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The controversy that refused to die.
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The Capital Controversy

In this issue of COLUMBIA we continue our series of centennial related essays, featuring the Honorable James M. Dolliver's personal assessment of Washington's constitution, drafted 100 summers ago (p.18). In sidebars to our main article, Doris Pieroth and Charles LeWarne address two of the central issues of the late nineteenth century and our constitutional convention, women's suffrage and prohibitionism. One other favorite topic in parlors and saloons of Washington a century ago was the location of the seat of government.

Washington is one of the few states that has always had the same capital city. First territorial governor Isaac Stevens gave Olympia the nod originally because it was the largest town on Puget Sound, from which region the movement to divide Oregon into two territories originated; and it had the only printing press!

Throughout the 1850s the other rustic towns of the territory, most notably Vancouver, skirmished with the interests that favored Olympia as the seat of government. These efforts came to naught, but with the dramatic growth in the territory's population in the 1880s, when the question of the capital for the soon-to-be state of Washington came up, one new factor had to be considered: a substantial portion of the people now lived east of the Cascades. The boomtowns of central Washington, Ellensburg and North Yakima (as Yakima used to be called; what was "Yakima" in 1889 is now Union Gap), put forth the most serious campaigns to wrest the capital from Olympia.

At the constitutional convention the delegates debated whether the capital should remain in the west, where the majority of the population lived, or whether it should be moved to central Washington, where all sections of the state would have equal access to their government. The convention failed to develop a consensus on this issue, so it opted to let the voters decide in a supplementary ballot proposition next to the main issue: adoption of the constitution.

In the six weeks between the end of the convention and election day, the press was filled with arguments for and against the "candidates" for capital. Most observers saw Olympia's advantages in its moral political climate, hotels, and proximity to Tacoma and Seattle. Its chief drawback was the absence of first-rate rail connections to the Northern Pacific mainline.

North Yakima's supporters offered Ellensburg, not Olympia, as the point of comparison, realizing that if they went against Olympia alone they could monopolize the anti-Olympia vote, and not have to share it. A different kind of railroad issue hurt North Yakima. True, it was on the new Northern Pacific route over Stampede Pass, but its "boomer" upstart status and association with the often unpopular railroad brought some criticism.

Ellensburg's chances were hurt at the beginning of this race when one of Washington's great fires of 1889 burned its entire business section. The town rebuilt itself quickly and fired comparatively well in the "primary" election of October 1, 1889, garnering 12,833 votes. Olympia had a plurality of 25,490, North Yakima was second with 14,711, and 2,100 votes went to other communities on the open write-in ballot.

But the issue was not decided with this election because the convention's ballot proposition said a city must garner a majority of the vote to claim the title. In a runoff election held one year later, the top three vote-getters went on the ballot again; but with the success of the 1889 vote behind it, only partisans of Olympia campaigned. In the 1890 vote, Olympia received 37,413 votes; Ellensburg, 7,722; and North Yakima, 6,276.

Olympia won the right to be the state capital, though in the years since it took the construction of the grandiose capitol group and a Washington Supreme Court decision to keep it there. But this little footnote to the constitutional convention of 1889 raises a question: If Washingtonians are to take their cue from the Federal bicentennial which has been running since before 1976, does that mean we can extend our centennial celebration into 1990? Certainly the city of Olympia will have cause to celebrate the "other centennial" in the "other Washington."

—David L. Nicandri, Director

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The great train/automobile race to Ashford from Tacoma.

Front cover: The Pacific Brewing & Malting Company, headquartered in Tacoma, adhered to the host community’s view by referring to “Mt. Tacoma” in its advertising. The cover image is taken from a Pacific Beer serving tray. The company went out of business in 1933 with the onset of prohibition in Washington. The label was later purchased by Rainier Brewing Company after the end of national prohibition in 1933. (Courtesy of Bill Mugrage, Lynnwood, the Society also wishes to acknowledge the support of the Rainier Brewing Company Foundation.) Back cover: Ever enter­prising and resourceful, Thea Foss (a member of the WSHS Hall of Honor) provided the inspiration and at least half of the driving force behind the conception and growth of the Foss Launch and Tug Company. From a modest beginning as a rowboat rental business serving recreational boaters in Tacoma, Thea and her family eventually developed a fleet of launches and outboard boats working up and down the Pacific Coast. (Courtesy of Foss Maritime Company)
“The Future of the Past”

The teaching of history generally has been long neglected. It is essential that this neglect end. Persons who lack an understanding of how the affairs of democracy came to be should not be sitting in decision-making positions; nor, for that matter, should persons historically ignorant be making decisions at the polls.

Other countries don't need them either, but they get them. Consider the disaster that befell Russia in its foredoomed attempt at conquest in Afghanistan. When it was an empire, Great Britain tried twice to conquer that unconquerable nation, both times underestimating the capacity of an ancient people to defend their homeland. Today's Russian leaders should have known better.

History is so fascinating that the entertainment industry, unlike educators, does not neglect it. As a consequence, we are exposed to a great deal of history that, unbeknownst to us, is distorted. Historical fiction, published or dramatized, makes of the past a kind of caricature of reality. Those who watched the television mini-series "Lonesome Dove" saw what may be a theatrical masterpiece; but in order to make the great deal of history that, unbeknownst to us, is distorted. Historical fiction, published or dramatized, makes of the past a kind of caricature of reality. Those who watched the television mini-series "Lonesome Dove" saw what may be a theatrical masterpiece; but in order to make the driving of a herd of cattle from Texas to Montana in the nineteenth century fascinating enough to sell uncounted TV commercials running over four consecutive evenings, it was necessary to have children as well as attractive women accompany the sweaty company of cowboys, and to have blood flowing in shootings, knifeings, scalping, attempted rape, head batterings and lynchings in scene after shocking scene. The screen writers could argue that such things did occur at some point in the history of cattle drives, but to have them all happen in one drive is distortion, causing viewers to conclude that if it hadn't been for the good guys taking unerring aim with Colt revolvers, the West would never have been won from savage Indians and outlaws.

It might be argued that there was no harm done because people really know better. But they don't, most of them. How could they, considering to what extent the teaching of history has been neglected in modern times?

The Bradley Commission on History in the Schools, appointed in 1987, produced a book entitled, The Future of the Past: The Flight of History in American Education. It is a poor condition indeed that the Commission reports on the number of required courses in history has declined and the courses taught are so rushed they are superficial and often do not even reach the twentieth century. The Commission makes this significant comment:

"History belongs in the school program of all students, regardless of their academic standing and preparation, or their curricular track, or of their plans for the future. It is vital for all citizens in a democracy, because it provides the only avenues we have to reach an understand-

ing of ourselves and of our society, in relation to the human condition over time, and of how some things change and others continue."

The educational establishment has not been giving history its due mainly because of preoccupation with what it considers more compelling areas of knowledge to be implanted in the minds of young people growing up amidst the scientific and electronic complexities of these times. College and university courses in regional and national American history have been too few or given too little emphasis by educators who believe that a study of history doesn't help much with a career, unless one wants to be a history teacher. And so few of these have been trained that high schools often don't have on their faculties anyone capable of teaching a well organized, interesting-to-students course in Pacific Northwest history.

This is not a new complaint. In 1975 the board of curators of the State Historical Society found that it did not know the answer to the question of whether teachers who are certified in Washington must have completed a course in Pacific Northwest or Washington history. It asked the Superintendent of Public Instruction. He couldn't answer yes. The State Board of Education then bestirred itself, held a public hearing and acted to "strengthen the competence of those teaching State or Northwest history" by ruling that no one could undertake to teach such history if he or she had not studied what was to be taught. This was a major step because previously only those education majors who expected to teach history were required to take a course in it.

This does not mean, however, that residents in Washington, out of high school since 1975, are as knowledgeable about their own region's history as they should be. It is one thing to offer a course and quite another to make it interesting, and do it without showing film strips from such dramas as "Lonesome Dove" or "Gunsmoke."

The Department of History at the University of Washington is taking a significant step toward the advancement of regional history study and should be applauded by all who are concerned. At the instigation of Jere Bachrach, the chairman, and Joe Norman, Jr., dean of the College of Arts and Sciences, it is establishing a Pacific Northwest Studies Center which will be concerned with much more than curriculum. This progressive action in the state's leading university should do much to stimulate regional history teaching and learning elsewhere.

Maybe we can look forward to a time in the twenty-first century when all who live in this favored region will know how it came to be and will not ignore the history or be misled by fictional accounts of it.

—John McClelland, Jr.
TWO TALES from the "FIERY" ’80s

Five seamstresses in Seattle, W.T., during 1888. Middle back: Miss Laura Olsen. Right front: dress shop owner, Mrs. Stevens.

By Harriet U. Fish
100th Anniversary of the Seattle Fire.

Five very elegant ladies posed for a photograph sometime before June 6, 1889, an infamous day in the history of Seattle. Their environmental photographic background, indicative of that early Victorian period, was created by a canvas backdrop depicting columns, drapes and an elaborate fireplace. Under foot, the animal skin rugs completed the setting, all of which was lost in the great Seattle fire on that day.

These women, dressed in their high fashion clothing, were seamstresses in an exclusive Seattle fashion dressmaking shop 100 years ago. They lost their place of business, employment and work, suffering also the loss of many of their personal possessions for they apparently lived at the place of their work.

We know the names of two of these ladies. In the front row on the right is the owner of the dress shop, a Mrs. Stevens, and in the center, back row, is Laura Olsen, who in April of 1890 became Mrs. Jens P. Christensen of Port Angeles.

The day after the fire, Laura penciled a letter to Jens in Port Angeles on the back of the June 7, 1889 issue of the Seattle Morning Journal. This news sheet and her comments have survived to this day.

With the knowledge that most of the newspaper offices in Seattle had been effectively burned out by the fire, it is a wonder that even a one-sided news sheet was produced the morning after the fire, but according to this issue, which is Vol. 2, No. 253, "There is not a cylinder press left in the city and the newspapers are among the heavy losers by the fire." This sheet was printed "through the courtesy of Mr. B. B. Dearborn at his printing office," probably hand set in a print shop not affected by the fire.

In two sizes of very fine type style, highlighted with bold captions, five columns of solid printing tell the whole story.

Ominous billows of smoke mark the beginning of the great Seattle fire of June 6, 1889. The curious were drawn out onto Spring Street and look southeast toward the blaze.
of the fire, its origin and spread, the failure of the water systems, and the frantic attempts to save possessions and business equipment. These quotes from Laura's letter tell it from her personal experience and observation:

Dear Jens:

Well what do you think of this. Here I am no home, no work, my things in the street. Mrs. Stevens and I have just had the luck to find a house. Ain't this awful, the worst I have ever witness. The best part of Seattle all in ruin. Mrs. Stevens got most of her things saved, furniture for five rooms, but such a condition they are all scratches and broken. I feel that I never want anything very much. They threwed things out of the windows where it was burned before they could get it away. There wasn't team enough. The merchants offered $100 a load while poor people found $5 to $20. Hotels and restaurants are all burned, $1 meals, $2 beds, such excitement. I stayed to the house until it was on fire and afraid of our lives trying to save as much as we could. We had $500 worth of other people's dresses in the house that we saved. Dr. York said it was "hell on a small scale." We stopped where they are last night. Two of the roomers had teams that helped and saved us or I don't know what we would do. Mrs. S. had just paid her rent $14. Hardly thought our place would burn but it was right against the wind, brick buildings and pine buildings, opera house all burned alike. Oh! it was a terrible sight. The street got on fire on both sides. Wealthy men fell to ruin, poor clerks, 500 people out of employment. The church next to us burned and the whole block. The preacher called to the express men that were helping us, come this way I've got money! Mrs. S. was mad said I have as much as you nice way for a preacher to talk. People could not get their things moved fast enough, they kept moving them farther up street. People's furniture are strewn all over the streets. I feel sick and tired of this still the most of my things are saved except somethings not useful that I didn't waste time on. In the forenoon I went through Front Street for the first time. I had to have citizen paper made out. I was going to have trouble about it. I was speaking how Seattle had grown since I came, so many fine buildings had been put up, not a complete mess or ruins. Can hardly place one street from another. Some were killed, one went crazed, one I saw had fits and some were hurt. The presses all burned except this one and one other. It is smelling and burning yet. The water works and well company were no good. I don't know what was the matter. The ships can't land and provisions are divided up. This morning I wanted 25 cent bread, said they couldn't sell but 15 cents, all hotels to have some. Now the people have moved out of this house so I will have to go to work to get this place straightened up. Mrs. S. at times acts so excited. Well dearest, good bye. I will soon write. I feel so excited now.

With lots of love,
Laura.

Seattle lies in ruins in the aftermath of the fire.
“Goldendale Will Burn to the Ground . . .”

Sitting in his cell in the Goldendale jail on April 6, 1888, Henry Timmerman was drinking a quart of stout red-eye whiskey. He was scheduled to be hanged in the town square for the murder of William Sterling, who had worked in a logging camp near Ellensburg and was on his way home to Walla Walla in October of 1886 when he met his death. His body was found near Paterson in Benton County.

Before the murder, Timmerman had been seen traveling with Sterling by Martin Peck, a sheepherder in that area. Peck provided a description of Timmerman to the sheriff of Klickitat County after Sterling’s body had been found.

Timmerman was apprehended, brought to Goldendale’s county court and charged with the murder. Timmerman waited in jail for his trial which took place nearly a year after the crime had occurred. During that time he had been moved to the North Yakima jail and then to Spokane’s jail to avoid a possible mob lynching.

During the trial, the prosecution presented 20 witnesses who offered much circumstantial evidence linking the defendant to the crime.

Timmerman asked to take the stand in his own defense, but his lawyers protested, causing the case to be given to the jury without his testimony. The jury deliberated only a few hours, returning with a verdict of guilty of Murder in the First Degree. He was sentenced to be hanged on December 15, 1887.

An appeal to the Territorial Supreme Court delayed the decision, so it was February of 1888 when the new execution date was set for April 6, 1888. During this two-month period, Timmerman continued to deny his guilt, hoping that new evidence would come to light to prove his innocence.

Timmerman was in good spirits when April 6 arrived, as he was enjoying his last day.

BELOW: Public hangings attracted large crowds, and the Timmerman hanging in Goldendale, Washington, on April 6, 1888 was no exception.

The Goldendale Fire Department hook and ladder team practices in the streets while a crowd watches. This undated photo was probably taken before the town burned to the ground in July of 1888, as predicted by Henry Timmerman.
request—the quart of whiskey! The morning execution was postponed in case Governor Eugene Semple might send a reprieve in the mail or by telegraph that day. Nothing arrived, so Timmerman was led out of the jail to be seated on his coffin in a light wagon while he puffed on a cigar. In this position he was transported to the gallows. Upon reaching the gallows, he jumped to the ground and dashed madly up the platform stairs.

While in jail, the prisoner had made several predictions. One involved all the persons directly connected with his arrest and trial, whom he said would be afflicted with dreadful disasters ending in death. On the gallows he made another prediction: “Within three months from now, Goldendale will burn to the ground.”

In those days, it was customary for large crowds, including children, to attend public hangings. In fact, printed invitations were sometimes issued ahead of time. After predicting the destruction of Goldendale, Timmerman threw his cigar to the souvenir hunters in the crowd, who divided it into little pieces.

Before placing the hood over Timmerman’s head, Chief Deputy Thomas B. Stapleton asked, “Henry, your time has about come, don’t you think you had better confess?”

Looking at the deputy, Timmerman commented, “Well, Tom, all I can say is that if you ever get caught in a scrape like this, don’t let them take you alive!”

Stepping forward, he allowed the hood to be placed over his head. The trap was sprung, and within ten minutes he was pronounced dead. Timmerman’s predictions of personal disaster continued to bother the people involved. However, none of them came true. His last prediction, though, actually did come true. Within three months, in July of 1888, the entire Goldendale business district, including the courthouse and jail, burned to the ground.

Harriet U. Fish is author and illustrator of ten books, primarily on various aspects of Pacific Northwest history. Currently Ms. Fish is historian for the Clallam County Sheriff’s Department and the Washington Association of Sheriffs and Police Chiefs in Olympia.

This “Execution Completion Notice” verifies the death by hanging of Henry Timmerman, who foretold the disastrous Goldendale fire as he stood on the gallows.

Hamilton started his flying experience early in his life when he attempted to jump out of a schoolroom window with an umbrella for a parachute. At the age of 18, he took up parachute jumping from hot air balloons. He daringly cut away the first parachute, then free-fell before opening another, and would repeat the process until he had used "up as many as five parachutes." He graduated from balloons to dirigibles and once, while in flight over Japan, frightened observers who thought he was some strange God crossing their skies.

In 1909, Hamilton went to Hammondsport, N.Y., where he approached Glenn Curtiss, manufacturer of the Curtiss biplane, with the request that he be taught to fly. Curtiss refused, saying he was not operating a flying school. Hamilton, a persistent young man, hung around anyway, and one day, when Curtiss was away, he managed to start one of the biplanes, climb aboard and take off. He flew the plane more than once without an accident. However, an early return of Curtiss from an out-of-town trip caught Hamilton in one of his clandestine flights. Curtiss was furious at the risk taken with one of his $5,000 aircraft, but the young pilot's daring evidently impressed the manufacturer, and he hired Hamilton to make exhibition flights to advertise his biplane.

The pilot became immensely popular, and people flocked to see him in Los Angeles, San Francisco, Portland and Seattle. Unbelievable as it may seem, Hamilton was as "nervy" in performing stunts in the biplane as he was when he parachuted from the hot air balloons. He had a trick called a "glide," in which he
dived from a high altitude and pulled up at the last minute, barely skimming the ground. It was a triumph for a machine made of spruce and bamboo with an eight cylinder engine capable of reaching 1400 rpm. The wings were covered with rubberized silk painted a bright yellow.

The Meadows Racetrack (a portion of which is now Boeing Field) was the scene of the Seattle show. A small lake was nearby, and Hamilton decided that his glide would be doubly effective if done over water. All went well during a practice run, but during one performance, his wheels dropped too low, the plane flipped up on its nose and then turned over in the lake. The pilot fainted after being pulled from the plane, so was rushed to Providence Hospital, where he was treated for bumps, bruises and exhaustion.

According to Stephens' *Tribune* article, "Hamilton was unable to repair his 'soggy engine', and the rest of his Seattle performance was cancelled." The "Voices from the Past" section of the *Tacoma News Tribune* for March 19, 1985, under the heading "75 years ago," indicated that Hamilton came to Tacoma and was able to make a performance, though later than scheduled. A search through a series of articles in the *Tacoma Daily Tribune* from March 10 through March 22, 1910 confirms that Seattle was not his last stop in Washington.

Two thousand admission-paying Tacomans were grievously disappointed when the scheduled flight was postponed. Tickets had been sold in advance by various businesses. Hamilton was a figure of despair when his assistant announced that the initial flight would have to be cancelled and the Chamber of Commerce had made arrangements for refunds through the Banker's Trust Company or that ticket holders could come the next day when, it was thought, the engine could be repaired.

That night a reporter from the *Tacoma Daily Tribune* was among the many people gathered at Athletic Park at South 15th and Sprague, where the flights were to originate, watching the attempts to repair the engine. The reporter detailed in the March 20, 1910 issue of the paper that someone (unnamed) hit on the idea that the magneto of an automobile might be incorporated into the engine in place of the one damaged in the plunge in the Seattle "mud puddle." The plane was ready for flight the next day.

Spectators were hushed as Hamilton started his plane; the hoarse exhaust of the engine and a buzzing sound of the wheels scudding across 210 feet of ground could be heard as the plane became airborne. When the pilot was finally aloft, the crowd cheered with enthusiasm as they watched the man in his machine simulating the flight of a bird.

To the people who had turned out to see Hamilton the day before, the daring young aviator had absolutely redeemed himself. The *Tribune* writer described him as looking like a hawk rather than a man operating a machine.

Hamilton made three flights that day totaling 28 minutes, but it was a significant 28 minutes to many who were, no doubt, observing a plane for the first time. As an additional thrill, the pilot dipped and swooped to within 30 feet of the heads of the spectators.

Everything went so well that, through the courtesy of Eddie Quinn, president of the Tacoma Baseball Association, Athletic Park was made available to the Chamber of Commerce for another day at no extra cost. The mayor even asked that schools be dismissed so that children could attend the exhibition.

After his Tacoma success, Hamilton went to Vancouver, Canada and Spokane. But only two years later, he had to give up flying because of tuberculosis. He died at the age of 29, having squeezed a lot of excitement into his short life.

Records of speed, distance or even stunt flying are soon broken and forgotten. Still, men such as Charles K. Hamilton and their "contraptions" remain part of the early glamor of aviation.

Wilma Snyder is a retired school teacher and a member of the board of curators of the Washington State Historical Society.
In the expanding West of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, intercity rivalries were more than economic; they often included a "landscape moralism," the claim that one's community is superior to all others in matters of location, living quality and scenery. When the factor of scenery is accentuated by an impressive mountain peak on the distant horizon, easily seen from many communities, then one can begin to understand the intense public relations battle between Seattle and Tacoma over the name of Mt. Rainier, a controversy that newspapers unleashed in the 1880s.

The origin of the name "Mount Rainier" is indisputable. In 1792, Captain George Vancouver of the British Royal Navy named the high mountain (14,410 feet) in honor of his friend, Rear Admiral Peter Rainier. The name or word "Tacoma" is apparently of Indian origin. But its precise meaning is unknown, despite historical evidence which strongly suggests that either "Tacoma" or "Tahoma" is what local Indian tribes called the mountain. It was not until the early 1860s, however, that the name "Tacoma" became widely known to the early settlers in the Puget Sound country. The name first appeared in print when a New York company published in 1862 the impressions and astute observations of Theodore Winthrop, who journeyed through the Pacific Northwest in 1853. The published title was The Canoe and the Saddle, although Winthrop called his journal "Klalam and Klickitat—Nature and Natives of the Northwest."

In this classic record of travels, Winthrop referred to the mountain as simply "Tacoma," indicating its Indian origin. However, he also stated that the word is a generic term, applicable to all snowy peaks. This imprecision of meaning may have been the source of confusion between "Tacoma" and "Tahoma," especially among those wanting to rename the mountain in the years of the controversy.

Winthrop's reference to the mountain as "Tacoma" did not precipitate a squabble among the early settlers over the mountain's name. Apparently, they accepted "Rainier" as the official name, and "Tacoma" as the Indian designation without seriously questioning the validity of one name over the other. Also, immediately after the small town on Commencement Bay was named Tacoma, in 1868, there appeared no outward sign of dispute regarding the name of the mountain. Even a Seattle newspaper acknowledged in that year that the founders of Tacoma named the town after "...the Indian name for Mount Rainier." But with the coming of the railroad to the Puget Sound area in the 1870s and 1880s, the mountain's name became an issue.

After the Northern Pacific Railroad selected Tacoma for its western terminus, the intercity rivalry intensified. Then, in 1883, in a publicity and advertising medium called The Northwest Magazine, the Northern Pacific issued the following statement:

The Indian name Tacoma will hereafter be used in the guide books and other publications of the Northern Pacific Railroad and the Oregon Railway and Navigation Company, instead of Rainier, which the English Captain Vancouver gave this magnificent peak when he explored the waters of Puget Sound in the last century.

That announcement sparked one of the most rancorous, and perhaps longest, controversies in national park history. The Tacoma newspapers seized the opportunity thereafter to refer to the mountain as "Mount Tacoma," despite the fact that the name "Rainier" was used frequently in those same newspapers between 1868 and 1883. The Tacoma Daily Ledger was especially delighted in supporting, after 1883, the name "Tacoma," and for many years it served as the voice of the uncompromising Tacoma campaigners.

There was support from other communities for the Mt. Tacoma name change. Small communities within Pierce County, for example, were generally sympathetic, although such support was not always consistent. Portland, Oregon, was generally a Mount Rainier booster, but during the 1880s a publication in that city called West Shore gave its unqualified support to the name change, and the editors commented that too many peaks...
on the west coast have been "...burdened with proper names," such as Baker, Hood, Adams, Jefferson and others. A few communities around the Pacific Northwest simply could not decide which name to support, and thus adopted the "safe" route of referring to the mountain as "Mount Tacoma-Rainier."

The reaction to the "Mount Tacoma" movement was swift and loud. Seattle newspapers denounced any attempt to remove the official name while other protests labeled the movement as "historical robbery" at work. The crux of the anti-Tacoma argument was rooted in the assumption that discoverers have the right to name what they discover, and very simply, Mount Rainier is a recorded landmark, discovered and named by Captain George Vancouver in 1792. Aside from that, the forces against renaming the mountain shuddered at the thought of the Tacomas winning the battle. Fear spread among the more hypersensitive, such as those who were concerned about what might be next on the list. The charge of "historical robbery" was thrown back and forth, and while the controversy raged on, it became necessary to refer the whole matter to the United States Board on Geographic Names in 1890. After a thorough investigation, the Board confirmed the name "Mount Rainier" as the rightful title of the great mountain of the Pacific Northwest. The decision changed the attitude of the Northern Pacific, but it only made the Tacomas redouble their efforts.

An additional incentive to continue the fight was the pending national park status of the mountain, for until the last moment before the park was created in 1899, the official name of the new park remained an uncertainty. A number of other names were being considered, including "Rainier," "Washington," "Harrison," "Paradise," "Cascade," and "Northwest." Tacomas believed their chances as good as any, especially when outside support for the name "Tacoma" came from New York newspapers, universities, the Royal Geographical Society of England, and the Smithsonian Institute.

When a national park enclosing the mountain was created by Congress in 1899, Mt. Rainier became the official name of the park. Mt. Tacoma supporters, however, continued to call the mountain by the claimed Indian name, while referring to the park as simply "Rainier National Park." The following years hardly dimmed their enthusiasm. In 1911, for example, a Tacoma newspaper printed: "It will not be many more years until the great mountain is known as Tacoma. Rainier will appear in parenthesis for awhile and finally it will be dropped."

That same editorial comment charged that it was wrong to use a name that Captain George Vancouver "...sought to confer in honor of a friend who had never seen the mountain and for a
After a thorough investigation, the Board confirmed the name “Mount Rainier” as the rightful title of the great mountain of the Pacific Northwest.

Mount Tacoma supporters looked hard for every possible endorsement. They cited a speech made by the noted James Bryce, British Ambassador to the United States from 1907 to 1913, who stated that he wished Mount Rainier would be called by “…the more sonorous Indian name, Tacoma.” Many Tacomans wished Congress had shown as much wisdom when Mount Rainier was chosen as the name for the new national park, and not just a few wished there had been even stronger protests sent to the nation’s capital at the time. While Congress was not very well informed, the Tacomans assumed, at least there appeared to be more hope from the White House. Both Theodore Roosevelt and William Howard Taft were claimed as “Mount Tacoma” supporters.

More importantly, the presidential years between 1900 and 1920 created a “spirit of the times” that provided a convenient rationale to the Mt. Tacoma advocates in pressing their demands for the name change. Starting with Teddy Roosevelt’s administration, and continuing through the Taft and Wilson years, the Progressive Movement in America emphasized reform and American values. Through it all, there was always a strong patriotic appeal which carried notions of moral superiority over other lands and people, especially those of Europe. The fierce anti-European feelings of World War I fed the Mt. Tacoma movement with new ammunition. The name “Rainier,” they shouted, was un-American. Conveniently dismissing the fact that England was fighting along with the U.S. for democracy during the war, the Mt. Tacoma campaigners pointed out that Rainier was the name of a British naval officer who fought against the American colonies in their desperate fight for freedom. Besides, asked one editor, what business did Captain George Vancouver have in

This advertisement dates from the height of the railroad traffic from Tacoma to “the mountain” (c. 1911-12) on the Tacoma Eastern Railroad, a subsidiary of the Chicago-Milwaukee Railroad.
The SAGA of a MOUNTAIN

A legend of Mount Rainier
(Tacoma)

Issued by The General Passenger Department of the Tacoma Eastern Railroad
1911
I am glad that Vancouver lived in a time when transportation was slow and a time-consuming matter, for I dread to think what he would have done today, in an airship, swooping over a continent before anyone else arrived, and, in his large, liberal way, naming rivers, mountains, lakes and other scenic wonder-spots after particular friends of his, or as complimentary tributes to his superiors.

Early in 1917, through the work of Tacoma legislators in influential positions, the Washington State Legislature passed a joint memorial calling for a second hearing by the United States Board of Geographic Names. After that, a mountain committee and the Commercial Club of Tacoma raised funds to enable “Mount Tacoma” delegates to travel to Washington, D. C., to present their case. They adopted as their theme, “Justice-to-the-Mountain.” Faced with a frightening situation, the “Rainier” defenders went to work and carefully laid their plans to refute point-by-point the opposition’s arguments before the Board.

On May 2, 1917, for the second time in 27 years, the Geographic Board heard the conflicting evidence and then took plenty of time to mull it over. Nine days later, on May 11, the Board announced that it would take no action on the proposal.

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"MT. RAINIER"
(ALIAS MT. TACOMA)

Words and music by George Gaffney.

Two rival towns I know,
They merry march along,
They prosper and they grow,
Their progress non prolong.
In many things they do agree it’s true,
Although they differ on this point of view,
As to the name,
So great with fame
Of a mountain king endowed with grandeur,
lofty and sublime,
Tacoma does him claim, as namesake with great pride,
O'er this Seattle feigns displeasure hard to hide;
And so one day,
'Makes this affray,
Thus this mountain king spoke up and
these stern words was heard to say.

(Chorus)
Now fair Tacoma child, come listen here
I wish you this would understand;
My name is not Tacoma but Rainier,
For so we're taught in all our land.
It's so exclaims Seattle with a leer,
Tain't so retorts Tacoma with a sneer.

It's Mr. Rainier, Seattle remonstrates,
A twinkle in her eye.
It's not, Tacoma hotly postulates
In posture to defy.
And so this case is standing yet this day.
And when to settled be
I venture not to say.

Tacoma will not budge
For this do not her blame;
We do not care a smudge,
To us it's all the same;
Her sprightly mood admire and enjoy
We care not such fond notions to destroy,
But will agree,
Fast friends to be,
For the road to fame and greatness
leaderl always on that way,
We'll set all petty strife a rumbling on their go,
And in the future everlasting friendship grow,
So with good will
Our hearts we'll fill,
While this mighty king to Miss Tacoma
these words murmurs still.

(Chorus)
to remove the name "Rainier" from the mountain. In commenting on the decision, the Board's Secretary, C. S. Sloane, stated:

No geographic feature in any part of the world can claim a name more firmly fixed by right of discovery, by priority, and by universal usage for more than a century. So far as known, no attempt has ever been made by any people in part of the world to change a name so firmly established.

As if rehearsed, the die-hard "Mount Tacoma" boosters reacted to the decision with outspoken defiance. The Tacoma News sarcastically headlined an editorial, "The Mountain Re-Rainiered," and promised that the struggle was not over.

Many Tacomans were convinced that the U.S. Geographic Board had exceeded its authority in overruling the legislature of the State of Washington. Some expressed the opinion that the state should have ordered the Board to make the change instead of merely requesting it to do so.

Warming up to a final campaign which would be carried to Congress itself, a Tacoman in 1921 sent a letter to the Admiralty in London with a point-blank request to check Vancouver's log as published. Apparently well aware of the controversy over the mountain's name, Learmonth took the precaution to forward a copy of his letter to the U.S. Board on Geographic Names.

The attempt to discredit the Vancouver log was a "shot in the dark." Far more serious was the two-time rejection to change the mountain's name by the U.S. Board on Geographic Names. And so it became clear to the "Mount Tacoma" leaders that the only and perhaps last chance left was in Congress. In 1924, Senator C. C. Dill of Washington introduced in the United States Senate a resolution to change the name to "Mount Tacoma." During the debate on the Senate floor, Senator William Borah of Idaho forced Dill to define the nature of local support for the name change. Dill seized the opportunity to argue that there was an overwhelming desire by the people of the State of Washington to call the mountain "Mount Tacoma." He named several leading cities whose newspapers and mayors fully supported the name change, including the city of Seattle.

The claim of strong Seattle support for "Mount Tacoma" was stunning news. Everybody knew that Seattle had always been an impregnable barrier to the Tacoma cause. But Dill was telling the truth because Mayor E. J. Brown of Seattle had announced his support of the "Mount Tacoma" movement, and he informed Dill of his position via a telegram. It was a publicity stunt and it inadvertently helped the Mt. Tacoma effort.

The Portland Oregonian, a staunch defender of the name "Rainier," picked up on the publicity stunt angle by severely criticizing Brown while expressing concern to its readers that perhaps the Seattle mayor had suffered some kind of mental collapse. The Portland newspaper also printed that Brown's support of the Dill resolution was "just about the last straw." Brown retaliated by writing a letter to the Oregonian telling that newspaper to mind its own business.

At any rate, Senator Borah was satisfied with the Mount Tacoma "evidence," and the upshot was U.S. Senate approval in 1924 of Joint Resolution 64 to change the name to "Mount Tacoma." The resolution was sent to the House, where it was referred to the Committee on Public Lands for deliberation. Tacomans felt victory within their grasp, and a new outpouring...
of "justice-to-the-mountain" literature deluged the press. Among other things, rumors circulated that, since the name "Rainier" is associated with a brand of beer, perhaps in the past members of the U.S. Board on Geographic Names may have been bribed with a carload of the Seattle brew.

That allegation no doubt sprang from a small publication that appeared in 1924 under the title, *The Violence Done By Perpetuating the Name of Mount Rainier.* Its author, S. K. McKown, used inflammatory expressions to remind readers that the mountain's official name, Rainier, honors a British sailor who was promoted for "doing us all the damage in his power in the critical hours of our infant struggle for existence." McKown wrote that he was not a swearing man, but if he were, he would cry, "To hell with the man Rainier from Mount Tacoma."

In this last ditch effort, the city of Olympia jumped into the fracas when its chamber of commerce and the county historical society published a book called *The Great Myth--Mount Tacoma.* The name change effort was labeled a cause "based on one of the greatest fictions of modern times."

At the end of the book, a reprinted article published in New York pointed out that Congress should not even consider the name change, and if Congress approved the resolution, then "about three-quarters of the names we now have in the Postal Guide" should also be changed. Congress then could repeal the entire English language in the United States and substitute a more patriotic Indian one, perhaps Sioux.

On January 15, 1925, the U.S. House Committee on Public Lands ended the long suspense by voting 9 to 4, with 5 abstaining, not to approve of the name change. Committee members from Kansas, Colorado, California and Wisconsin voted in favor, while representatives from Idaho, Utah, Missouri, California, Michigan, Vermont, Arkansas, South Carolina and New Mexico voted against. Still, it was not until 1939 that the Tacoma Chamber of Commerce finally passed a resolution of its own, urging all Tacomans and city organizations to accept the name Mt. Rainier. It was a long and bitter fight, and no one can be sure that some mysterious power might not still come and breathe new life into the old controversy.

In hindsight, it seems strange, perhaps silly, that Seattle and Tacoma spent an inordinate amount of time trying to prove which one owned Mt. Rainier. By the same token, beneath all the flimflam carried out in the newspapers and other publications, the controversy showed some enduring western characteristics: local pride, developmental patterns and, above all, love of landscape.

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EDITOR'S NOTE

The old controversy came to life again in 1979. Tacoman Roger Pitsinger submitted a proposal to the State Board of Geographic Names to change the names of Mount Rainier, Mount St. Helens and Mount Baker. Had the board agreed to the proposal, the name of Rainier would have been changed to Tahoma. Mike Parker, then mayor of Tacoma, supported the new name, but there seemed to be little public support otherwise.

In fact, the board received many letters in favor of the old name, including one from Floyd Short, mayor of the Thurston County town of Rainier. He thought people in that town who had grown up with the name would be upset if it were changed. Officials of Rainier Bank and Rainier Brewery said they would not drop the name even if the change were made.

However, the proposal was unanimously rejected on the grounds that no new evidence had been presented to support the name change. Robert Hitchman, a member of the Geographic Names Board, said, "The final authority is the public itself. If they won't accept it, then no ruling by a public body is going to make any difference."
“Mt. Tacoma” as an Indian Symbol

Native American placenames represented patriotic sentiments.

By Brian W. Dippie

In naming the American land settlers used many sources, many of them Indian. What was native had appeal for the nationalist, though there was always something ironic in this borrowing. It acknowledged that the Indians were the first Americans, the original owners of the land, conquered and dispossessed by the white pioneers who had commemorated them by retaining their names. But why acknowledge those who had opposed the white man’s advance and been swept aside in the name of progress? Why honor the Indians?

These questions were particularly pertinent during the republic’s first century, when Indian wars were an ongoing fact of western life, and they cut to the heart of white Americans’ ambivalence about Native Americans. On the frontier, Indians were commonly viewed as bloody savages, red devils delighting in murder, scalping and torture. At the same time, as the purest products of the American wilderness, they served as national symbols representing an instinctive love of liberty. A visitor to Washington, D.C. in the early 1860s would have encountered a bewildering mixture of Indian symbols. In the Capitol rotunda, a bas relief of William Penn treating amicable natives faced another showing Daniel Boone dispatching two ferocious foes. The Indian represented America’s past. Ferdinand Petrich’s sculpture The Dying Tecumseh (1856)—one of many treatments of a dying Indian symbolizing the fate of his race—occupied a place in the Capitol. The Indian also represented America’s present, the frontier moment. Horatio Greenough’s 1837 Rescue group, showing a towering frontiersman subduing a struggling warrior about to tomahawk a helpless mother and child, was installed in the Capitol in 1853. And the Indian represented America’s future as civilization displaced savagery. Thomas Crawford’s allegorical Senate pediment Progress of Civilization (modeled in 1854 and erected nine years later) showed an emblematic America surrounded by her white children literally crowding a cluster of Indians toward a yawning grave.

Common to all three symbolic meanings was a single assumption: the Indian was a vanishing race, part of the past, futilely resisting progress in the present, doomed to extinction in the near future. But vanishing Indians were not the only symbolic Indians to be found in Washington. Another sculpture by Thomas Crawford crowned the Capitol. It showed liberty in her traditional gown, but with an American touch: a headdress of feathers symbolizing American freedom, born of the woods and rivers that shaped natives and newcomers alike, transforming transplanted Europeans into something else, a distinctive people, hardy, self-reliant, independent and liberty-loving. The figure of an Indian princess had long personified America, anticipating the befeathered Liberty atop the Capitol. And so the ambivalence. The Indian might be destined to disappear before white civilization, but the Indian also symbolized what would make that new civilization American.

Reaching into his pocket, that visitor to Washington in the 1860s might have fingered a coin or two with Indian motifs. Since 1854, a homely Liberty had been jingling in the pockets of those who engaged in the debate over the merits of the names Mount Rainier and Mount Tacoma, since it remained in circulation long after the government stopped minting it in 1909. And certainly those who brought the debate to a head in the 1920s and ’30s were familiar with another tribute to the First American, the buffalo-Indian nickel (1913-38). Its designer, James Earl Fraser, gave memorable form to the idea of the vanishing race in his eloquent statue of an Indian slumped forward on a drooping pony, The End of the Trail. In his nickel, Fraser commemorated the past and linked it to the present. Indian names on the land did the same. Rainier-Tacoma disputants may not have reflected much on the symbolism of the pennies and nickels in their pockets, but the issue between them was analogous to what Fraser meant when he said of his buffalo-Indian head design: “All I tried to do was to express in these symbols—America, instead of merely copying some Greek temple or god.” Or, he might have added, honoring some dead “British sailor.”

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It has been said Alexis de Tocqueville's *Democracy in America* is the most quoted and least read book in America. If this is true about de Tocqueville, I suspect it is also true that constitutions generally, whether of the United States or of the individual states, are perhaps the most cited and least read documents in American society.

In order to understand the Constitution of the State of Washington, we need to take a brief side excursion and talk about the Constitution of the United States. Although these documents have differences, they are similar in many ways. To a large measure, the presuppositions which went into the framing of the federal Constitution went also into the framing of our state constitution.

Those who framed the United States Constitution were guided by three overriding principles. First was the belief in self-government, which would secure what were described in the Declaration of Independence as the “inalienable rights” of “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness”; as Lincoln put it at Gettysburg, that a “nation conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal...can long endure.”

This was an outrageous notion. Those who framed the American Constitution were students of history and government. They knew there had not been a human society in which democracy had worked successfully for a long period of time. Democracy simply had not preserved life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; nor had democracy lived out the notion that all persons are created equal. The framers knew democracy had not worked: it had always either disintegrated into despotism or demagoguery. Nevertheless, they had the audacity to say that they could make it work—not simply in a small, homogeneous state, which Rousseau suggested was the only place it would work, or in a New England town meeting, or ancient Athens, or in an Italian city state. No, they said, it can work in a vast, sparsely occupied, relatively heterogeneous continent.

Secondly, not only did the founders take an audacious step in saying that democracy—self-government—was the way to preserve liberty and live out the ideals of the Declaration of Independence, but they also believed in what by any standard was a fairly hard-headed and clear-eyed understanding and view of human nature. They neither looked back to a mythic Eden, nor forward to an equally mythic utopia. They took people as they were. The Federalist cited the inevitability of factions, and more substantively, the long record of human depravity running through history.

Not only did the framers try to do something which had never been done successfully, but they also proposed it could be done without adopting a utopian view of human nature.

How were they going to do all this? That gets us to the third
The Washington State Constitutional Convention delegates (by number):
Hamilton indicated four things he thought were important. (1) the allocation and distribution of power, (2) legislative checks and balances, (3) an independent judiciary, and (4) an elected representative self-government.

principle. They thought it could be done because they had discovered what Alexander Hamilton called great improvements in the science of politics. The framers turned objections to democratic self-government on their head. They said, yes, we understand that democracy or self-government, when it has worked at all for even a limited period of time, has worked in a very small area, and we understand the limitations of human nature. But we believe, inherent in the constitutional document itself, there are provisions which, on the one hand, mean it will succeed in the United States and, on the other hand, will take care of, accommodate and lessen the dangers of that factious human nature with which all of us are possessed.

They did it by establishing a government founded on the ideas of republicanism and federalism. Furthermore, they did it in a written document. We tend sometimes to forget that part of the genius of the framers was that they put it in writing. They did not rely on the customs of the past, legislation, or one or two ancient documents, as the British did. No, they wanted to have a living, vital document called the Constitution, which in itself would do the things that would accommodate the kind of country in which we live and the kind of people which inhabit it.

Hamilton indicated four things he thought were important: (1) the allocation and distribution of power, (2) legislative checks and balances, (3) an independent judiciary, and (4) an elected representative self-government.

The Constitution also set forth those areas forbidden to government. For example, article 1, sections 9 and 10, very strictly and carefully limit the powers of both Congress and the states. There was a grant of power by the people in the Constitution, but it was a limited grant of power for a limited government.

Finally, the Constitution, by providing for regular elections and amending procedures, allows for orderly change. Put another way, the Constitution provides for the legitimacy of successor governments. We tend not to pay much attention to it after nearly 200 years of following this procedure on a regular basis. The legitimacy of each elected succeeding government is one of the marvels and glories of the American system of constitutional government.

On July 4, 1889, the Washington Constitutional Convention was convened in Olympia. Seven weeks later, on August 22, 1889, it adjourned. On October 1, 1889, the constitution was ratified by a vote of the people; and on November 11, 1889, the state of Washington was admitted as the forty-second state to the American Union.

The delegates were an interesting lot. Seventy-five in number, they split along party lines: 42 Republicans, 29 Democrats, 3 Independents. They were generally prosperous, as well as politically knowledgeable and effective. They had lived in other states and had previous dealings with governmental matters. Some had been in Supreme Courts and a variety of other high-ranking governmental activities. Their average age was 45, and one-third of them were lawyers.

The main concerns of the people at the onset of statehood were five in number: (1) the private abuse of public office, (2) the private use of public funds, (3) concentrations of power in or outside of government, (4) individual liberties, and (5) public education. The newspapers of the time were filled with stories about such things as restricting and regulating large corporations, especially railroads. Women’s suffrage and prohibition were other favorite topics. The press also wrote about the ownership of the tidelands and the municipal condemnation of private land.

How did the delegates respond? While I would not denigrate bills of rights, it has always been my belief that the most important thing constitutions do is to allocate the power coming from the people to the government. The allocations of power in the Washington State Constitution are quite comprehensive and, in some ways, quite detailed.

Any fair reading of the Constitution shows quite conclusively there had always been a constitutional directive that the Legislature was to apportion the legislative districts based upon the census. Unfortunately, this did not happen during most of our history. In 1965, Washington came under a federal court order because it did not have "one person, one vote" in its legislative apportionment.

Article 2, section 28, subsections 1 to 18, has a whole host of limitations on special private legislation. Obviously, the Constitution was meant to get at some particular problems which existed in the territory. A few instances will demonstrate the kinds of things with which the framers were concerned. Constitutionally, the Legislature is prohibited from enacting any private or special laws in the following cases: granting corporate powers or privileges; giving effect to invalid deeds, wills or other instruments (there apparently were some lawyers in Olympia in those days taking care of their clients); remitting fines, penalties
Delegates to the constitutional convention signed the completed document August 22, 1889 in this building, the first state capitol.

or forfeitures; limiting civil or criminal actions.

Article 2 contains the anti-logrolling provisions, which have worked fairly well. Section 19 provides there shall be only one subject in a bill. The Supreme Court is called upon constantly to define what that means. In addition, the subject of the bill shall be in the title itself. Section 38 forbids any amendment or change in a bill which was not within the scope and object of the bill. Such are the issues that presiding officers, the lieutenant governor and speaker constantly rule on—whether an amendment to a bill is within the scope and object.

There are some very specific provisions on bribery and corrupt solicitation (article 2, section 30). Similar provisions are not in the federal constitution, but apparently there were some problems in the territory of Washington.

A not-so-happy part of article 2 dealing with the Legislature is the alien land law, section 33. The Chinese were expelled from Seattle in 1886, and there is at least one school of thought which believes the alien land law was an anti-Asian, anti-Chinese piece of constitutional tinkering. I am convinced it was not. Convention debate disclosed that some delegates were concerned because, as they believed, 21 million acres in the United States were owned by foreign syndicates—European, British and others—and they believed foreign ownership to be evil. Others argued that the new state should not inhibit foreign capital needed for development. In any event, it became clear later that this unpleasant provision was being used as an exclusionary device for Japanese who owned land in Washington. Finally, after a number of tries, the alien land law was stricken from the Constitution in 1966.

(Continued on page 24)
Women’s Suffrage
No constitutional franchise.

By Doris H. Pieroth

When the 75 duly elected delegates gathered in Olympia for the first session of the Constitutional Convention on July 4, 1889, they brought with them a predisposition to reform and regulation that could readily be seen in some provisions of the document they drafted. One reform which could not be seen in the new constitution was a provision to grant women the right to vote.

Women’s suffrage was a matter to be considered by the convention, and the Seattle Post-Intelligencer reported that on July 3, “The woman suffragists fired the first gun of their campaign this afternoon when they gathered to the number of twenty in Good Templars hall …” They adopted a platform and resolutions, appointed a committee to draw up a constitution for a state suffrage association, named a finance committee, and heard a number of speeches which continued into an evening session that became a “general demonstration to express that they would stay with the convention until it was induced to coincide with” their resolutions.

None of this was new for Washington Territory. The issue of women’s suffrage had been before numerous sessions of the territorial legislature beginning with the first, in 1854, when Seattle’s Arthur A. Denny offered an amendment to a bill defining qualifications of electors to “allow all white females over the age of eighteen years to vote.” Denny’s amendment lost, but that first legislature granted the right to vote in school elections to “every inhabitant of twenty-one years” who met residency requirements.

Race, not gender, accounted for changes in voter qualifications in 1866, when the legislature extended the franchise to the “American half-breed who held land under the donation law, and who could read and write…” An amendment to that change passed the following year, worded, “All white American citizens twenty-one years of age, and all half-breeds …” Edward Eldridge, unwavering supporter of women’s suffrage from Whatcom County, declared during that session that this included women, basing his position on the definition of citizenship in the fourteenth amendment to the United States Constitution. In the wake of this interpretation, a number of women in the territory attempted to cast ballots, with limited success. In 1869, Mrs. Mary Olney Brown, who had made the journey overland from Iowa to Portland in 1846, burying two children along the way, attempted to vote near her homestead in the White River precinct, but she was turned away from the polls on the grounds that she was not an American citizen and that the fourteenth amendment did not extend to Washington Territory. Mrs. Brown was rebuffed again in 1870, but the Grand Mound and Black River precincts accepted the votes of several women, including Mrs. Brown’s sister, Mrs. Charlotte Olney French.

Activity on behalf of suffrage and women’s rights intensified in the territory in 1871, in large part through the efforts of Abigail Scott Duniway, who was the leading promoter of women’s suffrage in the Northwest, and a visiting Easterner, Susan B. Anthony. Miss Anthony addressed the legislature on October 20, and later that month the Washington Woman Suffrage Association was founded. Opinions became polarized, and when the legislature again dealt with the issue on November 29, 1871, it passed a law that “hereafter no female shall have the right of ballot … until the Congress of the United States … declare the same to be the supreme law of the land.” That same session extended the vote in school elections to “every inhabitant,” and in 1877 the legislature explicitly granted that vote to women.

The territorial delegates who met in a premature constitutional convention in Walla Walla in the summer of 1878 found that suffrage was of great moment to many women in the territory, a large number of whom attended the convention session in which Mrs. Duniway presented a memorial to woman suffrage. About 600 men and women petitioned the delegates to “frame a true Republican Constitution by leaving out the word ‘male’ and guaranteeing to all citizens irrespective of sex the exercise of the right of franchise.” But rather than including such provision in the document itself for ratification, the convention passed a separate article holding that “no person should be denied the right to vote on account of sex;” which was submitted to the voters and was rejected. This proved to be a foretaste of things to come.

In 1881 another bill to grant women’s suffrage passed the House, 13 to 11, but failed in the Council, 7 to 5. On November 23, 1883, an amendment to the election code was presented, reading, “All American citizens of twenty-one years, and all American half-breeds …” By 1889, they brought with them a predisposition to reform and regulation that could readily be seen in some provisions of the document they drafted. One reform which could not be seen in the new constitution was a provision to grant women the right to vote.

Abigail Scott Duniway (Portland, Oregon), educator, social reformer and editor, was a Pacific Northwest leader of the women’s suffrage movement.
was readily disposed to vote for women's suffrage, and this time the Council returned a 7 to 5 favorable vote. This revised law was further amended in 1886 to read, "All American citizens, male and female, all American half-breeds, male and female..."

The 1883 law prevailed until 1887, when the Territorial Supreme Court, with an implacable foe of women's rights, Judge George Turner, in the majority, ruled it invalid on a technicality regarding the appropriateness of its title. The 1888 legislature had been elected by both men and women voters, and on January 18 a bill once again giving women the right to vote passed both the House and Council.

The suffrage battle had been joined frequently, with sides clearly established and players readily identifiable, and one more episode took place before the Constitutional Convention considered the issue. Suffrage opponents, seeking a ruling on the validity of the January 1888 bill prior to the election of convention delegates, arranged a test case in Spokane that moved quickly before the Supreme Court. With Judge Turner again in the majority, the court found it invalid, effectively barring women from voting for convention delegates on May 14, 1889.

True to the vow made that July 3, suffrage forces kept a strong lobby in Olympia, and pro-suffrage petitions poured in to the convention. Prospects for the inclusion of women's suffrage in the constitution were dim from the outset, with even some supporters fearing that its inclusion would cause the document to fail of ratification; opponents clearly did not want to risk having women's suffrage swept in on a tide of enthusiasm for statehood.

Both Edward Eldridge and George Turner were delegates to the convention. The indomitable Eldridge was one who tried at every turn to strike 'male' from the language in Article VI on Elections and Elective Rights, and in debate he deplored the Supreme Court decision that had annulled the earlier law. Turner defended the court, claimed that two-thirds of the population had opposed women's suffrage at the time, and insisted that it now be put to a vote of the people. As chairman of the Judicial Committee, Turner led in removing women's suffrage from Article VI (excluding school elections) and making it a separate measure for separate submission to the voters.

An almost greater debate arose over when to submit the separate ballot issue—whether at the October 1889 ratification election or the election in November 1890—or perhaps to leave it as a decision for the legislature. One delegate favored submission at the early date "on the principle that, when he had anything disagreeable to do, he wanted to do it quickly." The final decision was to submit it at the ratification election, along with other separate articles to establish permanent location for the state capital and to prohibit the manufacture and sale of liquor.

On October 1, 1889, the electorate ratified the Constitution, but no site won sufficient votes to be deemed the permanent capital, and voters rejected both prohibition and women's suffrage articles, the latter by a vote of 35,527 to 16,613. The suffrage issue appeared on the ballot again as a constitutional amendment in 1898, when voters once more rejected it, but by a smaller margin. It was not until November 1910 that male voters of Washington State, 52,299 to 29,676, made their state the fifth in the union to grant its women citizens the right to vote in all elections.

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Edward Eldridge of Whatcom County was a leading advocate of women's suffrage. Eldridge was a statesman, member of the territorial legislature and delegate to the 1889 Constitutional Convention.

As a justice of the territorial Supreme Court and a delegate to the Washington Constitutional Convention, George Turner of Spokane was a key opponent of women's suffrage.
Barefoot schoolboys pose before their schoolhouse at Burbank, near Pasco. The constitution provided for the education of all children in the state of Washington, without distinction as to “race, color, caste, or sex.”

The second territorial governor, Fayette McMullen, took advantage of the territorial legislature's authority to grant a divorce and vacated his position soon thereafter. This prompted the writers of the Washington Constitution to include a provision prohibiting the state legislature from handing out divorce decrees.

In dealing with the executive power, the framers of the Washington Constitution had a singular aversion to concentrations of power, from which we derive our factionated executive. Within the Constitution, there are eight separately elected state-wide officials. The Legislature has now given us a ninth, the Insurance Commissioner. Each operates independently and each has control over the administration of substantial appropriations. The Governor actually controls the expenditure of only about one-third of monies appropriated by the Legislature.

The framers were afraid public officials would try to fatten themselves at the governmental trough. Thus, there was a provision which provided that no salary increases could be received during the term of any executive. This provision was repealed in 1968. There was some consideration at the convention to giving governors the power to set the agenda when they called the Legislature into special session. This was not done and governors ever since have wished it had been.

The most interesting characteristic of the Washington judiciary is that it was a unified court system. Washington did not fall into the trap of some Eastern states of having a variety of courts—common pleas, probate, and surrogate court, for example. We have one court of general jurisdiction, the Superior Court. At the convention, an attempt was made to amend article 4, section 3 relative to the election of judges of the Supreme Court. Under this proposal, at the first election for the five-member court, “each elector shall vote for three of such judges and no more.” The whole idea was that the Democratic minority at the convention felt that without this amendment the people would elect nothing but Republicans, even though it was a nonpartisan election then as now. When the matter came up for vote, it was defeated on a straight party-line vote.

Article 12 deals with corporate regulation. The framers did not particularly like corporate power. The real problem, however, was to have enough regulation to control the corporations, believed to be absolutely essential by the overwhelming majority of the delegates, but not so much as to discourage out-of-state investors. This was not a state then, or even perhaps now, with a lot of idle money sitting around. Money to invest in the machines and the mines and in the manufacturing plants must come in large measure from the outside. The question is where do you draw the line? At the time, the framers did not know, but they did the best they could. I think experience has indicated they did fairly well, because article 12 seems to have worked, having been amended only three times. There are a number of specific provisions to protect the people against watered stock, trusts and monopolies and a variety of special privileges, including legislative extension of existing franchises.

These, then, are some provisions which addressed the issue of ensuring that no one person or governmental body was allocated too much power.
I have left out one office about which there may be at least modest curiosity; the Chief Justice. I suspect that very few know how the Chief Justice is chosen because it is an exceptionally complex provision. Every two years there are three justices who will be up for re-election two years hence. Of that class of three judges, the one who is the senior justice elected to a full term and who least recently has been Chief Justice becomes Chief Justice. It is a highly ephemeral office.

Some specific provisions in the state constitution take care of local problems, and some of them are rather entertaining.

Article 2, section 24, originally said the Legislature shall not authorize a lottery or grant a divorce. Of course, the lottery provisions have disappeared, but we still have the provision that the legislature shall not authorize a divorce. Why the latter? My understanding of the history is that the second territorial governor came to Washington with two thoughts in mind. One was to get a divorce, which could be granted by the territorial legislature. The second was to get out of the territory quickly and go back to Virginia where he could marry the wealthiest woman in the commonwealth. Both missions were accomplished. The convention delegates wanted to make certain we would have no more of that kind of nonsense!

Article 1, section 24, also applies to some specific local situations. This is what it says:

The right of the individual citizen to bear arms in defense of himself, or the state, shall not be impaired, but nothing in this section shall be construed as authorizing individuals or corporations to organize, maintain or employ an armed body of men.

Students of the American Constitution will instantly recognize that this is our provision dealing with the right to bear arms, and will also instantly recognize it is substantially different, in fact, radically different from the provisions in the United States Constitution. This seems like an odd thing to have in the Constitution. Again, there is a historic reason. In 1888, in Cle Elum and Roslyn, the railroads which owned the mines and were faced with a strike brought in armed strikebreakers. As is shown by the Convention's journal, this particular provision prevailed without debate. So, in this state you cannot have your own private armed force.

These provisions are all fairly straightforward. The difficulty comes when the Supreme Court is called upon to interpret the meaning of some of the more arcane and ambiguous provisions in the Constitution. The function of the courts, indeed the power of the courts, to interpret the Constitution had pretty much been agreed upon prior to 1787. But it was not until Number 78 of The Federalist Papers, written by Hamilton, that the notion of judicial review was set out quite concisely. Then, of course, in the great case of Marbury v. Madison, in 1803, Chief Justice John Marshall set down for all time the position that the authority for the interpretation of the Constitution in a particular case was within the power of the United States Supreme Court. Since then, the courts in this country have adopted that as their view.

What is it that courts do? Essentially, when courts interpret a constitution, they take the empty vessels of the words in the constitutional document and try to pour meaning into them. Constitutional interpretation is no different than the interpreta-

The alien land law was viewed by some to be anti-Asian, similar in nature to the expulsion of the Chinese from Seattle and Tacoma in 1886. This drawing dramatically depicts the rounding up of the Chinese on February 7, 1886. They were subsequently driven to the docks and loaded onto the ship Queen of the Pacific.
The challenge is to get the Constitution from 1889 to 1989. What did the Constitution mean in 1889? This is important. But it is equally important to decide what the words mean in 1989 when applied to the particular problems today, which, quite literally, those who wrote the document in 1889 could never have thought about.

The challenge is to get the Constitution from 1889 to 1989.

Some examples indicate how this crucial matter of constitutional interpretation (applying new facts to old principles) is acted upon by the Supreme Court. Article 8, section 5, dealing with the lending of state credit reads in its entirety:

The credit of the state shall not, in any manner, be given or loaned to, or in aid of, any individual, association, company or corporation.

That all sounds fairly straightforward. In 1889, it was considered so. For example, the state cannot lend public money to railroads. That was the major concern; everybody understood precisely what the framers were talking about. But by the year 1985, things had taken on a somewhat different cast. The state had something called the Washington Higher Education Facilities Authority, which was allowed to go into the market and sell bonds. The proceeds from those bonds would then be lent to various private colleges and universities for the construction of buildings on campus.

The genius of the Washington Higher Education Facilities Authority, of course, is that substantial fiscal advantages accrue to both borrower and lender, and the State of Washington is not liable for default on the bonds. They are not general obligation bonds but are nonrecourse revenue bonds. This means in the event of default there is no recourse against the State by the lender for its money, and the bonds will be funded by revenues which will be paid by the individual colleges and universities.

A writ of mandamus was applied for because the Governor refused to sign off on the bond documents. Higher Education Facilities Authority v. Gardner (1985) came before the Washington Supreme Court. The court had struggled for about 15 years with the lending of credit provision. In this case (and I must confess I wrote the opinion), the court finally did clarify what the constitution meant. It held that nonrecourse revenue bonds of this nature are not banned by article 8, section 5. The court took old principles, applied them to new facts, and was, I think, entirely faithful to the intent of those who framed the Constitution.

The second example is one that will be more familiar. It is article 9, section 1. This contains the celebrated statement:

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By Charles P. LeWarne

Convention delegates eager to imbibe during their Olympia sojourn could visit the tawdry saloons left along the original waterfront townsites or patronize the "elegantly furnished saloon" at Third and Main which advertised "The Choicest of Wines, Liquors, and Cigars." The gaudily elaborate Olympia Hotel, intending to serve the whims of legislators and other officials, was as yet uncompleted.

But availability of drink was also an issue before the convention itself, for the merits of temperance and prohibition had long been argued by wets, drys and the uncommitted. Almost inevitably, the issue was drawn into convention deliberations.

The pleasures, the evils, and the economics of liquor had come under discussion in the territory almost as soon as the first fur traders discovered that spirits were easy barter in the race for pelts. As more inhabitants entered the Oregon country, efforts to slow or halt the flow of liquor increased. Missionaries inveighed against its evils; Hudson's Bay Company officials—though surely not their employees in the field—tried to curb the liquor trade; pious settlers sought to limit use. As early as 1852, when settlement was still sparse north of the Columbia River, Salem hosted a temperance convention dedicated to electing sympathetic officials throughout the Oregon Country, and three years later voters in the new territory of Washington voted down prohibition—for the first but not the last time. The margin was 564 in favor and 650 against. Such stalwart pioneers as Seattle's Denny brothers Arthur and David, Judge Thomas Burke, the Reverend George Whitworth, and the in-again-out-again Olympia newspaper publisher John Miller Murphy endeavored to protect the new citizens of towns abuilding from the immoralities associated with booze.

In the decade before the convention formal efforts were made to

The Prohibition Proposition

A hot issue at the constitutional convention.

By Charles P. LeWarne

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The Echo was published between 1868 and 1875 under the auspices of a committee designated by a territorial group of independent temperance organizations whose motto and underlying common principle was "total abstinence." The Journal is indicative of the concern that many territorial settlers felt over the consumption of alcoholic beverages.

The Echo
foreswear the use of alcohol in Washington Territory. By 1880 the International Order of Good Templars, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, several churches, and other interested groups and individuals had formed the Territorial Temperance Alliance, which began to work for temperance legislation. Laws were passed to close saloons on Sundays and make saloon owners liable for injuries resulting from drinks sold on their premises. In time, the legislature added local option laws along with an act requiring schools to teach about the dangers of alcohol and narcotics. Such efforts got a further boost in 1888 when the Reverend Edward B. Sutton, a Michigan Methodist and full-time organizer for the Prohibition Party, arrived. He crisscrossed the territory holding meetings—1,200 he claimed—all the while orating passionately about the evils of liquor and organizing clubs. Then came disaster: the next June the Great Seattle Fire whipped through the party's headquarters, destroying nearly all their supplies.

Meanwhile, as the constitutional convention approached, efforts to control alcohol became entangled with another reform, the women's suffrage movement. The conventional wisdom, fostered by opponents of both, held that a female electorate would soon vote in prohibition. Leaders of both campaigns quarrelled over how great a role each should play in the other's.

Although many convention delegates had strong reformist inclinations on other issues, the leaders would have preferred to eschew prohibition. But it could not be avoided. Sutton built up pressure and bombarded the convention with petitions. The "Committee on Miscellaneous Subjects, Schedule and Future Amendments" voted that the petitioners' "prayers... not be granted." But on July 17, committee member Sylvicus A. Dickey, the young KItsap County school superintendent, proposed a minority report that would make it illegal "for any individual company or corporation within the limits of this state to manufacture, to sell, offer for sale, or in any way dispose of any alcoholic, malt, or spirituous liquors, except for medicinal or scientific purposes." Legislative maneuvering shifted toward whether the convention should accept the Dickey report or submit the issue to the voters. Some strategists feared that including the two issues in the constitution might spell defeat for the document itself. A proposal for a popular vote was first rejected, but a few weeks later sentiment changed.

The Judicial Committee, chaired by George Turner, a longtime foe of both prohibition and women's suffrage, recommended that the two issues be placed on the ballot alongside the Constitution itself. Perhaps the decision to submit the matter to voters involved suspicion that a significant percentage of the electorate favored prohibition; historian Norman H. Clark further points out that the liquor interests offered no organized opposition—such was yet in the future. But Turner and his colleagues may well have had another thought in mind: if the two issues were sufficiently intertwined in the public mind, both might lose. Perhaps the sight of prohibition on the ballot would remind males that women voters would bring prohibition in the future.

In the two months between the adjournment of the convention and the October 1 election, prohibitionists let loose a barrage of attacks on the evils of drink and its effect on society. Seattle's prohibitionist newspaper held liquor responsible for the brothels in the cities, for "the bloated-faced staggering drunkards along our streets" and for the "spider legged tin horned gamblers" on street corners. "If you would save your boy and your neighbor's boy from becoming a drunkard," the editorial warned, "vote for prohibition."

But such hysterics went unheeded. Over 52,000 people voted on election day. Some 40,000 supported the constitution itself, but fewer than half that many favored prohibition and it was defeated almost two to one. Sutton shouted fraud, claiming that thousands of ballots with the two reform measures crossed out had been dispersed throughout the state. But fraud or not, the decision on prohibition was final. Its supporters had argued and the delegates had wavered, but the people had decided.

The prohibitionists would have their day—their decade, in fact—but not for a quarter century. Washington voters would approve a statewide prohibition initiative in 1914, and four years later they would ratify the eighteenth amendment to the United States Constitution by a two-to-one margin. In another era, all this would be repealed. But prohibition was not to become a part of the Washington Constitution.

Charles P. LeWarne is a teacher at Meadowdale High School in Edmonds and author of numerous articles and books, including Utopias of Puget Sound, 1885-1915; and Washington State, a high school textbook. He recently co-authored, with Robert E. Ficken, the state history commissioned by the 1989 Washington Centennial Commission, Washington: A Centennial History.
The coal mine strike in Gilman, 1891, brought the State Militia in from Tacoma to support the local sheriff in maintaining law and order. The constitution prohibited the mine owners from bringing in their own armed strikebreakers.

It is the paramount duty of the state to make ample provision for the education of all children residing within its borders, without distinction or preference on account of race, color, caste, or sex.

Marvelous words! Now, what do they mean? Well, nobody had ever had to say what they meant. For about 80 years, it was one of those great sentences in the Constitution which was uninterpreted. It is unique. No other state constitution has identical language. No one was quite sure what the words meant because no one ever had to use them. Finally, in the 1950s and 1960s, old doctrine and new facts intertwined.

Beginning in about 1957, and running well into the late 1960s and early 1970s, the Legislature was not willing to appropriate the amounts of money considered necessary for the maintenance and operation of the public schools. So public schools were required to resort to special property tax levies. Such levies are not bad for enrichment programs, perhaps, and it is not bad when they pay for five or ten percent of maintenance or operation. By the end of the 1960s and the early 1970s, however, special levies were funding 35 or 40 percent of some school budgets. The Washington Constitution requires a 40 percent turnout and a 60 percent vote to approve special levies. With these requirements, when there is 40 percent of the maintenance and operation budget riding on a special levy, a school district and its students become engaged in a crap shoot, not in the orderly care for public schools.

So finally, in the mid-1970s, an action was brought by the Seattle School District, and the celebrated case of Seattle School District No. 1 v. State (1978) was handed down. The State Supreme Court held that there is a constitutional mandate for the state (not school districts) "to make ample provision for the education of all children..."

Was the court true to the thoughts of the framers? I think it was. The vote was 6-3 on that particular case. Looking at the situation with which we were faced in the 1960s and early 1970s and the absolute preeminence that those who framed the Washington Constitution gave to public education—looking at those particular words "paramount duty"—it seems to me that the action taken by the court was indeed appropriate and consonant with the intent of the framers.
Let me next discuss the Declaration of Rights. This is one of those parts of the state constitution to which for years nobody paid much attention, except the article dealing with freedom of religion. The latter was attended to only because it was becoming so strictly construed that we could not have chaplains in various state institutions, such as prisons and the school for the blind. The people had to amend the Constitution (article I, section 11) to allow that.

Otherwise, the Declaration of Rights pretty much lay fallow for a good many years. At the Constitutional Convention itself, there was really no argument about the Declaration of Rights, except for two sections. One was on the taking clause, the matter of eminent domain, which took up several pages of argument in the journal. The other was on the Preamble. Here, the issue was whether the deity should be mentioned. The original document, which was reported from the committee to the convention, read:

We, the people of the State of Washington, to secure the blessings of liberty, ensure domestic tranquility and preserve our rights, do ordain this constitution.

This language is similar to the Preamble to the United States Constitution. This was defeated on the floor 45 to 22. The minority report, which was adopted and is now part of the Constitution, came out like this:

We, the people of the State of Washington, grateful to the Supreme Ruler of the Universe for our liberties, do ordain this constitution.

One other observation on the interpretation of the Declaration of Rights concerns the question of the fundamental premises which the framers of the constitution had when they wrote the document. Let me give an illustration of the difficulties involved. In a case called Alderwood Associates v. Washington Environmental Council (1981), the Supreme Court addressed the question of whether the Washington Environmental Council could collect signatures in the Alderwood Mall, north of Seattle, when the private owners of the mall did not want them to do so. The owners had obtained an order from the trial court enjoining the collection of the signatures. The major division in the Supreme Court, and this goes to the whole question of fundamental premises of the framers, was on this issue: did the framers mean the Declaration of Rights to protect an individual against the government, which is the standard doctrine, or was it meant to protect a person not only against the government but against another private citizen? In other words, are individuals protected not just against the City of Seattle or the State of Washington in free speech matters, but also against the Alderwood Mall or some other private citizen who may be infringing upon what are perceived to be their rights of free speech? This is an important issue, as evidenced both by the division on the court and by the fact that two members of the court have written law review articles on the subject.

To discover the framers' intent involves not just a textual analysis, nor an analysis on a section-by-section or word-by-word basis. What has to be discovered is the underlying and fundamental premise of the document itself: Against whom was the document to be applied, the individual or the state? Most courts in recent years, and there have been about ten of them which have acted on the issue, have taken a view that it is the individual against the state that is to be protected, and not the individual against the individual. I believe this to be the correct view and the one which represents fundamental premise of the framers.

It is fair to say, however, that in Washington the issue is still in doubt. Although the plurality of the Alderwood court held the constitution protected individuals against other individuals, the concurrence and dissent would apply the protections of the Declaration of Rights only to the acts of government. On the question of whether the defendant organization was entitled to collect the signatures, the court held it could.

We stand, in a very real sense, in the lengthened shadow of those individuals who gathered in those summer weeks in the city of Olympia in 1889 to form the constitution of a new state. They wrote a great document. The constitution created in 1889, in its essentials, is just as valid and just as vibrant today as it was then. Each of us has a responsibility to know what is in that document, and we should strive in the best way we can to live up to the vision which was given to us by those who wrote that constitution.

James M. Dolliver is a member of the Washington Supreme Court, former Chief Justice of that body, and a past president of the State Capitol Museum. This article is adapted from the distinguished Washington State University Pettyjohn Lecture which Justice Dolliver delivered in Pullman in 1986.
CENTENNIAL HISTORICAL FACTS
A Window on Washington's Past

With this issue, COLUMBIA prints a selection of comments and accounts of events in Washington during the summer of 1889. Highlights include the Constitutional Convention and the great fires in Seattle, Ellensburg, Vancouver and Spokane, but there is something here for almost every interest.

Like the list published in this magazine in Spring 1989, these facts are drawn from a larger database of two facts from each day of Washington's Centennial Year, November 11, 1888, to November 11, 1889. Researchers from the Washington State Historical Society compiled the facts; the 1889 Washington Centennial Commission sponsored the research. No formal publication of the full list is planned, but the list is available to newspapers, broadcasting stations and other media from the Commission's agent, the Rockey Company, 2121 Fifth Avenue, Seattle, 98121. These facts appear here with the Rockey Company's permission.

JUNE 1889

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 4, 1889</td>
<td>Methow</td>
<td>Three hundred horses from Oregon passed through Yakima on their way to the Methow Valley near the Okanogan River; 500 more soon followed. The owners planned to fatten them on Methow Valley grass and sell them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 6, 1889</td>
<td>Statewide</td>
<td>Northern Pacific Railroad officials offered to transport donations to relieve the sufferers of the Johnstown Flood, which destroyed the Pennsylvania town.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 6, 1889</td>
<td>Seattle</td>
<td>The Great Seattle Fire began around 2:30 p.m. when a pot of glue in a paint shop was put on a stove. A drought had depleted water supplies. Over 100 acres of wooden buildings, including most of the business district, burned to the ground. Other cities sent aid; rebuilding started almost at once.</td>
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<td>June 12, 1889</td>
<td>Steilacoom</td>
<td>The increase in the number of patients at Steilacoom Hospital (now Western State Hospital), says a local judge, is the result of so many patients coming from the East in hopes that Washington's climate would help them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 13, 1889</td>
<td>Spokane</td>
<td>Responding to the Seattle Fire, a Spokane newspaper demanded the establishment of a paid fire department, electric alarms, more equipment, and a more reliable water supply. &quot;Something should be done in this direction without the delay of another day,&quot; it declared. Nothing was done, and downtown Spokane burned on August 4.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 18, 1889</td>
<td>Constitutional Convention</td>
<td>Lobbyists for women's right to vote elected a former chief justice to attend the Constitutional Convention and rally &quot;in the third house&quot; for the cause. Already &quot;third house&quot; meant lobbyists' place of work.</td>
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<td>June 19, 1889</td>
<td>Tacoma</td>
<td>A Japanese middle-weight wrestler, Matsada Sonakichi, fought against an American named Faulkner for a $300 purse, and offered $50 to any local challenger who could stay in the ring for 20 minutes. Other matches with the same fighters had been held in Spokane, Portland, and Seattle.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 22, 1889</td>
<td>Vancouver</td>
<td>Vancouver became the latest Washington city to suffer from fires. Two separate fires in a space of two hours destroyed 69 buildings.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 23, 1889</td>
<td>Orting</td>
<td>The blackberry crop in Orting proved large. The average yield was 4,000 pounds an acre, with the grower clearing $3 cents a pound ($120 an acre). By selling blackberry wine, for which there was always an anxious market, one farmer cleared $500 an acre.</td>
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<tr>
<td>June 25, 1889</td>
<td>Bellingham</td>
<td>In Whatcom, a conference of artists and writers working for the West Shore and Northwest magazines met to prepare articles for the August, 1889, issue.</td>
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JULY 1889

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
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<tr>
<td>July 4, 1889</td>
<td>Constitutional Convention</td>
<td>The Constitutional Convention met in Olympia to write a state constitution. Until it was written, the state could have no state government. The delegates included 45 Republicans, 28 Democrats, and 2 Labor Party men. There were 22 lawyers, 13 farmers, 6 physicians, 5 bankers, 5 merchants, 4 stockmen, 3 teachers, 3 miners, 2 real estate dealers, 2 editors, 2 hop growers, 2 milkmen, 1 lumberman, 1 logger.</td>
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1 mining engineer, 1 surveyor, 1 fisherman, and 1 preacher.

July 11, 1889
MOUNT RAINIER
Mount Rainier looked especially beautiful in the late afternoon, its snow-glistening peak rising above dark clouds on the lower slopes, with the rising moon seeming to hang on the peak. A reporter noted that workers on their way home admired “the moon beautiful in the late afternoon, its “City of Destiny;” spilled its load of garbage into Commencement Bay.

July 13, 1889
SEATTLE
The Seattle City Council granted landowners on Madison Street a franchise to operate a cable car system. The owners profited by selling their land at high prices after the line was completed in 1890.

July 18, 1889
YAKIMA
In a bid to secure the state capital for North Yakima (now Yakima), the Yakima Herald sent a brochure to every delegate at the Constitutional Convention, illustrating with photographs the advantages of North Yakima. It proved insufficient, as the Convention left the site of the capital up to the voters.

July 20, 1889
WALLA WALLA
Millions of grasshoppers, attracted by Walla Walla’s electric lights, invaded the town.

July 22, 1889
SPOKANE
The Spokane Fire Commissioner struck a snag in hiring new paid firemen for one fire company: all the applicants were married, and he wanted single men only.

July 23, 1889
TACOMA
Tacoma’s garbage scow, named “City of Destiny,” spilled its load of garbage into Commencement Bay.

July 29, 1889
CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION
A hot debate in the Constitutional Convention concerned whether to mention God in the Constitution’s Preamble. Proposals to add the phrase, “grateful to Almighty God” lost by close votes of 34 to 32, 33 to 32, and 33 to 33. Supporters said that they wanted to show “respect for a higher power”, opponents, that “the constitution was a matter of business and reference to the Deity did not belong in it.”

July 31, 1889
CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION
The Constitutional Convention reversed itself and put God into the Constitution. By a vote of 45 to 22, the delegates added the phrase that the people of Washington were “grateful to the Supreme Ruler of the Universe for our liberties.”

AUGUST 1889

August 4, 1889
SPOKANE
Within four hours, a great fire destroyed every bank, every hotel, the post office, the land office, and nearly all the major business firms in Spokane (then called Spokane Falls). The fire marked the end of pioneer days, as permanent brick and stone buildings replaced the small wooden buildings that had existed before the fire.

August 10, 1889
GIG HARBOR
The Caledonian and St. Andrew’s Society of Tacoma held their first annual picnic in Gig Harbor. Contests on this Saturday included hammer throwing, tossing the caber, putting the stone, a 500-yard race, a bagpipe competition, a 3-leg race, a Highland Fling contest, a sword dance, and special races for boys, girls, and “old men” (over 50 years of age). In a tug of war, the married men defeated the bachelors.

August 12, 1889
CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION
The Constitutional Convention defeated, 43 to 18, a measure to empower the legislature to let women vote in state elections. It defeated a proposal to let women vote in city elections, 32 to 22, but allowed the legislature to let women vote in school elections. The Convention ultimately let the voters decide on women’s right to vote.

August 14, 1889
YAKIMA
North Yakima (now Yakima) began to create a professional fire department by buying a steam fire engine and three thousand feet of hose and to pay the fire chief.

August 15, 1889
CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION
The Constitutional Convention overwhelmingly rejected a proposal limiting the right to vote to women literate in English.

August 18, 1889
ROSILYN
A coroner’s jury concluded a saloon keeper had been “hanged by an unknown mob.” He had a reputation as a troublemaker, threatened to kill a man over a two-dollar debt, was jailed, and dragged from jail by a lynch mob who hanged him in a railroad roundhouse.

August 19, 1889
CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION
The Constitutional Convention approved a design for the state seal, but had trouble with the motto. It rejected “We varied industries invite you,” “Westward the star of empire takes its way,” “Welcome,” “Put none but Americans on guard,” and “We the people rule.” Finally, it approved a design without a motto.

August 23, 1889
WALLA WALLA
The commander of Fort Walla Walla recommended that the post be abandoned. So much water was being used for irrigating civilian orchards and gardens that not enough was left for the Army to drink.

August 23, 1889
TACOMA
Twenty-one African-American Republicans formed the Frederick Douglass Republican Club. The club was named for the former slave who had become a leading Republican statesman.

August 26, 1889
CHEHALIS
The first iron foundry south of Tacoma, the Jenkins Foundry and Machine Shops, was started in Chehalis. The machinery cost ten thousand dollars.

August 27, 1889
PORT TOWNSEND
Construction began on a railroad from Port Townsend to Portland. It was never finished.

August 27, 1889
TACOMA
A charity ball was held in Tacoma to raise money for the Fannie Paddock Hospital (now Tacoma General Hospital). Over 600 guests were present at what was called “the event of the summer season.”

August 29, 1889
TACOMA
Every hospital in Tacoma was reported filled. The city’s health officer recommended starting a public hospital, so that people would not have to pay private hospitals’ high rates of $5.60 per week.

Raymond J. Barnett, development officer for the Washington State Historical Society, directed the research for the Centennial Historical Facts.
James Swan was one of the first 12 Washingtonians selected for the State Historical Society's Centennial Hall of Honor.

James G. Swan

A Hall of Honor profile.

By Lucile McDonald
When the initial 12 names were selected in November 1981 for the Washington State Historical Society's Hall of Honor, James Gilchrist Swan, one of the state's first authors, was included. He was listed as an early settler, frontier oysterman, customs official, teacher, explorer and Indian ethnographer. In the national capital he had another identity; not only had he served as secretary to Washington Territory's delegate to Congress, former Governor Isaac I. Stevens, but for 36 years he was known as the Smithsonian Institution's "veteran correspondent at Puget Sound."

His work is still proving useful. Certain artifacts he collected more than a century ago are included in "Crossroads of Continents," an exhibit, organized by the Smithsonian, which is touring to Seattle and other sites beginning this summer.

A native of Medford, Massachusetts, James Swan came to the Pacific Northwest in 1852 when he was 34 years old. He craved adventure and wanted to become acquainted with the native inhabitants. As a boy he had listened to an uncle's accounts of a winter spent in the lower Columbia River aboard a Boston trading ship. Leaving his wife, two children and a distinguished group of relatives in Massachusetts, Swan sought his fortune in the California gold fields; at least that is what he told his family. He found, instead, employment on San Francisco's waterfront in businesses similar to those he had engaged in before he left Boston.

One Charles J. W. Russell, a pioneer oysterman, suggested that Swan accompany him to the Northwest. Thus Swan arrived at Willapa Harbor, where he took advantage of the opportunity to write, study Indians and prove up on a land claim. He produced the first major literary work from the new territory, illustrated it himself, became acquainted with Governor Stevens and later benefited from this contact when he went to Washington, D.C. It was in those brief months in the national capital that he made the connections with the Smithsonian, which encouraged his scientific activities and meant so much to him the rest of his life.

Swan's book, Three Years' Residence in Washington Territory, appeared in 1857 and has been issued twice since in new editions. It represents only a small portion of his writings, many of which were unsigned in newspapers or prepared for fisheries or ethnographic reports. When he returned to Washington Territory in 1859, he took up residence in Port Townsend and spent the rest of his life in the northwest corner of the state, occupying himself in a variety of ways—as a teacher and later customs inspector on the Makah Indian Reservation, clerking in a store, working at boat building, writing legislative measures and holding posts as journalist, railroad promoter, pilot commissioner and Hawaiian consul. His talents were many, but money-making was not one of them. Diaries written in his later years show he was frequently reduced to borrowing from friends sums as low as 50 cents or two dollars. Often his penury resulted from payments being overdue for his services.

Smugglers' Court

The skill of James Swan as a reporter of the contemporary scene shines forth from his most matter-of-fact writings. This is demonstrated in the recently discovered United States Commissioner's docket book which he kept between May 21, 1892 and June 30, 1897. It came to light when the volume was removed from a storage room on the fourth floor of the United States Courthouse in Tacoma in 1987 and turned over to the Seattle Branch of the National Archives, where it is now available for reference.

Most of the proceedings in this record relate to enforcement of the Chinese exclusion act or the smuggling of opium. The drug trade worked out of Victoria, and a carrier might be anyone in a boat from that port. In one instance, customs inspector William F. Larned testified that he had observed Hattie Stratton, of Port Angeles, when she came aboard the steamer City of Kingston and was satisfied that she had opium about her person. When the vessel was in American waters, he asked her to go to his stateroom for a few minutes. "When we got there I told her I was suspicious that she had smuggled goods about her person," he testified and Swan recorded, "She told me she had eight or nine pounds of opium.... It was in a quilted case or garment." Larned produced it in court and said the contents were valued at about $12 a pound. The defendant posted $150 bond and was scheduled for a hearing in a Seattle district court.

Another woman, Margaret Morrison, came in on the Sehome with six pounds of opium hidden in her clothing, but on arrival three and a half more pounds were found, one of them. Inspector C. P. Miller observed, "was tied up in a handkerchief of the women's little girl." When Swan asked the prisoner if she had anything to say, her reply was, "I have nothing to say. What can I say?" She posted $200 bond, guaranteeing her appearance in court the following month.

The top woman offender mentioned in the book was Lena Jackson, of New Whatcom, alleged to have brought in 140 tins of opium. Few of the cases described how the drugs were concealed, but one man was said to have hidden four tins in the ship's toilet. A Chinese employed as the personal steward of the captain of the revenue cutter Oliver Wolcott was not above trying to smuggle 18 tins into the country aboard the very vessel that was helping suppress the illegal trade.

Cases concerned with Chinese who had entered the United States illegally consumed much time in Swan's court. When customs men arrested a laborer, Ah Ten, one night in 1892 at the Taylor Street wharf, Swan reported the defendant's statement:

I came from Hong Kong to Portland, Oregon ten years ago.... I was farming at Portland six or seven years. From there I came to Puget Sound, first to Port Townsend, then I went to Whidbey Island and worked on a potato ranch. Then I came back to Port Townsend and worked on the hill chopping wood and stayed with a friend...."

He said he had never left the United States since first enter-
Another witness, S.W. Day, who accompanied Fisher, insisted that only an hour and a half had passed when Ah Jim came out of the woods and talked with another Chinese who was tending a dogfish oil works. "We were short handed," Day added, "and could not leave a guard watching Wo Sing's house with Ah Jim while we searched for the other fugitives. Ah Jim had come through the woods to give the alarm."

Fisher stated that he had other evidence to prove Ah Jim was employed as a "steerer" to assist and secrete contraband Chinese.

"From the insolent manner of Ah Jim and from the evidence of the witnesses," Swan wrote, "the court is satisfied that he is guilty as charged." Ah Jim was told to post $200 bond and appear before the district court on a charge of assisting Chinese to unlawfully enter the United States.

The next case involved Hen Sing, accused of aiding and abetting bringing in unlawful Chinese. The defendant branded this "a damn lie," but customs agent Fisher told the court, "In the past five months he has done nothing but loaf. Two months of that time he has been at Wo Sing's place loasing and gambling." On the day the officers visited the laundry, Hen Sing said there were positively no new Chinese in the house, "although at that time there was actually one lying within a few feet of him who had come in on the Sibyl." Hen Sing later admitted knowledge of the arrival of others in the night.

The Chinese cases went on and on. In one instance, the officers found seven men in a deserted log cabin in the forest. Their clothes were wet and muddy as a result of their wandering around in the woods for 24 hours in search of shelter after being put ashore from a small steamer in the night. Swan ordered the prisoners sent back "to the empire of China," though he suspected some of them would probably come back to these shores.

Swan's Legacy

Swan was destitute when he died in 1900; the real wealth of his estate was in the value of his contributions to history and science, and in the volumes of informative correspondence he wrote. He was a keen observer and a methodical recorder of events, a rare combination of qualities in his day.

The introduction to one of the reprint editions of Swan's book describes him as "an alcoholic character who lived like the Indians in a smokey one-room house" and was "always ready to accept a drink." This is unfair. His quarters in Port Townsend were not in a cabin, but on the second floor above the old post office and, later, in the brick Seavey Building. His fondness for alcoholic drinks may not have been abnormal for the time. He grew up in a small town that boasted four rum distilleries, and his waterfront business in Boston handled liquor. He mentioned in 1859 joining the Dashaway Club, supposedly a pioneer version of Alcoholics Anonymous. Twice he was branded in court "a chronic alcoholic." But his most intimate writings...
Swan's first office and lodgings in Port Townsend were over the old post office.

do not reflect any impairment of his faculties from drink, and it appears he imbibed most heavily when depressed over lack of funds or inability to carry out some ambitious project. Swan was one of the leading pioneer ethnographers. He was better known among the Indians than any other white man in the region. While he was once referred to derogatorily as "that Indian lover," today his understanding of the native tribes appears paramount among his admirable qualities. He was ahead of his contemporaries on this score; he was seldom too busy to listen to an Indian's problems.

The 64 diaries left among his papers and given after his death to the University of Washington library have no relation to his original book; they were begun two years after its publication and they deal with Swan's activities from the time he arrived in Port Townsend almost to the end of his life. Their value was overlooked until recent years. Only lately have historians appreciated the fact that James Swan had seen Washington from its birth as a territory through to statehood, and had preserved in his writings much of its past.

Lucile McDonald was a United Press foreign correspondent for 22 years. For many years after that she wrote a weekly local history column for the Seattle Times Sunday Magazine, amassing a total of some 1200 articles, for which the Times received a citation from the American Association for State and Local History.

The Northwest Coast by James G. Swan is the first account of life in the Pacific Northwest written by a resident of Washington Territory. It is a brilliant composite of his existence with the Native Americans of Shoalwater Bay.
The Washington State Centennial Hall of Honor

All 100 Hall of Honor inductees are listed here under their primary category of achievement. The criteria for appointment to the Hall of Honor are: 1) nominees must have been born or must have enjoyed permanent residence in Washington during the period November 11, 1889 through November 11, 1989, and 2) nominees must have made outstanding contributions of national or international significance.

Smohalla (c. 1815-1907): Wanapum shaman who founded the "Dreamer Cult," a religion based on the spirituality of all things of nature and the revelation of wisdom through dreams.

Sulktalthscosum (Chief Moses) (1829-1899): Known for his diplomacy in the peaceful settlement of his people on the Colville Reservation and for his influence in preventing more bloodshed in the Nez Perce and Bannock Wars by preventing his followers from entering into the warfare.

James G. Swan (1818-1900): A pioneer of 1852 who did business in oysters, held public offices, taught on the Makah Indian Reservation, and was an agent for the U.S. Fish Commission.

ARTS & LETTERS

Glen Adams (1911-): Mayor of Fairfield who owns and operates Ye Galleon Press, the oldest active independent publishing house in the Pacific Northwest.

Dudley Carter (1892-): Sculptor best known for his massive sculptures made from large trees with a woodman's axe.


Kirtland Kelsey Cutter (1860-1939): Architect of national repute who designed the Rainier Club in Seattle, the Davenport Hotel and Spokane Club in Spokane and many private residences in western cities.

Richard Fuller (1897-1976): Professor of geology at the University of Washington, but best known as founder and first director of the Seattle Art Museum in 1933.

Carolyn Kizer (1925-): Pulitzer Prize-winning poet who founded and edited Poetry Northwest magazine, and was Director of Literary Programs for the National Endowment for the Humanities.

Mary McCarthy (1912-): Nationally known author and critic; editor of the Partisan Review, 1938-38; instructor, Bard College, 1945-46; instructor, Sarah Lawrence College, 1948; Guggenheim Fellow, 1949-50, 1959-60.

Vernon L. Parrington (1871-1929): An English professor at the University of Washington chiefly known for his Pulitzer Prize-winning Main Currents of American Thought.


George Tsuchakawa (1910-): Sculptor and professor at the University of Washington known for his fountains and awarded the Order of the Rising Sun by the Emperor of Japan.

James W. Washington, Jr. (1911-): Painter and sculptor whose work is on display nationwide.

Minoru Yamasaki (1912-1986): Architect who designed the World Trade Center in New York, the Century Plaza Towers in Los Angeles, the Pacific Science Center in Seattle, the Dhahran International Airport in Saudi Arabia and many other well-known public buildings.

BUSINESS & INDUSTRY

Arthur R. Anderson (1910-): Past president of the American Concrete Institute, one of the founders of the Concrete Technology Corporation and ABAM Engineers, Inc. of Tacoma, he has been prominent in the development of pre-stressed concrete technology.


Joseph Cataldo (1837-1928): Early Jesuit missionary who bought land for a college in 1881 which later became Gonzaga University. He was instrumental in founding Spokane and building the first cathedral there.

Ezra Meeker (1830-1928): Pioneer, hop king, author who platted Puyallup in 1877 and became its first mayor.

Henry Sicade (1866-1938): Puyallup Indian tribal leader who contributed much to the agricultural development of the area.

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COLUMBIA 36 SUMMER 1989
Dorothy Bullitt (1892-): Founder of King Broadcasting Company and president and board chairman for many years.

John M. Fluke, Sr. (1911-1984): An electronics pioneer who was also involved in many civic activities including the Seattle Chamber of Commerce, the Seattle Symphony, Pacific Science Center and Junior Achievement of Greater Puget Sound.

Thea Foss (1857-1927): With her husband Andrew, founded the Foss Launch and Tug Company and is said to have been the model for the Tugboat Annie stories.


Raymond Hanson (1924-): Industrialist who specializes in building mammoth machines which do huge jobs, such as cranes to lift the turbines into place at Grand Coulee Dam.

Sam Hill (1857-1931): World citizen, railroad tycoon and patron of the arts who built the Blaine Peace Arch, duplicated Stonehenge, and built Maryhill, a museum on the Columbia Plateau.

Eric A. Johnston (1895-1963): Owner of a large electrical business in Spokane who was also president of the National Chamber of Commerce, president of the Motion Picture Association and Administrator of Economic Stabilization.

Frank Lamb (1875-1951): Founder of Lamb Grays Harbor Company as well as the Port of Grays Harbor which he served as commissioner for 44 years.

John W. Nordstrom (1866-1963): Retailer whose small shoe store at Fourth and Pike in Seattle was the beginning of the nation's largest independent fashion specialty retailer.

William H. Paulhamus (1864-1925): A pioneer in cooperatives, canning, certified milk and frozen foods, one of the founders of the Western Washington Fair, president of the State Senate, founder of the Puyallup and Sumner Fruit Growing Association.

Mark Reed (1866-1933): President of the Simpson Logging Company, a major influence in the development of Shelton, and a member of the State Legislature.

J. James Swan is one of 100 eminent Washingtonians selected for the State Historical Society's Hall of Honor. These people have been chosen for contributions they made in their fields during the period of Washington statehood. The Statehood Centennial is the occasion for bringing them the recognition they deserve. The late Robert Hitchman, then president of the Society, David James of the Board of Curators, and former director Bruce Le Roy gave the initial impetus for the program. Beginning in 1981, selections were made by a committee of the board acting on nominations from throughout the state and on the recommendations of advisory committees. Each November another group was selected until this year when the final names were added on February 22. The story of their contributions is, in many cases, the story of the development of their individual fields. The Hall of Honor exhibit, to be held at the Society museum from May 16 to July 16, with an accompanying book, will bring this story together to show how these honored 100 have helped build Washington State.
Philip Weyerhaeuser (1899-1956): Head of Weyerhaeuser Lumber Company who saw it change from a dealer in timberlands to a manufacturer of forest products using materials which had previously been considered waste.

Oscar Wirkkala (1880-1959): Inventor who developed tools and systems that enable the logging industry to reach timber previously inaccessible as well as a new kind of marine propeller.


Gordon Hirabayashi (1918- ): Served a prison term for resisting internment in a Japanese relocation camp in 1942 and has fought to have constitutional guarantees reemphasized.

May Arkwright Hutton (1860-1915): Author and suffragist who organized the Spokane Equal Suffrage Association and the Washington Political Equality League, and was the first woman to be a delegate to the Democratic National Convention in 1912.

Mother Joseph (1823-1902): Archbishop, construction supervisor and fund raiser for 29 schools and hospitals in Washington Territory and chosen to represent the state in Statuary Hall, Washington, DC.

Emma Smith De Voe (1885-1936): Founder and president of the Children's Orthopedic Hospital in Seattle.

Edna Breazeale (1895-1987): English teacher at Roosevelt High School in Seattle who led the effort to establish the Padilla Bay Sanctuary in Skagit County and was awarded the State Environmental Excellence Award in 1981.

Horace Cayton (1860-1940): Publisher of the weekly newspaper Republican in Seattle and an early fighter against discrimination.


Anna Louise Strong (1885-1970): First woman elected to the Seattle School Board and a journalist who traveled to Russia and China and wrote of the political systems of these countries.

J. D. Ross (1871-1939): Seattle City Light Superintendent who planned a transmission grid linking Bonneville and Grand Coulee dams with major cities.

Edmond S. Meany (1862-1935): Widely known author and professor of history at the University of Washington known for his support of liberal causes.

Lizzie Ordway (1828-1897): The only one of the Mercer girls to remain unmarried, she served a ten-year stint as Kitsap County School Superintendent and was a tireless advocate of women's rights.

Stephen B. L. Penrose (1865-1947): An educator who was the youngest college president in the country when he became president of Whitman College at the age of 29.


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Henry Suzzallo (1875-1933): President of the University of Washington who doubled its size, started a large building program and raised academic standards.

Pearl Wanamaker (1899-1984): Superintendent of Public Instruction for 40 years. She also served in the State Legislature.

Bob Barker (1923- ): TV personality and recipient of numerous awards from humane societies for his work in the field of animal protection.

COMMUNITY SERVICE


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Pearl Wanamaker (1899-1984): Superintendent of Public Instruction for 40 years. She also served in the State Legislature.
Harry Lillis "Bing" Crosby (1903-1977): One of America's most widely-known entertainers.

Merce Cunningham (1919- ): Choreographer, dancer, and director of his own dance company for 31 years who has won many awards, including the American Dance Festival Scripps Award, the French Legion of Honor, and the Kennedy Center Award for outstanding achievement in the arts.

James Wong Howe (1899-1986): Cinematographer, director and producer whose work has received 16 nominations and two Academy Awards.

Fred Hutchinson (1919-1964): Baseball player and manager who led the Cincinnati Reds to the National League pennant in 1961.

Robert Joffrey (1930-1988): Founder of the Joffrey Ballet, the first company with home bases in both Los Angeles and New York.

Quincy Jones (1933- ): Composer, arranger, conductor, trumpeter, music director of Mercury Records and winner of a Grammy Award.

Patrice Munsel (1925- ): The youngest singer ever to sign a Metropolitan Opera contract.

George Hugo Boldt (1908-1984): District Court Judge for 25 years best known for his decision that Indians were entitled to half the state's salmon and steelhead runs.

Thomas Burke (1849-1925): Lawyer, judge, railroad promoter who was often called "the man who built Seattle."

Francis Cushman (1867-1909): Tacoma attorney who as a U.S. Representative from 1899 to his death obtained funds for the Puyallup Indian School and obtained Point Defiance as a park for Tacoma.

William O. Douglas (1898-1980): Associate Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court who became nationally known for his stands on human rights and the protection of the environment.

Julia Butler Hansen (1907-1988): State Representative and the first woman to be Speaker of the House; then became a member of the U.S. House of Representatives and chairman of a powerful House Appropriations subcommittee.


Wesley Jones (1863-1932): Congressman and senator who helped draft and secure passage for the National Reclamation Act.

Bertha Knight Landes (1869-1943): Mayor of Seattle in 1926 when she was the first woman to be mayor of a major American city.

Erna Gunther (1897-1982): Anthropologist who taught at the University of Washington for 43 years and became recognized nationally for her work on Pacific Northwest Indians.


Walter H. Brattain (1902-1957): Research physicist and professor at Whitman College who shared the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1956 for his work in developing the transistor.

Jonathan Wainwright (1883-1953): Medal of Honor recipient for gallant service with the Army in defense of the Philippines during World War II. Commander of the Fourth Army.

Wilbert McLeod Chapman (1910-1970): Taught at the University of Washington and was dean of the School of Fisheries who became an internationally known ichthyologist.

Hiram Chittenden (1858-1917): Army engineer who developed the Port of Seattle with its crowning achievement, the Chittenden Locks. Also an amateur historian whose work The American Fur Trade of the Far West is still a standard work on the subject.

Barney Clark (1921-1983): A dentist who practiced in Burien, he was the first person to receive an artificial heart.

Dr. Lauren Donaldson (1903- ): Professor at the University of Washington and a world-renowned ichthyologist and radiobiologist whose research was a mainstay for the salmon industry.

Russell Stanley Callow (1890-1961): Known as "Dean of America's Rowing Coaches," he started by coaching the University of Washington's crew and coached the Naval Academy crew which won the Olympic gold medal in 1952.

Edward R. Murrow (1908-1965): European director of CBS whose broadcasts from London during World War II were a major influence in the development of radio journalism.

Clyde Pangborn (1896-1958): An aviator who, in 1931, was the first to fly non-stop from Japan to the United States.

Richard Scobee (1919-1984): Astronaut who was second in command of the April 1984 flight of the Challenger and who logged 68 hours in space before being given command of the ill-fated mission of January 1986.

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Trevor Kincaid (1873-1970): University of Washington zoology professor noted for his research on oyster culture and a developer of the Friday Harbor Marine Laboratory.


Belding Scribner (1915- ): Doctor who developed a technique whereby kidney dialysis could be used indefinitely to keep patients alive while waiting for a kidney transplant.

E. Donnall Thomas (1920- ): Physician who developed a method of treating leukemia by means of bone marrow transplants. He taught at the University of Washington Medical School and authored more than 750 articles in medical journals.

Archie Van Doren (1906-1986): Professor, horticulturist and cattleman best known as the father of controlled atmosphere storage for apples.

Orville Vogel (1907-): U.S. Dept. of Agriculture wheat breeder at Washington State University who helped develop the first successful variety of semi-dwarf wheat in North America.
With this issue we begin a new feature, calling upon the vast holdings of the Washington State Historical Society, usually emphasizing manuscript material recently accessioned.

This document is one of numerous promissory notes issued to raise funds for the Cayuse War. Following the murder of the Whitmans on November 29, 1847, a commission of influential citizens was named to provide means for proceeding against the Cayuse Indians. The company raised by Governor Abernethy was called the "Oregon Rifles," and was sent to protect settlers at The Dalles. Messrs. Lovejoy, Burns and Wilson, referred to in the body of this imprint, were among the founding fathers of the Oregon Provisional Government organized at Champoeg in 1843. Antoine River, a French-Canadian formerly in the employ of the Hudson's Bay Company, made a small contribution to the war chest.

WHEREAS, by act of the Legislature of the Territory of Oregon, approved 10th December 1847, the Governor of said Territory, was authorized to raise a regiment of volunteer riflemen, which said act also authorized Jesse Applegate, A. L. Lovejoy and G. L. Curry, as Commissioners, to negotiate a loan not to exceed One Hundred Thousand Dollars, for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of that act, and to pledge the faith of the Territory for the payment of such sum as might be so negotiated, within three years from the date of said loan, unless sooner discharged by the Government of the United States. And

WHEREAS the said commissioners resigned their said office without professing all the duties thereof. And,

WHEREAS by act of the Legislature of said Territory, approved 23d Dec., A. D. 1847, A. L. Lovejoy, Hugh Burns, and W. H. Wilson, were appointed a Board of Commissioners to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of said former Board of Commissioners, elected with the same powers, and subject to the same restrictions as defined in the said act, approved December 10th, A. D. 1847.

$ 72

KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS,

THAT WE, A. L. LOVEJOY, HUGH BURNS, and W. H. WILSON, Commissioners of the Territory of Oregon, acknowledge that the Territory of Oregon is held and stands firmly bound unto

We the said

in the full and just sum of Twenty Five Dollars, with interest at the rate of Ten percent per annum to be paid unto the said

hers, executors, administrators, or assigns, for the payment of which, said

and truly to be paid; we, as Commissioners aforesaid, bind the Territory of Oregon fully and severally by these presents.

Signed with our hands and sealed with our seals, this 23rd day of December, A. D. 1847

THE CONDITIONS of the above obligation are such, that if the Government of the United States shall discharge the said sum of Twenty Five Dollars, with the interest, within three years from the date hereof; or if the Territory of Oregon shall pay and satisfy the same within the time last aforesaid, then the above obligation shall be void, otherwise remain in full force and virtue.

[Signatures]

Hugh Burns

W. H. Wilson

Commissioners.
Puget Sound is a complex system of inland waters that has for thousands of years defined the geography and human habitation of nearly one quarter of Washington State. First Native Americans and later immigrant populations from other parts of this country and from around the world came to establish communities and to build their lives in the estuarine bay now called Puget Sound. In so doing, residents of the region have developed skills, customs, arts, crafts and techniques suited to living and working on these waters. Passed informally from person to person as part of daily life, such traditions constitute the maritime folklife of Puget Sound.

By Phyllis A. Harrison
The exhibit "Maritime Folklife from the Puget Sound Region" explores a somewhat overlooked area of our heritage. It brings together a wide sampling, from marlin boards to wooden decoys to clam baskets to boat launchings, of maritime traditions passed along from generation to generation and very much a part of life on the Sound today. This exhibit looks at the lives of people through the folk traditions their lives sustain.

"Folklife" means different things to different people, and rarely does it mean precisely the same thing to any two. Folklorists themselves argue about definitions and nuances of meaning. As the term "folklife" has become more widely used and as folk arts and folk crafts have become more popular—and more marketable—many individuals from different backgrounds with different motives have added definitions and impressions to the field.

For the nonfolklorist, definitions often describe products. Quilts, whirligigs, tall tales and proverbs are readily identified by their very nature as folk artifacts. Other times a definition might focus on style or technique. Folk artifacts are folk because they are rural, fanciful, primitive, unique, antique or naive. Folklorists object to such definitions for two reasons. First, folklore and folklife become exotic imports or unusual asides, not the stuff that our own lives are made of. Second, the products of folk tradition become divorced from the people and the situations that create them.

Folklorists take a different approach to the definition of folklife, looking not just at the products—the wooden boat, the christening ceremony, the way to predict the weather—but also at the people who create and use them. Folklife is more than product. Folklife is also a process in which people are paramount; a process of living and learning, of sharing knowledge and experiences.

Much of that learning process takes place informally, as part of daily business at home or on the boat with family, on the job from other workers in the rigging loft, by participating in ceremonies like launchings, by putting (or deciding not to put) a broom on the mast when the catch reaches 100,000 fish, or by watching the sea gulls soar aloft and knowing wind is on the way. Hence folklife and folk traditions are deeply rooted in specific communities, described by such elements as family, ethnicity, occupation or location and whose shared experiences and concerns provide the context in which the custom, the belief or the craft has meaning.

Longshoremen's nicknames are folk tradition not by virtue of being nicknames or because of their often satirical or humorous nature. They are folk tradition

Edward Carriere, Suquamish basketmaker, at work on a clam basket.

Henry Stewart boat yard, Poulsbo, Washington. Mr. Stewart divides his time between fishing and building wooden boats, many of them for other fishermen.

Folklorists take a different approach to the definition of folklife, looking not just at the products—but also at the people who create and use them.
The launching ceremony of a new boat is an important part of the maritime tradition. This photograph depicts the christening of the tuna clipper Royal Pacific, built by Martinac Shipbuilding in 1950, with owner Andrew Morthlund looking on as his wife Constance does the honors.

because they are created by, are used by and offer support to an on-the-job community where the use of the name reinforces a sense of belonging, a sense of comradery, a sense of what it means to be a longshoreman. The rope fenders of Sid Buford and Ted Buttle are folk tradition, not because of unique or historical qualities inherent in the fenders themselves, but because of the communities through which these men learned their skills and in which they use them. Buford learned his rigging skills in the Navy, as a bosun's mate and then as a master rigger in the Bremerton rigging loft. Ted Buttle has fished for much of his life, learning to build nets as part of his job and learning to build bow fenders (also called bow bumpers, whiskers, punkins and puttins) from another Seattle fisherman, Bob Wells. Buttle spends winters working in the net loft at Seattle Ship Supply, dividing his time between building nets and building bumpers for other fishermen. The marlin boards of Carl Crimi, Jerry Irvine and Warren Scholl are folk art, not because of the boards' intricate beauty or nautical flavor, but because Crimi, Irvine and Scholl learned their skills as sailors and, for many years, used their skills for sailors in Navy and yacht yards. These various traditional artifacts, verbal or tangible, practical or decorative, grow out of a strong working context, one in which the rope fender or nickname shows but a single facet of a complex whole, a small portion of life on the water.

The artists, craftspeople and samples of Puget Sound folklife featured in this exhibit represent more than just individual expertise or isolated incidents. They represent previous generations and mentors—the past that produced the present; they represent contemporary associates, co-workers and family members—the community that supports their current efforts, and they represent succeeding generations whose work will ultimately supplant their own.

"Maritime Folklife from the Puget Sound Region" focuses on contemporary maritime traditions. Based upon field research by Dr. Janet C. Gilmore, Dr. Jens
Lund and myself, the exhibit presents a variety of traditional arts, crafts, skills and customs as they exist in the Puget Sound region in 1989.

Some of those traditions have changed little over the years. Weather beliefs based on natural signs remain the same despite the advent of radar and NOAA. Other traditions have changed with the introduction of new technology or materials. The Medicine Creek Smokehouse in Tumwater, owned by Squaxin Tribe members Brian Johnson, Leslie Johnson and Bruce Johnson, uses contemporary technology and mass production for the commercial preparation of traditional smoked salmon. Mending net is a skill fishermen learn from other fishermen, and though contemporary nylon nets are much sturdier than their tarred cotton predecessors, the tricky process of mending is much the same. Further, the labors of readying gear and mending nets have for generations provided a sure sign of spring in every Puget Sound fishing community.

Sometimes a traditional form remains while its function changes. Edward Carriere, Suquamish basket maker from Indianola, weaves cedar baskets just as he learned from his grandmother. Yet rarely is one of his baskets used in the traditional manner, to gather clams and wash them in the surf. Rather, his baskets fill the homes of friends and family as well as the shelves of collectors around the country.

Sometimes formal training complements the informal learning process described above. Boat builder Michael Vlahovich learned much from his boat building cousin Michael Kazulin and much from working as a fishermen on wooden fishing boats owned by other Yugoslav fishermen. Yet he also took formal training at Bates Vocational School, where he studied under another traditional Puget Sound boat builder, Joe Trumbly—a man who brought to Bates years of experience with wooden boats gleaned from Tacoma boat yards in Old Town and on the tide flats.

Change comes also from within, as artisans adapt traditional patterns to suit individual ideas and innovations. Mt. Vernon boat builder Francis Hildebrant modelled his Skagit River scows after those of his grandfather and other boat builders in the lower Skagit area. He, however, created his own distinctive scow by incorporating a number of changes such as rounder lines, a detachable bridge, three keels and a number of interior features as well. Each boat gives him ideas for improving the next one.

Folklife, like every other aspect of life, feels the pull of change with the world around it. Flexibility and adaptability in the presence of a changing environment are signs of a vital, dynamic tradition.

"Maritime Folklife from the Puget Sound Region" is a sampler, not a survey. It brings together a wide variety of traditions and tradition-bearers from around the Sound. Yet every item and every artisan in the exhibit shares this: a continuity of experience that comes from an ongoing affiliation with life and work on the water. That continuity is the source of folk tradition.

"Maritime Folklife from the Puget Sound Region" can be viewed at the Washington State Historical Museum between July 27 and November 12, 1989. The exhibit is funded in part by the National Endowment for the Arts, the Butelle Memorial Institute, the King County Arts Commission, and Brown and Haley.

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Washington's Audacious State Capitol and Its Builders
Reviewed by David L. Nicandri.

Washington, as Norman Johnston points out, does not have a single capitol, but a coordinated group of buildings at the seat of government, which we are led to conclude is certainly rare if not unique in the public architecture of the United States. Credited by the author as being "among the great examples of the idiom," Washington's Legislative Building is the focal point of the matched set in Olympia and Johnston's study.

Some topics lend themselves to popular interpretations and certainly "temples of democracy" must qualify in this regard. Such histories, when written by scholars such as Johnston, make an ideal arrangement. Heavily (and well) illustrated, Washington's Audacious State Capitol begs for a wide audience. The many side notes to the main text are very accommodating to the reader and almost serve as an abbreviation of the author's well-told story.

Too many architectural histories become loaded down with an academic jargon that attempts to explain the stylistic fine points of the practitioners but usually only confuses things. There is very little of that in Johnston's book, and just when the reading begins to get thick, an illustrated glossary of terms leads the general reader to an appreciation of the architectural details that make Washington's Legislative Building a work of art.

Even so, a large portion of Johnston's tale is political history. For many years Olympia was on constant guard out of fear that the seat of government might be "stolen" by another city. The lack of a permanent capitol exacerbated this problem. In 1911, two New York architects, Walter Wilder and Harry White, won a design competition, and as their vision came to be implemented thoughts of making a Tacoma or an Ellensburg the capital city vanished. Indeed, Johnston's chapter on the torque Governor Roland Hartley raided upon the architects and their representatives in the late 1920s makes for the most interesting part of the book.

Readers will come upon some interesting revelations. For example, the group's Temple of Justice was the first building constructed, and for several years stood bare with a brick exterior while a decision evolved as to the surface material to be employed. In one of their most thoughtful moves, the architects and the capitol commission decided upon Wilkeson sandstone from Pierce County, rather than Chuckanut stone from Whatcom County with its "forbidding gray tones." Though the capitol's off-white stone may shine when clean, the author fails to point out one of the architects' few blunders: they situated the group's power plant upwind, the emissions from which blacken Wilkeson's finest with great regularity.

Johnston's narration essentially ends in 1930, when the last finishing touches on the capital group and grounds were made. Here, the author is clearly more sympathetic to Wilder and White's preferences than the landscape designs of the famed Olmsted brothers. Though not credited by Johnston, the latter firm's diagonal approaches to the group salvaged the purely northward and impractical landscape orientation of Wilder and White's original design.

These last are minor quibbles. Johnston, taking one of the most visible of Washington's manmade landmarks, has made linkages between state history and some of the major themes in Western architectural history. In so doing, his book deserves a prominent spot on the centennial era's bookshelf.

David L. Nicandri is director of the Washington State Historical Society and editor of Columbia Magazine.

Reviewed by George H. Tweney.

On November 11, 1889, by proclamation from President Benjamin Harrison, Washington Territory was admitted into the Union as a state. In honor of Washington's 100th birthday, the 1989 Washington Centennial Commission commissioned several books, including Washington: A Centennial History.

The authors wrote to fulfill what they saw as the need for a general, popularly written and academically solid history of the state. In consideration of their intended readers, footnotes were omitted (a few would have helped in this reviewer's opinion), and the bibliographical section is more a narrative guide to additional reading than a list of sources consulted in preparation of the book. There is also an adequate index.

This history of the state is largely concentrated on the past 100 years, from 1889 to 1989. All prior events, such as coastal exploration, early discoveries, the overland explorers and the years of territorial development, are dispensed with in the first 28 pages. Chapter Three presents the history of the timber industry, followed by the agricultural history of the Columbia Plain. Very rapidly the book gets to the period between...
the Great War and the depression years, then into the New Deal and the
damming of the Columbia River, followed by the construction of the
Hanford plant, and concluding with the post-World War II years.

Considerable attention is focused on the aspects of labor, industry,
and politics in the state's history. There is adequate coverage of the
development of Washington's erstwhile image as a "hot-bed of radicalism;" the
growth and decline of the IWW (the "Wobblies"), the widespread influence of the teamsters under Dave Beck, the Centralia and Everett
"massacres," the roles of timber, power and agriculture in the maturation of the state, the tremendous influences of Senators Henry M. Jackson and Warren G. Magnuson on Washington's political image, and the $24 billion decade of the Washington Public Power Supply System (WPPSS).

There is an abundance of information crammed into this relatively short history. Singular events seem to follow one another almost on a sentence-by-sentence and paragraph-by-paragraph basis. One gets the feeling at times that the text has been rather hurriedly written. Some facts also seem slightly awry. The authors place Spain's naval station of San Blas in Baja California, when in reality it was on the Mexican mainland about 150 miles northwest of Guadalajara; and they have Lewis and Clark reuniting in North Dakota on their return trip, when it might have been more specific to state that they reunited at the confluence of the Yellowstone and Missouri Rivers.

But with all this reviewer's nitpicking, this is a highly readable history of Washington's last 100 years. It more than adequately fulfills the authors' aim of writing a popular history. We can still tum to the marvelously detailed earlier histories by Meany, Fuller, Johansen and Gates, Avery and Deutsch for documented facts of the state's total history.

The University of Washington Press has made this an attractive book, with 37 illustrations, including a double-page map of Washington State, reproduced lithographic illustrations of Seattle in 1884 on the front endpaper, Spokane Falls in the 1880s on the rear endpaper, and a colorful wrap-around dust jacket lithograph of a bird's-eye view map of Olympia, East Olympia and Tumwater in 1879.

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Current and Noteworthy
By Robert C. Carriker, Book Review Editor

For almost a decade the Oregon-California Trails Association has encouraged summer travelers to visit original sites and intact portions of the trails followed by overland pioneers. Two updated books by Gregory M. Franzwa, Maps of the Oregon Trail (Gerald, MO: Patrice Press, 1982, Second Edition 1988; 292 pp., $14.95 paper) and The Oregon Trail Revised (Gerald, MO: Patrice Press, 1972, Fourth Edition 1988; 436 pp., $12.95 paper) contain detailed instructions for visiting the precise locations along the trail in Washington, Oregon and Idaho. Both books were originally prepared for the National Park Service in 1979 following the passage of the National Historic Trails Act. Of particular interest to vacationers are the coded trail maps for the seven hiking segments, a total of 318 miles, established by the National Park Service. The Columbia River Gorge portion of the Oregon Trail is also charted.

Summer hikers will also be interested in Mount St. Helens, National Volcanic Monument by Chuck Williams (Seattle: The Mountaineers, 1988; 112 pp., $4.95). This pocket guide is the most authoritative review of visitor facilities, roads and trails within the monument. In addition to maps, the book offers descriptions of eight road tours to viewpoints, interpretive sites, and campgrounds.

The Center for Pacific Northwest Studies at Western Washington University recently issued its latest Occasional Paper, which is in fact a book, Reindeer and Gold, edited by the distinguished Professor Emeritus Keith A. Murray (Bellingham: Occasional Paper #24, 1988, 239 pp., $12 paper). Carl Sacariasen was part of the Reindeer Expedition of Laplanders who went to Nome, Alaska in 1898 to teach natives how to care for deer herds. Sacariasen's journal eventually found its way to the library of Norwegian friends living on Puget Island in the Columbia River where it remained until a student chanced to tell Professor Murray about its existence. Sacariasen's translated and edited diary is unusual not only for its provenance, but also for the fact that it is one of only two primary source documents related to the United States Reindeer Service at the turn of the century.

Another Alaska diary, this one originally introduced to readers of Pacific Historian in two installments in 1984, is May Wynne Lamb's Life in Alaska, 1916-1919, edited by Dorothy Wynne Zimmerman (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1988; 171 pp., $19.95 cloth, $8.95 paper). May Wynne was the only schoolteacher on the Kuskokwim River during World War I and her diary provides an interesting perspective from which to view government educational policy for Eskimo children.

Recent politics in Idaho is the theme of Paradox Politics, People and Power in Idaho by Randy Staplus (Boise: Ridenbaugh Press, 1988; 339 pp., $10.95 paper). Staplus, the political editor of The Idaho Statesman, the largest daily newspaper in the state, sees in Idaho a microcosm of the country as it reflects the nation's decline of organized labor, its tax revolts, changing economy and concern for the environment. The focus is on post-World War II events; personalities emphasized include William Bomb, C. Ben Ross, Frank Church and Cecil Andrus.
A great race between automobile and train, planned by promoter T. H. Martin in 1915, met with resounding national success. The race, "Four Hours to the Mountain," was filmed by B. B. Dobbs and shown to thousands that year at the Washington Pavilion of the Panama-Pacific Exposition in San Francisco. For days before the race, the Tacoma News Tribune advertised for Tacominans to act as extras in the film. The morning of April 27, 2000-3000 people turned out at the Milwaukee depot, together with the College of Puget Sound band. Five autos gathered to challenge the train. Amid the whirring of the movie camera and the ballyhoo of the band, the race was on. School children in Eatonville, Alder, Elbe and Ashford were allowed to miss school to cheer the contestants along the way. Car #2, skillfully driven by Mrs. O. H. Ridgeway, set a record pace for the autos with a 40-50 mph average to LaGrande. She shot into the lead after car #3 threw a tire. The train had some difficulty with a herd of cows on the railroad tracks. But, finally, it pulled into Ashford some five minutes before Mrs. Ridgeway. A $1000 bag of gold was presented to Milwaukee engineer Bagley, who promptly handed the prize over to Mrs. Ridgeway.

Readers are invited to submit historical photographs for History Album. Columbia will pay $25 for each photograph published. If a photograph is to be returned, it must be accompanied by a self-addressed, stamped envelope.
**Additional Reading**

Interested in learning more about the topics covered in this issue? The volumes listed here will get you started.

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**Two Tales from the “Fiery” ’80s**


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**James G. Swan**


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**The Mind of the Founders**


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**Mount Rainier or Mount Tacoma?**


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**Maritime Folklife Puget Sound**


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**Barnstorming Ace Makes Big Splash**

