on April 11, 1942. The War Department's decision came because of the Allied rifle shortage. The action of the War Department affected not only the State Guard throughout the country but also the National Rifle Association, whose members purchased surplus 1903 Springfields and 1917 Enfields, and regular Military Police (MP) units. 18 Both MP and State Guard battalions obtained shotguns. According to the War Department, shot-

16. "State Guard Units to Meet Minimum Army Training Requirements," War Department, Bureau of Public Relations,

17. Ibid., 2; "Preference to Military Men in Topeka Unit of State Guard," Topeka Daily Capital, May 8, 1941.

18. General Orders, No. 4, June 11, 1943, 1.

^{15.} General Orders, No. 6, June 24, 1942, 1; "30 Men Wanted in State Guard for Hiawatha," Hiawatha Daily World, May 12, 1941; "Preference to Military Men in Topeka Unit," Topeka Daily Capital, May 8, 1941; Kansas Laws, 1943, ch. 203, p. 383.



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guns would "fully meet their requirements." 19 Colonel Browne addressed this problem in a memorandum sent to all State Guard units from his Horton headquarters. He indicated that the Military Police had already been issued riot guns and it was possible that the State Guard would shortly receive similar weapons. The Paola company turned in its forty rifles, and in the interim, the local American Legion Post agreed to allow the use of ten Krag rifles for training purposes. Finally, the Paola unit acquired an additional twenty-five rifles from a Spanish-American War veterans organization. Despite these efforts, the company remained equipped with shotguns. A typical Kansas State Guard company was furnished with thirty-eight shotguns and two Thompson submachine guns.20

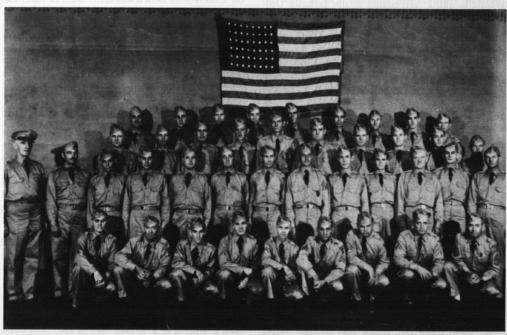
Company-level training occurred during weekly drills. A typical Monday evening assembly in Sabetha, for example, included scouting and patrolling in a

19. "Rifles Called In," Kansas City Star, April 12, 1942.
20. "Recall State Guard Rifles," Miami Republican, Paola, April 17, 1942; "Shotguns Planned for State Guard: Planned Combat Problem," Sabetha Herald, April 22, 1942.

combat environment as well as a lecture on chemical warfare by Corp. M. V. Chase, a chemistry teacher from the local high school. The following week the Sabetha company implemented its newfound skills in solving a tactical problem, which according to the Sabetha Herald was to be conducted "under simulated combat conditions...if weather permits." This included scouting and patrolling; "extended order deployment and advancing on an enemy will be put into practice by the men." ²¹ It appeared that regimental headquarters at Horton established the weekly training schedules. All the units in the Kansas State Guard, for instance, covered a similar instructional format at roughly the same time. ²²

Special courses were provided for the professional enrichment of officers and enlisted personnel. These classes reviewed a wide range of subjects designed to improve training on the company and battalion levels. A one-day educational session convened in

Sabetha Herald, April 22, 1942.
 Ibid.; Miami Republican, April 17, 1942.



This Horton Company photograph, taken in May 1941, shows Col. Browne at the far left.



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Topeka on May 3, 1942, at the capitol. All officers were expected to attend. The cost of the class was paid by the Kansas State Guard, with officers receiving five dollars per day and three cents a mile for transportation to and from Topeka. The adjutant general's office provided room and board.23 The State Guard not only established professional training facilities but also held test mobilizations to maintain training at peak levels.

On December 9, 1941, following the declaration of war, Colonel Browne ordered the first statewide test mobilization. Telegrams were sent to all battalion commanders:

You are directed to order test mobilization without expense all units your battalion Tuesday, December 9, 1 to 5 p.m., with guard details established at utilities and other facilities essential to National Defense. No prior publicity desired. Company commanders will telegram regimental headquarters that evening number of officers and men mobilized, with written report in duplicate forward the following day.-Browne,

Almost everyone took part in the exercise. Gov. Payne Ratner cancelled his scheduled activities, including ground-breaking ceremonies at the Jayhawk Ordnance Plant at Pittsburg. Ratner called in leading state officials to ascertain what could be done to insure the security of the state. Brig. Gen. Robert C. Rodgers, commanding general of Fort Riley, suggested that the "most vulnerable points" in the state were bridges. Consequently, the Kansas State Guard was assigned the duty during the mobilization to secure highway bridges and protect vital defense industries, utilities, and railroads from a simulated enemy attack.25

A direct result of the mobilization was an expansion of the State Guard, with additional units established in Topeka and Wichita. Simultaneously, Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson sent a telegram to Governor Ratner warning him of possible fifth column activities within the state during the Christmas holidays. Ratner informed the press that "the State Guard would be on duty but would not be mobilized in uniform."26

State Guard units conducted their own exercises on the battalion and company levels. These drills were used primarily to maintain morale and to dramatize the need for increased professionalism in the ranks. One exercise, no doubt common to other Kansas State Guard units, occurred at Lake Shawnee east of Topeka on April 12, 1942. The cooperation of the Civil Air Patrol highlighted the maneuvers when, during the early phase of the exercise, Capt. St. Elmo Else took it upon himself to attack the battalion command post with flour-sack "bombs." According to press reports, "some of Kansas' best military minds" were wiped out, including Colonel Browne and Gen. C. I. Martin, the assistant adjutant general. Local guardsmen failed to recognize the plane as hostile and notified the pilot by signal to "drop a message." The message received was not what the guardsmen expected-"surrender at once," followed by a series of four flour-sack bombs which were scored as direct hits on the command post. In critiquing the air raid, Colonel Browne noted that rifle fire would have been more effective as a deterrent than the concentrated fire of machine guns. Browne claimed, "They [the riflemen] would fire into the motor; they would shoot the pilot in the cockpit."27

Not all State Guard activities were devoted solely to military training, but in times of civil emergencies the Kansas State Guard was there to fill in while the Kansas National Guard was at war. For example, mobilization took place for the Dodge City, Garden City, and Great Bend companies on April 28 to respond to the flood along the Arkansas River. The cresting of the Arkansas presented a clear danger to those communities in the flood's path, for the waters were higher than they had been in 1921 and even reached the Dodge City Armory floor. Through the efforts of the Dodge City company, two hundred homes were evacuated. The Great Bend company helped rescue roughly one hundred families and aided local police and the Highway Patrol in policing the roads and checking the levees along the river. To alleviate the strain and tension among Guard personnel, units worked a schedule of four hours on and four hours off duty. The Great Bend Tribune noted the popularity of the Kansas State Guard. According to the Tribune, "only one man in the unit did not report."28

The first summer drills for the Kansas State Guard were held at Topeka's fairgrounds and at the State Fair facilities in Hutchinson. The first, second, third,

^{23.} General Orders, No. 4, April 14, 1942.

^{24.} Telegram, Charles H. Browne, Sr., to Frank W. Sterns, December 8, 1941.

^{25. &}quot;Kansas Is Alert," Kansas City Times, December 9, 1941; "A Kansas' Alarm," Kansas City Star, December 9, 1941.
26. "Kansas Guard Alert; Stimson Fears Sabotage," Topeka

State Journal, December 24, 1941.

^{27. &}quot;Topeka Troops Hit by 'Raid,'" Topeka State Journal, April 13, 1942.

^{28.} Charles B. Eggen to Charles H. Browne, Sr., April 28, 1942; Alfred L. Myers to M. R. McLean, April 30, 1942; "State Guard Unit Is Called Out Here," Great Bend Tribune, April 30, 1942.



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and fourth battalions were assigned to Topeka for five days of training; the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth battalions were sent to Hutchinson. While attending annual training, guardsmen were put through four days of physical exercise, familiarization and firing of shotguns and Thompson submachine guns, chemical warfare training, use of hand grenades, and domestic disturbance classes. Regular army instructors conducted most of the training. The troops at the Topeka camp were fortunate in one respect: women from the Perry Methodist Church under contract to the State of Kansas provided KP.29

At Hutchinson, the training was identical to that at Topeka. The cadre who managed the Topeka camp traveled with "strong-jawed" Colonel Browne to Hutchinson where, from accounts in the Hutchinson News, "Blistered feet and painful sunburn proved they [the guardsmen] are not hardened soldiers yet." The atmosphere was strictly professional. An intensive period of training took place each day. Every officer and enlisted man stood guard duty as well as fired his weapon, "first at clay pigeons, then ... at small parachutes flung from an airplane." According to the local newspapers, an important objective of training was "to teach the men to be tough." 30

By 1943 the character of the annual encampments began to change. The training period was extended to a full week, and the division of the regiment into two separate training facilities came to an end. That summer, the full regiment trained at the State Fairgrounds in Hutchinson. The reforms that started in 1943 continued until the conclusion of the war. In

29. Field Training Schedule of First Infantry, Kansas State

1944 and 1945, annual training was held at Camp Whiteside, Fort Riley, with rifles replacing shotguns in 1945. By 1946 the utility of the State Guard was nearing an end. The war was over, units returned from overseas, and troops were demobilized. The summer training that year was considered "field training," which may have been indicative of the future role of the Kansas State Guard.31

During the war years the strength of the Kansas State Guard remained relatively stable. By May 31, 1946, the force level of the State Guard stood at 130 officers and 1,156 enlisted men. On January 1, 1947, the First Regiment of the Kansas State Guard was redesignated as the First Infantry Group. Colonel Browne was duly promoted to the rank of brigadier general, fitting compensation for not being assigned to a combat unit. On June 30, 1948, the Kansas State Guard held its last formation.32

The State Guard played a vital role in the success of the war effort. As an organization it was responsible for continuing the duties that were long considered a part of the National Guard. The State Guard's presence reassured the civil population that they were protected and consequently helped eliminate the wave of local paranoia that occurred in World War I. The State Guard also furnished a useful outlet for those individuals who wished to serve their country but for some reason were unable otherwise to do so. More importantly, the State Guard's creation indicated that the frontier ethic of providing local security persisted in an age of total war. The legacy of General Browne still is being analyzed in Washington and Topeka for future applicability to insure citizen welfare in future crises.

Guard, August 23-September 3, 1942; "State Guard in Serious Training at Fair Grounds," *Topeka State Journal*, August 25, 1942.

30. "State Guardsmen Find Only Work On Program," *Hutchinson News*, August 31, 1942; "State Guards to Mobilize Here Sunday," *Hutchinson News*, August 29, 1942.

General Orders, No. 7, July 5, 1946.
 State Guard Monthly Report, May 31, 1946; Charles H. Browne's 201 file, Kansas State Army National Guard.



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American Indian Policy in the Twentieth Century

edited by Vine Deloria, Jr.

265 pages, notes, index. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1985, \$16.95.

HE RECENT suicide contagion among Shoshone and Arapaho Indians of the Wind River Reservation in Wyoming points up, in grotesque terms, the cultural erosion and social disintegration that is a legacy of a confused and frustrating American Indian policy. This is an unfortunate reality, but this volume, proceeding from Vine Deloria's contention that "the process of formulating the federal government's posture toward Indians has changed substantially and definitely for the better in almost every instance," addresses some hopeful possibilities as well. Eleven essays offer both historical perspective and analyses of the present status of American Indian people. Moreover, the book addresses some of the perplexing complications-factionalism and political struggles within tribes, for examplewhich tribes face as they consider new policies and develop new strategies aimed at the protection of rights and resources.

The essays deal with water rights, Indian voting, international law, self-determination, economic development, and other historical problems and current issues. The long-lamented irony of Indian policy, due largely to the historic absence of norms, is reinforced throughout. Difficult problems continue to be solved by piecemeal litigation. The jumble of federal, state, and tribal rights poses a complex and contradictory dilemma for Indian people. Such fundamental ideals as democratic theory, the rights of indigenous peoples, international law, and the consent of the governed have seldom been brought to bear on Indian issues.

Tribes do have the potential to influence elections and policy, however, and this power is bolstered by massive landholdings and natural resources. Perhaps the answer lies, as Deloria suggests, in substituting "small models for ... specific communities or functions," for broad national policies for programs and services. This sort of speculation is useful, of course, and the need for new legislation and new institutions is all too clear, but the present status of Indian people in the United States rests on a solidly rooted tradition. Thomas N. Tureen, in a recent analysis of Mashpee, Passamaquoddy, and Penobscot land claims, sums it up: the United States "ultimtely makes the rules and arbitrates the game."

The authors, all of whom demonstrate a firm command of their topics, suggest some new ways of thinking about Indian policy and Indian futures, and the book, organized topically against a background of historical policy development, is a useful reference for both scholarly and general audiences. And, despite the arrogance, expediency, and hell-bent good intentions that have characterized American Indian policy, Deloria, who knows the score, is encouraging. There are some significant building blocks here for what he calls "a new edifice of understanding."

Reviewed by Michael B. Husband, executive director of Historic Wichita-Sedgwick County, Inc., whose experience includes serving as a research associate with the American Indian Historical Research Project during his doctoral studies at the University of New Mexico.

Desert Passages: Encounters with American Deserts

by Patricia Nelson Limerick

218 pages, notes, bibliography, index. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1985, \$22.50.

As the title implies, this book is about the passages both into and through American deserts and the writing about these journeys. Limerick has summarized, then analyzed, the writings of eight men. She is interested in why they came to the desert, in their preconceptions about it, in their responses to it, and finally in their literary understanding of it. This book traces American attitudes—of Manifest Destiny, of the conflict between the land as material resource and the land as spiritual sustainer. It asks how these attitudes survived the desert, a harsh land-scape impervious to both human attitude and posture.

Limerick's first four travelers/writers lament the desert's unwillingness to be conquered, dominated, a part of Manifest Destiny. John C. Fremont found the desert "worthless," "inhospitable," "bleak," "sterile," and "savage." So did Mark Twain and William Lewis Manly, who found desert passage to be "a prolonged encounter with the prospect of death." For each of these men the only way to conquer the desert was to survive it and escape from it. Not so with William Ellsworth Smythe. His irrigation plans



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would transform the desert from worthlessness to traditional American homesteads, creating dignified lives for the masses of people being made dependent upon industrial American society. Like those before him, he disliked the desert. Like those before him, he failed to change it.

For the final four writers, appreciation becomes the way to integrate the desert into the designs of God, or Nature, or Nation. John Van Dyke, art historian from New Jersey and pessimist about humanity, appreciated the purity of Nature made manifest in the desert. George Wharton James, defrocked pastor and prolific writer, found salvation in the desert. He led desert tours for people who, like himself, found that the desert in limited doses could be good for, could even transform, the soul. Philosopher Joseph Wood Krutch saw the desert as metaphor. In the crowded, congested materialistic 1940s and 1950s, he saw the desert as an alternative, pointing out the "desert's lesson: material scarcity is highly compatible with spiritual abundance." Edward Abbey, a more aggressive appreciator of the desert, shares much the same philosophy: "The desert was his mentor; desert plants, defying the pressures of the inanimate, provided a model for his own struggle against the supposed deadness of American society-empty materialism, routinized and unresponsive government, reductive science, and ill-considered technology.'

The desert remains the same throughout the history of American contact with it. What changes is human attitude—from abhorrence to visions of transformation, to appreciation and understanding. Early contacts lament that it cannot be integrated into homesteading America; later contacts celebrate it for this very stubbornness. Limerick does an excellent, thought-provoking analysis of these attitudinal changes.

Unfortunately, Limerick does not look at the American Indian's sojourns upon or mythology about American deserts. Nor does she ever concentrate on the response of the American woman. Surely, these would add to the variety of attitudes humans brought to and formed from contact with the desert.

Also, Limerick sometimes petulantly points out the various contradictions in the writers' attitudes. She spends too much time outthinking them; her tone is often condescending. She decries, for example, the writers who champion human insignificance, yet don't feel themselves as individuals, to be insignificant at all. Desert writers all have this problem—they are humble in the face of the land-scape, yet assertive in their responses, directives, and metaphors.

If anything, Limerick is not assertive enough in her own statements about American deserts. Her final chapter, "The Significance of Deserts in American History," is her weakest, as though, left alone to face the desert, she, too, is confused and awed. Perhaps she knows the desert well enough to be unwilling to make any final judgments about it. Had she included maps, along with a more formal definition of the American desert regions, and been more assertive about her own opinions rather than simply

describing the opinions of others, Desert Passages would be an even more interesting and thought-provoking book.

Reviewed by Thomas Fox Averill, who teaches Kansas literature at Washburn University, Topeka.

Phil Sheridan and His Army

by Paul Andrew Hutton

xvi + 479 pages, maps, illustrations, notes, bibliography, index. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1985, \$29.95.

PHIL SHERIDAN (1831-1888) was one of the outstanding military leaders of the nineteenth century, until now best known for his Civil War record. This thoroughly researched and carefully written combination of biography and history evaluates Sheridan's post-Civil War career as a department and division commander during the Indian wars, Reconstruction in Louisiana, and as commanding general of the army after 1883. Hutton demonstrates that Sheridan, described as "loyal to a fault," marked the post-Civil War army with his brand of military traditionalism and promoted the westward expansion of the nation. Sheridan's frustrations with some of his fellow officers, with the ongoing struggle between the War and the Interior departments for control of Indian affairs, and with Reconstruction politics and politics in general are woven into the fabric of this chronicle of campaigns and battles, official policies and public reactions, military bureaucracy and red tape, and numerous other incidents in which Sheridan was involved, such as the Chicago Fire, the Franco-Prussian War, and the disputed presidential election of 1876.

Sheridan's experiences in the Civil War, when he concluded that destroying people's supplies was more effective than destroying people, shaped his views on dealing with the Indians of the plains who were defending their homelands. His direction of the winter campaign (1868-1869), which involved a volunteer regiment raised in Kansas, the Red River war (1874-1875), and the Great Sioux war (1876-1877) are evaluated by Hutton. Sheridan's plan for converging columns of troops to defeat the Indians was successful in the first two campaigns and a failure in the third. Despite setbacks, the troops under Sheridan's command did force most of the Indians to accept assigned reservations.

Much of this story of the army during the era is not new, but Hutton's contribution to military history lies mainly in his ability to show how Sheridan was related to and involved in the events of his times, an involvement that produced both positive and negative results. Sheridan remained politically naive, bound to military tradition, and loyal to his nation and friends. Some readers will desire more details about Sheridan's personal life than are available because of a paucity of intimate personal papers. How-



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ever, there is sufficient information from sources close to Sheridan to provide a glimpse of the man as well as of the general. Free from prejudices and errors, except for "Smokey" instead of "Smoky" Hill River in Kansas, this handsome volume, with good maps and illustrations, fills what has been a gap in military history and biography. For several reasons, including an absence of personal papers, Sheridan is the last of the officers of his era to receive the attention of a qualified biographer. The result was worth the wait, and Hutton's efforts will stand as the definitive work on Sheridan and his army.

Reviewed by Leo E. Oliva, visiting professor of history at Fort Hays State University and author of books on Forts Hays, Scott, and Larned.

Tribal Dispossession and the Ottawa Indian University Fraud

by William E. Unrau and H. Craig Miner

xii + 212 pages, illustrations, maps, notes, bibliography, index. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1985, \$17.95.

THIS BOOK TELLS how in 1862 the Ottawas were tricked into giving twenty thousand acres of their land in eastern Kansas to establish and endow a university. The university, originally named for Roger Williams, was never used by the Ottawas, who moved to Indian Territory (Oklahoma) in 1867. Instead it became the Baptist Ottawa University in Franklin County, still in existence today. The authors set out to explain and document the deception, reminding us that each case of fraud against the Indians is unique.

Unrau and Miner examine the deception that was accomplished in the name of education, a process closely identified with civilization and Christianity and one held dear in the republic. They document the paradox of education as the key to both progress and to self-aggrandizement, a paradox they see as the crux of the fraud. In their view, government officials and churchmen were not in all cases cynically manipulating values deeply held but rather exhibiting the mindset of "wilderness entrepreneurs," a term the authors use to describe such men as C. C. Hutchinson, John T. "Ottawa" Jones, and Isaac Kalloch. These men "mixed piety with ambition, seeing no essential conflict between material gain and God's calling them to instruct the less wise in the workings of civilization." Material gain was undoubtedly a goal since, as the authors point out, building a school was often an effective means of promoting a town. The authors unabashedly declare their intention to make moral judgments about the history they record. By explaining the particulars of the deception practiced by the promoters of the university scheme, they attempt to discourage the repetition of similar schemes.

The book introduces the reader to familiar characters and themes in U.S. history: factions and conflicts between traditionalists and nontraditionalists within the tribe; exploitation and manipulation of these differences by self-serving leaders, Indian and white; divisiveness and competition within the Baptist church and between it and other denominations; drunkenness as an irresistible temptation among the Indians ("We care not for the land, the money or the goods, it is the whiskey we want—give us the whiskey," they quote a Pottawatomie elder as saying). The virgin prairies of Kansas were a place to start afresh and make money for those from the East whose reputations had been tarnished. The beauty of this book is in its analysis of the specific historical situation of the Ottawa fraud, tying it to these larger themes.

The Ottawa University land fraud and its treatment by Unrau and Miner can stand as a brief historical synopsis of the way Indian tribes have been treated by Americans for more than two hundred years. The fraud is a sad but typical part of Indian/white relations in U.S. history. But its ending is not quite so sad. In 1967 Congress approved and appropriated more than \$400,000 to be awarded to the 630 members of the Ottawa of Oklahoma in recognition of the land the tribe had lost a century ago. At least in the past several years the U.S. government has, in a few cases, tried to rectify past injustices. In the case of the Ottawa University fraud, the government has made "legal atonement if not absolute restitution."

Reviewed by Lois Nettleship, professor of history at Johnson County Community College and director of the Johnson County Center for Local History, which recently prepared an exhibit and a television series on the Shawnee Indian Mission in Fairway.

Indians, Cattle, Ships, and Oil: The Story of W. M. D. Lee

by Donald F. Schofield

x + 205 pages, illustrations, maps, notes, bibliography, index. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1985, \$19.95.

ONALD SCHOFIELD, city judge of Amarillo, Texas, has written an account of the business life of William McDole Lee. Lee, born in the Susquehanna Valley of Pennsylvania in 1841, lived with his family in Portage, Wisconsin, from 1844 to 1850. Going on his own, Lee held several jobs in frontier Kansas before enlisting in the Union army. After the war he returned to Kansas and by 1869 resided in Leavenworth. For most of his business career he lived there, but he moved to Houston, Texas, before his death in 1925. As a businessman, he was involved in Indian trade, cattle ranching, ship channel construction, shipping, oil exploration, and finally real estate.



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In 1869, with Albert E. Reynolds as a partner, Lee was trading with the Indians and supplying troops at Camp Supply, Indian Territory. As a competitor of the Dodge City buffalo hide hunters, Lee was suspected of telling the Indians the white hunters' location prior to the battle of Adobe Walls. Lee and Reynolds also paid bribes to government officials, although they were not directly involved in the William Belknap scandal of the U. S. Grant era.

The partners left the buffalo hide business when profits declined and turned to cattle ranching near Camp Supply. Later, Lee was one of the first cattlemen in the Texas Panhandle. He eventually ruled a ranching empire that stretched from his home in Leavenworth, Kansas, to the Texas and Montana ranges. His partnership with Lucien Scott on the vast LS ranch had the famed XIT ranch as a neighbor. Lee showed his business acumen by introducing Aberdeen-Angus to the western range. After unsuccessful efforts to bargain with his employees over salaries during the cowboy strike of 1883, the rancher "blackballed" the cowboys in the following seasons.

By 1888, Lee was interested in developing a deep-water port at Velasco, Texas. Schofield traces the financial difficulties in this project, which ultimately resulted in the growth of Houston. Lee was also involved in shipping along much of the Texas and Louisiana coast at this time, thus his personal profits continued even when he lost control of the deep-water port project. After his past successes, one might have expected Lee to slow down, but instead he brought in one of the earliest oil wells south of Houston.

Schofield has written an interesting account of a Great Plains entrepreneur that shows the interrelated nature of businesses in five states. He has used numerous primary sources for this study including interviews, letters, and documents. However, he should have used some of the standard secondary works for perspective of the events he portrays. For instance on the Cheyenne and Arapaho, he did not use George Bird Grinnell or Donald Berthrong. And on the range cattle industry he failed to consult the works of Ernest Osgood, E. E. Dale, Louis Pelzer, Walter P. Webb, Robert Athearn, Robert Dysktra, and Jimmie Skaggs among others. All in all Schofield's work is a contribution to the understanding of the economic development of the Great Plains and to the activities of a regional entrepreneur in the age of business expansion.

Reviewed by Thomas R. Walther, professor of history at Pittsburg State University.

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ERRATA, VOLUME V

Page 89, col. 1, line 4, Charlestown, Virginia (now Charleston, West Virginia) should be Charles Town, Virginia (now West Virginia). Page 91, col. 1, line 21, Big Sugar Creek should be Little Sugar Creek.

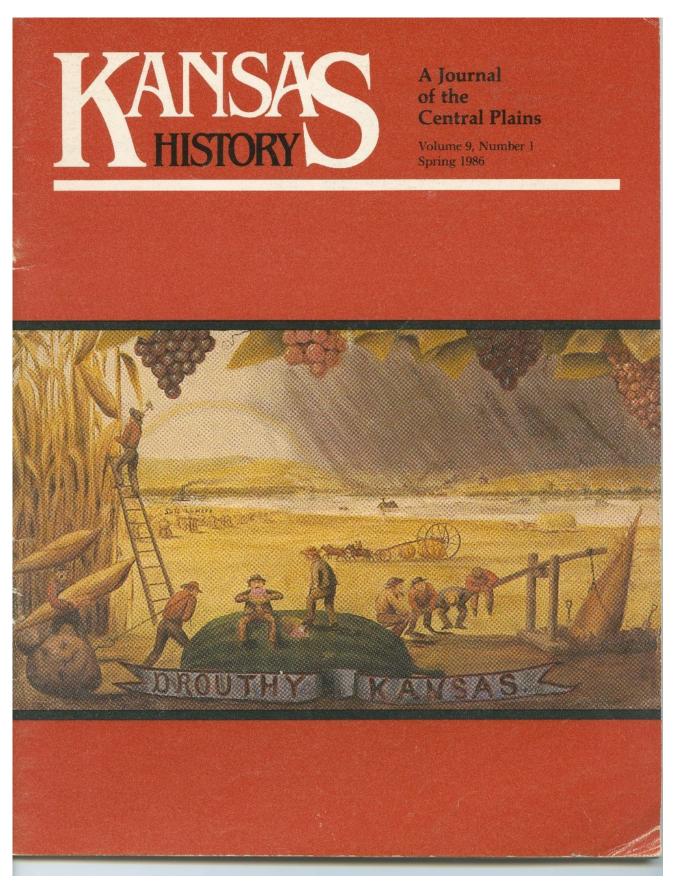


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Cover: Drouthy Kansas—the land of plentiful rainfall and mammoth harvests—was artist Henry Worrall's answer to his Eastern friends' derogatory view of the state. Originally worked in charcoal, Drouthy Kansas was recreated in oil in 1878, and became so popular that it appeared on brochures encouraging settlement in Kansas.

While Worrall gave a visual version of Kansas life, others were providing a written commentary for friends and family back East. In this issue of *Kansas History*, the perceptions recorded in letters written by newly arrived settlers are examined. "Kansas Frontierswomen

Viewed Through Their Writings" discusses the often overlooked sources for studying women's reactions to their environment and presents letters written by a mother and daughter during the territorial period. "Letters from Paradise" examines the descriptions and accounts written by newly settled Pennsylvanians to their home county newspapers. Although there are accounts of border ruffians and grasshopper ravages, the letters also praise the Kansas land, beauty and productivity, agreeing in spirit with Worrall's vision of his adopted state.



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KANSAS HISTORY

Kansas History (USPS 290 620) is published quarterly by the Kansas State Historical Society, 120 West Tenth Street, Topeka, Kansas 66612-1291. It is distributed without charge to members of the Kansas State Historical Society. Membership dues are as follows: student, \$7.50; individual, \$15.00; family, \$25.00; organization, \$25.00; corporate (annual), \$100.00; life, \$500.00. Membership dues should be sent to Robert W. Richmond, treasurer. Single issues, when available, are \$4.00.

The Society assumes no responsibility for statements of fact or opinion made by contributors.

Second-class postage paid at Topeka, Kansas. Postmaster: Send address changes to Kansas History, 120 West Tenth Street, Topeka, Kansas 66612-1291.

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Articles appearing in Kansas History are abstracted and/or indexed in Historical Abstracts and America: History and Life.

Layout and production: H. M. Ives and Sons, Inc. \Box

Typesetting: H. M. Ives and Sons, Inc. Printed by H. M. Ives and Sons, Inc. Topeka, Kansas Volume 9 Spring 1986 Number 1

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Kansas Frontierswomen Viewed Through Their Writings

by Glenda Riley

NTIL VERY RECENTLY, descriptions of frontiers-women have been couched in legend, stereotype, and hyperbole. Drawing upon fictional accounts, media images, and historical studies derived from limited source materials, scholars and others interested in western women have found more myth than reality in their search for enlightenment. Consequently, frontierswomen traditionally have been portrayed as Gentle Tamers, Pioneers in Petticoats, Saints in Sunbonnets, Madonnas of the Prairies, Pioneer Mothers, Light Ladies, Calamity Janes, and Fighting Feminists.

The document series, of which this is the first installment, will illustrate the importance of turning to the writings of western women for insight and understanding. Until the mid-1970s, it seldom occurred to researchers and writers to explore such women's documents as diaries, letters, and memoirs for first-hand information. Instead, they relied upon such dramatic statements as that made by historian Emerson Hough in 1921 describing the "gaunt and sad-faced woman sitting on the front seat of the wagon, following her lord where he might lead, her face hidden in the same ragged sunbonnet which had crossed the Appalachians and the Missouri long before" as the "great romance of all America."1 They also turned to historian Everett Dick, who in 1966 added that, "how much of the retreat from the frontier from time to time was due to the figure in the sunbonnet and calico, is not known, but it is certain that many stayed until the prairie broke them in spirit and body."2

Most investigators accepted these descriptions of frontierswomen that presented them as downcast and pathetic beings. Helena Huntington Smith, writing in 1958, was one of the few to argue that such a "long lamentation" about the drab and harsh quality of frontierswomen's lives was immensely exaggerated. "The emptiness of the Great Plains is thought to be peculiarly depressing to the fair sex," she noted, "but when we reach the Pacific Northwest it turns out that the trees were what got them down." Smith agreed that women's lives were "tough," but, she added of the women themselves, "so were they." "s

The image of the Kansas frontierswoman has been a particularly difficult one to discern fairly and accurately. Living in a region beset by a bloody struggle over black slavery and the terror of "border ruffians" 4 during the 1850s, the problems of the Civil War, reoccurring episodes of drought and tornadoes and grasshopper invasions, Kansas pioneer women are often assumed to have lived troubled, unbearable lives. This view was often reinforced by Kansas women themselves. Anne E. Bingham, homesteading with her husband in the 1870s and 1880s, wrote: "It had been bleeding Kansas, droughty Kansas, the state of cyclones, the state of cranks, the state of mortgages-and now the grasshopper fame had come!" She added that these were times that she "wouldn't have given the snap of my fingers for the whole of Kansas."5

Over half a century later, writer Meridel LeSueur presented Kansas is a similarly unattractive way. In a 1931 essay, LeSueur insisted that she would "never recover" from her "sparse childhood in Kansas" of the early twentieth century. She recalled "fear everywhere on the streets in the gray winter of the land, and the curious death in the air, the bright surface activities of the pioneer town and the curious air dissipating powers of fear and hate." LeSueur's essay, which won first place in a Scribner's Magazine contest seeking

Glenda Riley is a professor of history and director of the women's studies program at the University of Northern Iowa. Dr. Riley is currently completing The Female Frontier: A Comparative View of Women on the Prairie and Plains which is scheduled for a fall 1987 release by the University of Kansas press.

Emerson Hough, The Passing of the Frontier (New Haven: /ale University Press, 1921), 93.

Yale University Press, 1921), 93.
2. Everett Dick, "Sunbonnet and Calico, the Homesteader's Consort," Nebraska History 47 (March 1966): 13. See also Everett N. Dick, The Sod-House Frontier, 1854-1890 (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937).

Helena H. Smith, "Pioneers in Petticoats," American Heritage 10. (February 1959): 36, 103.

^{4.} Border ruffians were lawless men who stole, pillaged, and terrorized free-state supporters. Horace Greeley coined the term "border ruffians" to apply to Missouri Senator David Atchison's three thousand volunteer Missourians who marched on "Bleeding Kansas" in 1856 in support of slavery.

in 1856 in support of slavery.
5. Anne E. Bingham, "Sixteen Years on a Kansas Farm, 1870-1886," Kansas Historical Collections 15 (1923): 516.



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Kansas Frontierswomen

3

"what is true and valid in our own culture," concluded with another depressing thought:

I have seen your beauty and your terror and your evil. I have come from you mysteriously wounded. I have waked from my adolescence to find a wound inflicted on the deep heart. And I have seen it in others too, in disabled men and sour women made ugly by ambition, mortified in the flesh and wounded in love.⁶

Yet this is the same Kansas that Senator Charles Sumner characterized in the 1850s as a land of "unsurpassed richness, and a surface of fascinating, undulating beauty; with a health-giving climate, calculated to nurture a powerful and generous people, worthy to be a central pivot of American institutions."7 Some women settlers gradually adopted this highly favorable view of the region. One, who came to Kansas during the early 1870s, remembered that her "wedding journey landed us in Kansas; the end of the world, it seemed to me then." Yet, only a few years later on a long-awaited visit to her family in Philadelphia, she found herself "lauding Kansas to the skies." She was overwhelmed by the overcrowding and polluted air in the city and welcomed her return to Kansas. She later commented that: "I had not met any people since I came east to compare with my friends in the West. We didn't speak the same language. Like a flash it came to me-in the West we were doing things, we were creating, building up a great commonwealth. Had I my choice, I wouldn't live any other place in the world."8

Other Kansas women also believed that the region offered many benefits. One who settled there in the early 1880s remarked that her poor health improved markedly as a result of her move to Kansas. Others took up homesteads which they successfully "proved up." Still others chose to stay in Kansas after the death of a spouse, preferring to work the farm and raise their children on their own rather than return to their former homes in the East. 11

Clearly, there is great variation in the experiences, perspectives, and outlooks of Kansas frontierswomen.

- 6. Meridel LeSueur, "Corn Village," Scribner's Magazine 90 (August 1931): 133, 140.
- 7. Quoted in Robert P. Porter, The West: From the Census of 1880 (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1882), 333.
- 8. Florence Marshall Stote, trans, "Of Such is the Middle West: The Early Life and Prairie Years of Margaret Fulton Marshall, a Pioneer Wife and Mother," undated, Manuscripts Department, Kansas State Historical Society.
- Kansas State Historical Society.

 9. Ada Martin interview, March 15, 1980, transcription, Manuscripts Department, Kansas State Historical Society.
- 10. See for example Catharine Wiggins Porter, "Sunday School Houses and Normal Institutes: Pupil and Teacher in Northern Kansas, 1886-1895," reprint copy, Manuscripts Department, Kansas State Historical Society. See also, Kenneth Wiggins Porter, ed., "Catharine Emma Wiggins, Pupil and Teacher in Northwest Kansas, 1888-1895," Kansas History 1 (Spring 1978): 16-38.



Lucy A. Carruth, pictured here as a young woman in Lawrence, arrived in Kansas in 1856 at the age of eleven. Her written record of the state's territorial days expresses enthusiasm and, at times, a maturity which belied her age.

Like western women in general, they cannot easily be categorized as "reluctant settlers" or "plucky pioneers." Rather, their lives must be explored individually through the legacy of their own words. Only their letters, diaries, and reminiscences can reveal the details of their lives in early Kansas and their responses to the vicissitudes of the frontier. This series will present a number of Kansas frontierswomen's documents, each exposing one segment of the complex story of westering women in Kansas.

The first of these are letters from Jane and Lucy Carruth who came to a claim south of Osawatomie in June 1856.¹² They came to Kansas Territory with James

- 11. See for example Mary C. Hembree, "Pioneer Days in Kansas," 1950, reminiscence, Manuscripts Department, Kansas State Historical Society.
- 12. Jane G. and Lucy A. Carruth, Carruth Letters, 1856, Manuscripts Department, Kansas State Historical Society.



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Kansas History

Harrison Carruth, Jane's husband and Lucy's father. Jane, who was formerly Jane Grant, was born in central New York in 1824 and married Carruth in 1841. Lucy, born in Cherry Valley, New York, in 1845, was the first of their children. Four brothers followed her, three born in New York and the last in Kansas in 1859.

James Carruth, a well-educated man who had studied at both Amherst College and Yale University, was drawn to Kansas because of his free-state sympathies. Here, he and his family worked a quarter-section claim in a neighborhood that included two widow homesteaders, a Quaker family, 13 and a proslavery family. The Carruths hung on despite buffeting from border ruffians, war, and forces of nature. Sometime during the mid-1860s, Carruth was "elected to a professorship" of natural sciences at Baker University, Baldwin City, Kansas. Shortly thereafter, he and his family moved to Lawrence where he "served as a minister to a church in nearby Clinton."

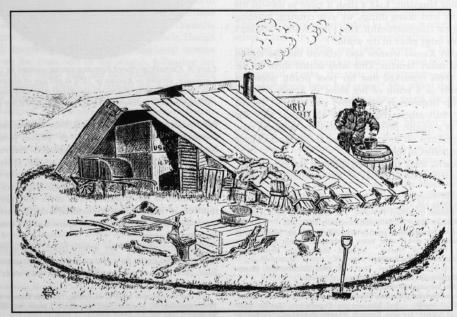
Lawrence was the family home for some twenty-five years. It was there that Jane died in 1875. Also in Lawrence, Lucy married E. W. Woods, raised her family,

13. James H. Carruth to L. Ingalls, Sept. 1, 1856, Carruth Letters, 856.

and died in 1897. In 1883, James remarried. After his retirement in 1892, the couple lived in New Mexico, Texas, and Arkansas.¹⁴

The following letters were written by Lucy and Jane in 1856. They were published in that same year under the title "Life Pictures in Kansas, 1856" in the New York Reformer, a newspaper in the Carruths' hometown of Watertown, New York. The letters are held by the Manuscripts Department of the Kansas State Historical Society in Topeka and are presented here in their entirety without any editorial changes in spelling or punctuation. The letters give insight into the incendiary situation in Kansas in 1856, particularly from the free-state point of view. They are also filled with details of daily living, but perhaps more importantly, with a buoyancy and optimism that explains why many settlers sought a new life in the West.

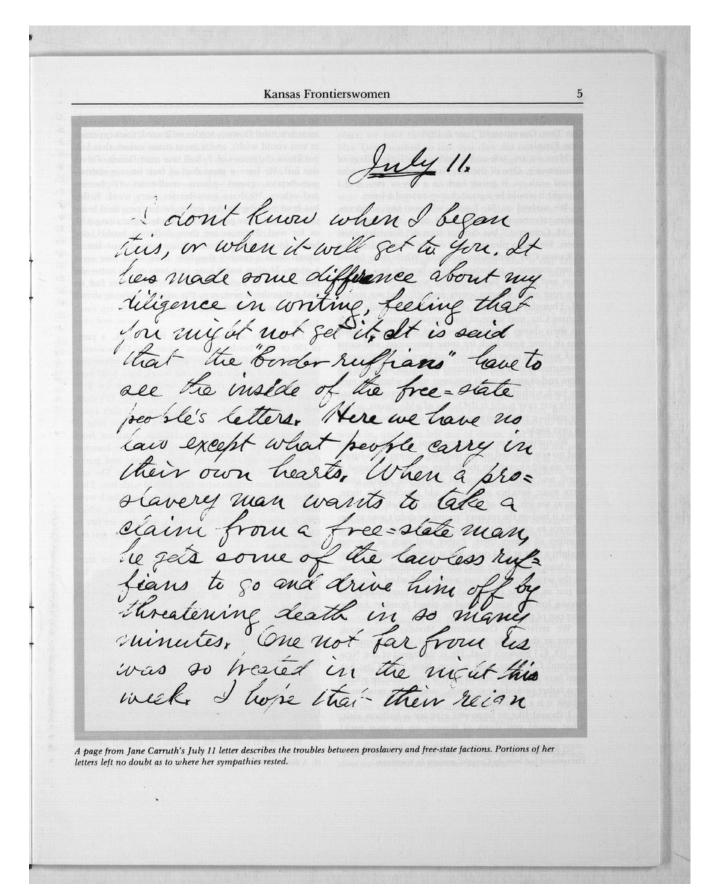
14. Harry Jasper Harris, "My Story," Kansas Historical Collections 15 (1923): 557, n 6; Ronald L. McGregor and Ralph E. Brooks, James H. Carruth and Disposition of His New Names Based on Kansas Plants, Contributions from The University of Kansas Herbarium no. 1 (The University of Kansas, 1982), 1. Sources differ on the date of the Carruths' move to Lawrence: Collections gives the date as 1866 and Albert T. Carruth in his 1905 introduction to the Carruth family letters agrees; McGregor and Brooks, however, state that the move was made in 1868.



Although Jane Carruth had imagined that she, like many settlers, would at first live in a shanty, her family instead made a tent their home.



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6

Kansas History

LUCY A. CARRUTH TO FANNIE SNYDER¹⁵ Out Tent, Osawatomie, June 1, 1856 Dear Fannie:

Here we are, safe and sound, in the little village of Osawatomie. One of the Mr. Grants, of Antwerp, who started with us, is going back in a day or two, and I thought it would be a good chance to send a letter.

We arrived at St. Louis, without any accidents, Friday afternoon, the 6th, and took the steamboat "J. M. Converse," but did not start till Saturday afternoon. We had a pleasant time on the boat, and arrived at Kansas City Wednesday morning. While there fifteen of our company, including father, bought two yoke of oxen and a great, large traveling wagon (it looks just like your meat wagons, cover and all), and we started off Thursday afternoon. We got about a mile from Kansas City, and some of the company wanted to pack up their things a little closer, and we stopped there; two or three went back for some provisions, and came back with the news that word had been sent to Westport [presumably to border ruffians] to stop us when we got there and examine us. It was near night when the men got back with the provisions, and they thought we had better stay over night at the house of a Mr. Smart, across the road-a pro-slavery man-who said he would keep us over night.

We started the next morning; went through Westport and no one touched us; we stopped at noon for a lunch near an old church on the Indian reservation; found it open, and went in. It was all dirt in the inside; there were some benches and a few old candlesticks there. Just as we left, one of the men rang the bell, but what effect it had on the country 'round we didn't wait to see. I forgot to say that there was a burying-ground and a number of graves there. Father and each of the rest bought a tent at St. Louis, and at night we camped out.

About noon of the next day we found that we were on the wrong road; we met a man and asked him, and he put us on the right road again. In consequence of having lost the way, we had to travel Sunday; for we were out of provisions.

We arrived at Osawatomie Monday noon; took dinner at the public house, and put up our tents on Mr. [O. C.] Brown's land. He is the agent of the New England Company, and is from New York City; has been here a year. We stayed there a week, during which time father picked out a "claim," and we are now on it. I think it is a beautiful one.

I should like to have you give me a balloon visit. What would you think of flowers up to your neck!

Here is spiderwort, phlox, prairie pea, wild verberra (a most beautiful flower), scarlet milkweed, roses (as many as you could wish), and a great many others that I do not know the names of. I shall save many kinds of seeds this fall. We have a great deal of fruit on our claimgooseberries, grapes, plums, mulberries, raspberries, and others. We have gooseberries every meal. Father has been making garden today; he has peas and beans planted, and a few potatoes that we brought along with us for seed. Potatoes are three dollars a bushel, and beans four dollars. Some things are cheap-butter, fifteen cents a pound; shoulder, nine; milk, five cents a quart. Mother and I have just been to cut some dry prairie-grass to make some beds. Night before last we had a thundershower; now the wind is blowing dreadfully. It has sprinkled some.

July 9

Last Friday afternoon, about five o'clock, a party of 150 or 160 "border ruffians" came into Osawatomie, rode up to Mr. Geer's (who keeps a public house and store), opened all the trunks and boxes, took \$400 from a man-one of our company-and a check for \$100 from another; took all the jewelry out of Mr. G's store, and all the guns and rifles (ten or twelve) they could find about there; stole twenty horses and one voke of oxen; went to the house of Mr. Dayton, a printer, from New York City; the family were not at home; knocked the windows all in, opened all the trunks and boxes, and asked the hired girl where the press was. She said she would not tell, do what they would with her. They tore down one other house, and left, but sent back word that they were coming to burn the place to-day, which they have not done. I forgot to say that they set fire to Mr. Geer's house two or three times, but it was put out

Our claim is between three and four miles from the village, so that we did not see anything of this; but it is reliable notwithstanding. We are about eighteen miles from the line of Missouri, exactly west from St. Louis.

Lucy Carruth

JANE G. CARRUTH TO MELINDA EVANS¹⁶ Osawatomie, K. T. [1856] Dear Cousin Melinda:

I have kept my promise so well in writing to you that I need make no apology; it is enough to say that I have but *little* to occupy me in this land of promise. I wish that you and many more could see with you[r] own eyes; you would almost think that you were in the same garden that our Mother Eve was in. James

Presumably a member of the Reverend Peter Snyder's family.
 The reverend had been the Carruths' minister in Watertown.

16. A distant cousin to James H. Carruth.



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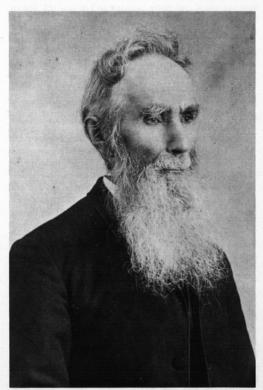
Kansas Frontierswomen

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was afraid it would be too level for him, but in that he is disappointed—such beautiful swells of land; I cannot convey its beauty to your mind.

We arrived here safe and pretty sound, considering all things, and are quite happy in our tent on the ground. The land surveyors have been around to-day, and it don't give us quite the spot that we expected; but it is all good, only we love to get the best. The heavy timbered claims are all taken about the country, but good chances for buying out those occur often.

We have corn growing in the field, and peas and beans and potatoes in the garden. Things don't mope here; they jump. We have not heard from our things yet, but think they must be in Kansas City by this time; but we don't have a mail but once a week, so that we don't get the news in a minute. What things we have were lent to us.



James H. Carruth, his wife, and family came to Kansas in 1856. A minister and a teacher of natural sciences, he later served as Kansas' state botanist.

You may ask, "What have you to use?" In the first place, we have two sheets that I had in my trunk that Mrs. Dorn washed so late that they did not get packed with the rest; those we have basted together and filled with prairie-grass; that, crosswise, makes a bed for all our family; under it we have brush, to prevent dampness; everything being put out of doors every day, and our tent raised from the ground to air it perfectly. Some young men of our company who had trunks of bedding lent us some, so that we have a very good bed and sleep very sound.

Now, for eating, our old bread chest is our table. I had two bowls and some cups in one trunk, and our old knives and some spoons, and at Kansas City our company bought some tin plates, so that we have three of those; those, together with some pail covers, when we have company, make our dinner dishes; for stove I have all outdoors; for oven I have a spider [longhandled frying pan with legs] a little larger than ours, belonging to one of our company. In this I have had some good shortcakes and fried cakes and pancakes; once I went a mile and baked some raised bread at a neighbor's. I have one iron kettle that will hold a pailful, and a teakettle that was lent me by a Mrs. Brown, from New York City; the kettle had been used to whitewash in, and then left out of doors, and I can assure you that it has had many a cleaning to get it fit for use. This I use to heat water, wash dishes and boil clothes in, and then have to clean it to make hasty pudding in.

Most of my work has to be done outdoors and at a great disadvantage. My arms have been blistered from my elbows to my hands. James¹⁷ has had his back blistered once. We all look as though we belonged to the South in earnest. Albert's [her second son] face peels off every few days, his skin is so tender. Walter [her third son]¹⁸ runs into all the mischief he can find. Having no table to work on makes my work very handy for him to "help." He is almost the color of the Spanish Santa Fe traders that pass through Kansas City.

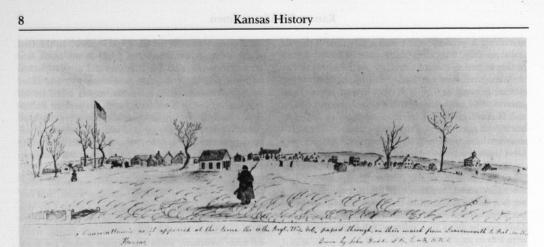
July 5th we received letters from Mr. and Mrs. Snyder, also papers the 1st day of July. They were very welcome.

Mrs. S. wants to hear all the little particulars; so that, if you will, you may let her read this. She wants to know what we have to eat. We have a cow that gives four or five quarts a day; will be a new-milk cow this fall. We have bread, hasty pudding (my favorite dish, also the children's), shoulder, butter, tea, coffee, gooseberries (the wild, very nice). I had some dried fruit with

^{17.} Either husband or oldest son, who shared the same first name.
18. This third son was Charles Walter, born in 1855, and only about one year old at the time letter was written.



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Recorded in this 1862 drawing is Osawatomie as it must have appeared to the Carruth family before their move.

me. I have had some fried cakes. This is about the substance of our fare. If we always have as good we shall not get very lean. Yesterday, July 4th, I had calls from five ladies at one time, some of them from town; some of them have hard times here. They have passed two winters here—the first delightful; the last, like ours at the North, severe. We have had very hot weather all the time since we arrived in the territory. The thermometer stands, at eleven, at 104 in the shade, but I like it. We don't have, or have not yet had, any of those sudden changes. The country and climate are very delightful.

On our claim you can see twenty miles or more. We have land that is 100 feet above the river; it is so charming that I wish, and often, too, that I could lend Mr. Snyder my eyes [Snyder was blind] and have him here a little while. When viewing it, my mind involuntarily reverts to Doctor Watts's,

'All on those wide, extended plains Shines one eternal day.'

How I wish that thousands of our poor but worthy people could be transferred here; what homes they could have, instead of spending a poor existence where they never can rise above poverty. It is dear living here at present, but as soon as people can raise things it will be cheap.

July 1

I don't know when I began this, or when it will get to you. It has made some difference about my diligence in writing, feeling that you might not get it. It is said that the "border ruffians" have to see the inside of the free-state people's letters. Here we have no law except what people carry in their own hearts. When a proslavery man wants to take a claim from a free-state man, he gets some of the lawless ruffians to go and drive him off by threatening death in so many minutes. One not far from us was so treated in the night this week. I hope that their reign is almost over. If the people at the North could only see how little real principle there is in the slave power, they would never kneel or bow down to it any more, but, let civil war or disunion or what not come, stand for right until the curse of our nation is driven into the gulf below it.

I write this with baby in lap, holding book on my knee. I hope that you will enjoy the reading as much as I do the writing. I often wish that I could monopolize a telegraph. I would often hold converse with my dear friends in Watertown; but with children in my lap and at my elbows, I find little time for correspondence. Lucy has been sick for two weeks; is getting better. Most of our Jefferson county (N.Y.) boys have been sick; they have worked too hard.

I don't know what to say about your coming here. I think you would do well here. They have no milliner here; but how well you would get through I don't know. It is said that two companies from Indiana have been robbed and sent back to Alton [Illinois]. One of the Grants has gone back, and when the other is going we don't know, but not soon. If you could get in one of those companies that we came in, you would get along well enough.

I must stop, for James is going to town, and I want you should get a letter from Kansas. There are good chances to buy out good timber claims from those who want to leave. I think it will be hard to drive the free-state people from Kansas; they came to stay, and they calculated to do so.