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The Gould Family of San Diego: Pioneers in Business, Recreation and Community Service

Iris H. W. Engstrand

What forces combine to produce successful families over several generations? What values are instilled in children to ensure their becoming productive and valued members of society? Is there some magic to motivation? Why do persons leave known circumstances to make their way to a new place in a new environment? Is it climate? Economic opportunity? Adventure? Perhaps there are answers to be found by tracing the lives of certain individuals who have become pioneers in the development of young cities—not only in business ventures but in cultural activities and recreational pursuits. Members of the San Diego Gould family, descended from the Goulds of the town of Lydd, County Kent, on the coast of the English Channel near Dover, were just such pioneers on the West Coast during the latter decades of the nineteenth century.

The history of the Goulds in America begins on the Atlantic Coast in Massachusetts and Maine, continues through the Midwest to Chicago, and takes root in California. Like other families seeking new lives, the Goulds were pioneers, representing the classic “Westward Movement” so familiar in United States history. They eventually settled in San Diego to become active, productive and respected members of the business and cultural community. Their stories are unique in some aspects, but in others follow a pattern that is repeated throughout the early days of the country. The Goulds had their share of triumphs and, perhaps, more than their share of tragedies.

The simplest definition of a pioneer is “one who goes before.” In this case the first to go before was Jarvis Gould who arrived in Massachusetts at age thirty aboard the Elizabeth in 1635. He and his wife Mary became parents of John, born in Hingham, near Boston, in 1646 and Joseph, born in 1649. Joseph died in childhood, while John grew up in semi-rural Massachusetts. In 1673 John married Mary Crossman and together they reared a family of eight children in an environment that presented the challenges of harsh winters and few amenities. John, the first Gould born in America, served as a trooper in the short-lived but bloody King Philip’s War in 1675. He died in 1711 at Taunton, Massachusetts.

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John and Mary’s son Benjamin, who carried on the San Diego Gould family line, was born in 1693 in Taunton but moved to Kittery, Maine, with his brother Joseph and sister Elizabeth. In 1719 he founded a small farming settlement known as Gould’s Corner in the town of Eliot near the Massachusetts border. The Goulds cleared the forest and did their best to farm the rocky soil. As one historian summarized the experience: “Felling and burning the forest, uprooting stumps, dragging off boulders, leveling the land, eliminating incompatible wildlife species, and introducing new crops and livestock, these third-generation New England pioneers initiated the changes that would transform the region’s environment in the nineteenth century.” In addition, Benjamin Gould belonged to the Society of Friends (Quakers) and served in the Fourth Alarm Company of Kittery, Maine in 1758.

Benjamin and his wife Rebecca Furbush became the parents of seven children, of which the fourth child Samuel, born in 1728, married Mary Gouch of Yarmouth in 1752. Samuel, although nearing fifty years of age, served as a soldier in the American Revolution. Their son Benjamin, the fourth of twelve children and ancestor of the San Diego Goulds, was born in Eliot, Maine in 1769. His brother Samuel, born a year earlier, served the American Revolution by doing “civil and patriotic service in Maine.” Samuel and Benjamin became the first in the family to move to New Portland in Central Maine. Benjamin married Olive Walker of Woolwich in 1795 and the couple named their eldest son Samuel, born in 1795.

Samuel Gould was one of the first settlers to grow up in New Portland, Maine, after the American Revolution. This town, located in Somerset County, “was granted by the Legislature of Massachusetts to such of the inhabitants of Fallmouth, now Portland, as suffered losses in the destruction of that town” by the British fleet in 1783. A group of citizens including the Gould brothers—Samuel and Benjamin -- and others, traveled inland from the Maine coast about 90 miles and staked out claims on the land, which is about six miles west of the Kennebec River. They joined David Hutchins, the first settler who had come from Massachusetts. The soil on the rolling hills was thought to be good and well adapted to grazing animals and raising of winter wheat, corn, barley and oats. There were no lakes but a small pond of about 50 acres, good waterpower from the local streams, and a healthful climate made the area desirable. There is one mountain and several hills, one of which is today called Gould Hill.

Samuel Gould surveyed the town into lots of 100 acres at its incorporation in 1808. He married Lydia Walker, whose brother Solomon traveled to New Portland.
with the Goulds in 1789. Their son Samuel married Mary Weathern on October 4, 1818. The Weatherns were also pioneers in the town, appearing as owners of a town lot on the Samuel Gould survey. The Goulds did some farming but Samuel Gould opened a dry goods and grocery store in partnership with Ward Spooner in the early 1820s. They were still in business as Gould and Spooner in 1860.

Son Hiram Gould decided to leave the farming life and study dentistry. He met and later married Elizabeth Ilsley Libby in Danville, Maine, on March 3, 1850. They traveled to Keeseville, New York, where their first son, Elwyn Bremer, was born on April 10, 1854. Shortly afterward the family moved to St. Anthony-Henefin, Minnesota, where three more sons, Hiram Lynton, Irving Libby, and Howard Merton were born. Moving once again, the family settled in Boston where Hiram practiced dentistry at No. 17 Bromfield Street. Boston, a thriving coastal city of the Atlantic world by the mid-1860s, primarily served as a shipping port and a safe haven for fishing boats sailing north to the Grand Banks. It also served as anchorage for smaller merchant vessels plying coastal waters.

Hiram Gould, however, perhaps disillusioned by a lack of success in a city with harsh winters and little chance for advancement, looked for opportunities elsewhere. With completion of the transcontinental railroad in May 1869, he decided to travel west and try his luck on the Pacific Coast. He may have heard of California via railroad advertisements or through the many books popularized because of the California Gold Rush of 1849. Perhaps he had read Richard Henry Dana’s *Two Years Before the Mast*, which had become a best seller in New England. Whatever the reason, it was enough for him to pull up stakes in Boston, leave his wife and children, and make his way west.

**First Gould in San Diego**

Hiram lived first in San Francisco in 1869, and from there traveled to the mining districts. He moved to Cerro Gordo, a silver mining town in the Inyo Mountains 9,000 feet above Owens Lake. In 1871 alone, 2,500 tons of bullion were taken to Los Angeles by freight wagons. Records show that Hiram traveled back and forth to Los Angeles, maintained an interest in geology, and became an ardent spiritualist. As the Boom of the 1880s began, Southern California became the land of opportunity with new developments in Pasadena, Sierra Madre, Del Mar, and Pacific Beach. Alonzo Horton had begun to develop New Town San Diego in the early 1870s, so by mid-1883, Hiram Gould, perhaps with mining profits from Cerro
Gordo, found his investment opportunity. His wife Elizabeth and grown children, however, decided at this same time to move from Boston to Chicago, where they began their own pioneering.23

Hiram bought several lots in downtown San Diego between Fifth and Sixth at C and the corner of Fourth and E, upon which he built the Gould Hotel.24 It was torn down in 1923 to make room for the Balboa Theater. Hiram maintained a successful career in dentistry while investing in the trucking business.25 He joined in the cultural activities of the young city and became a board member of the Society of
Natural History in 1891. Dr. Gould, as he is referred to in the local paper, contributed regularly to the discussions of fishes, fossils and the natural resources of San Diego County often hosting the meetings at his residence on C Street. He was a member of the San Diego Rowing Club and is pictured in the water on New Year’s Day 1897 with other hardy swimmers.

Hiram rented the property at the corner of Fifth and C to Drs. Fred and Charlotte Baker, well-known physicians in San Diego. He visited his family in Chicago on several occasions, but his wife preferred to reside there with her sons. It remained for Hiram’s eldest son Elwyn Bremer to move to San Diego with his family in 1899 to look after the property he had inherited at his father’s death in 1897. It was apparent that San Diego had a promising future. By 1897, a State Normal School, precursor to San Diego State College, had opened in Normal Heights; Kate Sessions had opened a nursery and was planting City (Balboa) Park; John D. Spreckels had rescued the Hotel del Coronado from possible bankruptcy, and Katherine Tingley had laid the cornerstone for her theosophical society on Point Loma.

Elwyn Bremer Gould made a major decision when he packed up his family for the move to San Diego in 1899. By this time, he had become prominent in the importing business in Chicago, was a member of the Union League, the Elks and Masonic Lodges, and served as president of the Marquette Club. His brothers were also active in cultural and business circles. In 1883, Elwyn Bremer Gould married Chicago native Jennie Geselbracht, born on January 2, 1861. As a child of ten, Jennie survived the Chicago fire of 1871 when the family home was destroyed. Elwyn and Jennie Gould became the parents of four children born in Chicago, Grace, on December 25, 1884, Elwyn Blaine, on September 27, 1886, and Leslie Herman on August 21, 1889. Alice, born January 1, 1892, died the following August.

Upon their arrival in San Diego in 1899, the Goulds encountered a growing city on the verge of change. Elwyn Bremer Gould retired from an active importing business in Chicago to look after the real estate investments his father Hiram had made. He

The Gould Family of San Diego


also worked at the “gas works” moving the family to 808 Juniper in Bankers Hill. The offices for the Gould Block, which contained a series of rentals, were at 1234 E Street. The Gould home address was later changed to 234 West Juniper when street numbers were revised.

Third Generation Goulds in San Diego: Grace Gould Klauber

Eldest daughter Grace Gould, fifteen years old at the time of her arrival in San Diego, attended Russ High School. She participated in a number of school and civic activities, especially the ZLAC Rowing Club. She also joined the Dix Sorority, carefully identifying her friends in group pictures. She married Laurence Monroe Klauber (1883-1968), a member of her 1903 high school graduating class, on November 29, 1911. They lived at 3506 Albatross while Laurence, a Stanford graduate in engineering, began work as a salesman at San Diego Consolidated Gas & Electric Company. Laurence, who became president of San Diego Gas & Electric Co. in 1946, also achieved an international reputation in herpetology.


Grace Gould Klauber became president of the ZLAC Rowing Club in 1927 and served as honorary chairwoman of the San Diego Crew Classic in 1982. She supported the United Way, the Boys and Girls Mental Health Centers, the San Diego Symphony Orchestra and the San Diego Opera Guild.

Grace Gould Klauber was well known for her contributions to San Diego’s cultural activities during her long life. At the age of 96 she recalled her move to San Diego in 1899. She was just 15 and a student at Chicago’s Lakeview High School when she received the news. “Poor old San Diego,” she recalled, “It was kind of a pathetic little town. There were only 17,000 people. Except for Fourth and Fifth, there were no paved streets between downtown and University Avenue. But there was no rain either, not until the following fall, and that was wonderful.” Since the family lived in...
Banker’s Hill, it was a short streetcar ride down First and a pleasant walk to Russ High School. Grace clearly remembered the holiday dances at the Hotel del Coronado, taking a train to the beach at La Jolla, reports of the 1906 San Francisco earthquake, the floods of 1916 and 1926, and the changes in San Diego brought about by World Wars I and II. Grace Klauber regularly volunteered at the San Diego Historical Society identifying historic photos, providing information on her Banker’s Hill neighbors such as the Fletchers, Garrettsons, Wangenheims, and Forwards, and promoting preservation of historic landmarks. She died at the age of 106 on December 27, 1990.

Fourth Generation Goulds: Alice and Philip Klauber

Alice Gould Klauber, eldest child of Grace and Laurence Klauber, was born in San Diego on August 23, 1913, and attended Francis Parker School and San Diego High School. Following in her father’s footsteps, she graduated from Stanford University in 1934 with a degree in economics and studied an additional year in business. She married David Means Miller in December 1942 and they became the parents of Laurence A. Miller (b. 1944), Grace Louise Miller (b. 1947) and David Miller, Jr. (b. 1952).

Alice Klauber Miller, in the family tradition of service, supported the San Diego Opera Guild, the Tijuana Homes Tour, and the San Diego Charity Ball. A member of the San Diego Junior League, she became president in 1939. The Junior League, founded in 1929, is part of an international organization of women committed to promoting voluntarism, developing the potential of women, and improving the community through the effective action and leadership of trained volunteers.

Philip Monroe Klauber, born on July 19, 1915, attended local schools and became an Eagle Scout at age 15 in Boy Scout Troop 20 in Mission Hills. He also worked part time at North Park Cash & Carry at 30th and Lincoln and for Klauber Wangenheim as a clerk. Philip attended San Diego State College and graduated from Stanford University in 1937 in Engineering, having been elected to Phi Beta Kappa. Philip first
worked in New York (1939-1945) but returned to San Diego as an engineer at Solar Aircraft from 1946 to 1963. He then joined his father at the San Diego Gas & Electric Co., remaining there until 1980.

Philip Klauber retired as Vice President for Customer Service at SDG&E, but his career as an engineer does not tell the complete story. As soon as he returned to San Diego after the war, Philip joined the downtown Rotary Club, serving as president in 1960-61. In 1964 he helped found the Combined Arts & Education Council of San Diego County (COMBO) and eventually served as president of San Diego Symphony (1964-66); United Way (1972-75), San Diego Community Foundation (1975-76), LEAD San Diego Inc. (1982-84), San Diego Historical Society (1984-86), and the Executive Service Corps of San Diego County (1991-92). Because of his outstanding contributions in so many areas, Philip Klauber in 1974 received the National Distinguished Eagle Scout Award given for more than 25 years of distinguished service to the community. Other awards he received included the Rotary Club’s Mr. San Diego (1983), the Gaslamp Quarter’s Lifetime Achievement Award (1995), the Willis Fletcher Volunteer of the Year (Lion’s Club
2000), and the George W. Marston Award for Distinction in Civic Leadership (San Diego Historical Society 2001). Philip Klauber, at the age of 90, continues to serve his city in various ways.

**Third Generation in San Diego: Elwyn Blaine “Jay” Gould and Leslie Herman Gould**

Elwyn Bremer Gould’s son Elwyn Blaine, normally called E. B., was later known to close friends and business associates in San Diego as “Jay” Gould. He arrived in San Diego at age 13 and also attended Russ School, which by the time of his graduation was known as San Diego High School. Even before graduation, E. B. entered the business world on a part-time basis, working as a price clerk for Samuel G. Ingle. In partnership with Roscoe E. Hazard, Gould purchased the hardware firm that his former boss Samuel Ingle had opened on Fifth Avenue near G Street in the early 1900s. The firm, which had taken in several investors, finally passed into the sole possession of Hazard and Gould, who then changed the name from Ingle to Hazard Gould and Company. The store was moved to a building on the corner of Sixth Avenue and Market Street. By 1925, the company had again moved to a new building on the corner of Fifth Avenue and K Street, where it remained until 1949. After Hazard left the business to become a contractor, the company changed its name to Gould Hardware & Machinery Company and relocated to 2212 Main Street.

E. B. Gould also maintained a partnership with Roscoe Hazard in a chain of sporting goods stores. Their Hazard Gould Sporting Goods later became the Stanley Andrews Sporting Goods Company. Together Hazard and Gould developed the Pioneer Transfer and Storage Co. of San Diego that grew out of Pioneer Trucking founded by Hiram Gould and continued by Elwyn Bremer Gould when he arrived in San Diego in 1899. Its first location was at 1427 E Street and by 1906 was listed at 1314 E Street. In 1928 this firm merged with several others to form Lyon Van & Storage Company, with Hiram’s grandson Elwyn Blaine Gould becoming its first president. Gould headed this firm and continued in the hardware business until his death in 1970.

In addition to his business activities, E. B. Gould trained as a naval aviation cadet in World War I. San Diego, by
Horses with Trolley, Pioneer Trucking, ca. 1900. Gould Family Archives.

Pioneer Truck Co. ca. 1916. Gould Family Archives.

1926 Flood looking down Fifth Street. Gould Family Archives.


this time, was evolving into a “Navy Town.” In 1918, the Chamber of Commerce raised $280,000 to purchase tidelands at the foot of 32nd Street for the Navy’s first principal facility in the city. In 1922 the Navy completed its hospital in Balboa Park, and San Diego was named headquarters for the Eleventh Naval District. With Fort Rosecrans and the Marine base established in 1919, the military had become a significant factor in the city’s growth and air travel would become a way of life.

E. B. Gould, a major contributor to civic activities, became a charter member of the downtown Rotary Club and its ninth president in 1919-1920. E. B. helped organize and served as president of the Community Chest of San Diego (now United Way), president of the San Diego Chamber of Commerce (1921-1923), president of the San Diego Museum of Man (1935-1938), helped organize and became chairman of the Board of Directors of the Old Globe Theater, and served his profession by becoming president of what became the California Moving & Storage Association.
in 1925. He was president of the San Diego Boy Scouts Council and received the Council’s Silver Beaver Award for Distinguished Service to Boyhood. In addition to his many business and civic activities, E. B. belonged to the San Diego Rowing Club, serving as its president from 1920 to 1922, was county handball champion for five years, and won prizes as a champion tennis player.50

E. B. Gould, who maintained his home at 2333 Albatross Street, married Marian Gartzmann of Newburg, New York, on January 19, 1911, at St. Paul’s Episcopal Cathedral in San Diego.51 E. B. had become acquainted with G. Reeve Gartzmann, soon to become his brother-in-law, when they both joined the San Diego Yacht Club in 1910.52 Marian, a graduate of Girls’ Collegiate School in Los Angeles, was a member of the San Diego Symphony Association and ZLAC Rowing Club with Grace Gould, who served as one of her bridesmaids. E. B. and Marian became the parents of Elwyn Gartzmann Gould born March 13, 1912 and Gordon Reeve Gould born November 12, 1920.

E. B. divorced Marian Gould in 1935, married Theodosia St. George Ingham of Laguna Beach in 1936, and moved to 510 San Fernando. This surprise move changed the family dynamics and precipitated a shift in E. B.’s interests from Banker’s Hill to Point Loma. E.B. and “Ted” became the parents of Blaine St. George Gould, born in 1942. She attended Francis Parker School, graduated from the Bishop’s School in La Jolla in 1959, and attended Pomona College. Blaine died in 1963 of cancer at the age of 22. During this period, E. B. became a director of San Diego Trust & Savings Bank and continued in that position from 1942 until his death in 1970.53

The Goulds’ circle of friends included educator and Old Globe supporter Armistead Carter, writer Max Miller, banker Joseph Sefton, and architect William Templeton Johnson. Marian, who maintained the family home on Albatross Street, remained active in the Wednesday Club and the ZLAC Rowing Club. She passed away in 1962.54 Theodosia Gould died in 1958.
Leslie Herman Gould, third child of Elwyn Bremer Gould, was just ten years old when the family arrived from Chicago. He graduated from San Diego High School where he was an outstanding football player. A career referee in various athletic events, Leslie officiated at high school, college, and service team games in San Diego, soon becoming commissioner of football officials for the city. Active also in cultural and civic activities, he was the sixteenth president of the Lions Club, which he joined in 1922 and held a 35-year perfect attendance record.75

Leslie was associated with Gould Hardware and Machinery Co. until his retirement in 1943. He married Mary Griffith of San Diego on November 21, 1921, in San Diego and the couple lived at 710 Upas Street.6 They divorced in 1930.67

Later, as a bachelor, he lived at the San Diego Club, where he served on its Board of Governors, and participated in a number of its activities, especially handball and tennis. Leslie died in June 1963 at the age of 73.58
Fourth Generation: Elwyn Gartzmann “Gartz” Gould and Gordon Reeve Gould

Elwyn Gartzmann Gould (1912-1984), son of E. B. and Marian Gartzmann Gould, grew up in a very different San Diego. He attended Francis Parker School, San Diego Army and Navy Academy, San Diego State College and then Stanford University with a major in business. In the midst of the Depression, Gartz, as he was usually called, saw San Diego’s California Pacific International Exposition, the second major fair put on in Balboa Park, succeed in 1935 and 1936. Too young for World War I and too old for World War II, Gartz was drafted early on to work at the hardware store, joining his father and uncle in the business. As defense efforts expanded, hardware became important in the war effort as Army and Navy facilities expanded and San Diego’s population reached nearly 335,000 in 1950. Customers included local construction firms such as Trepte, Golden, Ninteman and Nielsen; the city and county of San Diego; the U.S. Navy and Army bases; local aircraft manufacturers, boat builders Kettenburg and Driscoll, and Cervecería Tecate.

Gartz became vice president of Gould Hardware and Machinery and moved to Point Loma. He was no doubt attracted by the many opportunities offered along the San Diego waterfront and loved to pursue his hobby of sailing. He joined the San Diego Yacht Club as a junior member during the late 1920s and began sailing Penguins, Stars and PCs. He later purchased the 8 Meter Angelita and had the PCC Ballerina built by Kettenburg in 1948. He served two years as Commodore of the San Diego Yacht Club (1945 and 1946), Commodore of the Southern California Yachting Association in 1950, and Commodore of the Pacific Coast Yachting Association in 1959. A meticulous record keeper, his letters show a remarkable attention to detail and a knowledge of sailing matters that commanded the respect of yachtsmen up and down the Pacific Coast.

On June 13, 1936, Gartz married Mary Quinlan, a native of Idaho, who moved to Point Loma in 1929. Making their home at 584 San Antonio, they became the parents of Mary Ann (b. September 3, 1938), Gary Gartzmann (b. March 6, 1941) and Ellen Quinlan (b. April 23, 1946). While Mary Gould became active in civic
activities, including the Community Chest (now United Way), the Children’s Hospital Health Center, the San Diego Museum of Art and the Junior League, Gartz achieved recognition in his sailing activities with fellow sailors Joe and Art Jessop, Paul Rayburn, Bob Frazee, Walter Broderick, Joe Sefton, Don Burnham, Gordon and Al Frost and Norm Foster. Gartz crewed aboard several Lipton Cup Challenges and skippered his PCC No. 12 Ballerina to victory in 1952. He sailed in the Acapulco Race, Transpac races to Honolulu, and crewed for John Scripps to Tahiti on the Novia del Mar. Gartz Gould achieved a reputation as an outstanding yachtsman and is remembered by his friends as a kind, generous, even-tempered person who was especially patient with youngsters wanting to improve their sailing techniques. He died in 1984 as the result of a tragic head injury received in a fall in Acapulco, Mexico, in 1964.

Gordon Reeve Gould, second son of E. B. and Marian Gartzmann Gould, grew up at 2333 Albatross and attended local schools. Born in 1920, Reeve was nine years younger than Gartz and followed different interests. Reeve attended Francis Parker School, graduated from Point Loma High School in 1939, attended San Diego State College for one year and then attended the University of California Berkeley where he earned a B.A. in architecture in 1943. Reeve then entered a program at the University of Arizona to receive a commission in the U.S. Navy in 1943. At the end of World War II, as did many veterans, Reeve returned to the University of California in 1946, receiving an advanced degree in architecture in 1948. He practiced in Berkeley and San Francisco, marrying Nancy Lawson of San Diego on August
12, 1950. Nancy became a well-known astro-physicist at the University of California, Berkeley. Her father Norman Lawson, president of the San Diego Natural History Museum Board of Directors from 1951 to 1965, was responsible for installing the popular Foucault pendulum in the foyer in 1957. Lawson, an aeronautical engineer, invented a remarkable product in 1953 that he had labeled Water Displacement Test No. 40. According to the family, he sold his invention for $500 to a group of investors who renamed it WD 40.


After his wife’s death, Reeve continued his residence in Berkeley, where he worked as an architect in the Bay area until his retirement. Following the Gould tradition of service, Reeve joined the Piedmont Rotary Club, became a founding trustee of Cal Performances, served on the boards of the International House at Berkeley and the Oakland Museum, and continues to support the San Francisco Opera and San Francisco Symphony.

**A Fifth Generation Gould in San Diego: Gary Gartzmann Gould**

The only fifth generation member carrying on the Gould family name as a direct descendent of Hiram Gould, first Gould to reside in San Diego, is Gary Gartzmann Gould of Point Loma, born March 6, 1941. Gary Gould grew up as an active participant in San Diego Yacht Club events following in the footsteps of his father E. Gartzmann Gould. Gary sailed Starlets, Penguins, Sabots and PCs, crewing frequently for Gene Trepte, John Scripps, and his father in races to Acapulco, Honolulu and Tahiti. Gary attended Point Loma High School and Cal Western University, graduating with a degree in business in 1963 and serving a total of eight years in the U.S. Coast Guard. He met Gayle Edler at the PC National Championships in 1964 at the Newport Harbor Yacht Club. They married on April 10, 1965, and became the parents of three children: Leslie Gayle, Gary Gartzmann II, and Lara Blaine, all of whom grew up on Point Loma and were active in the junior program at the San Diego Yacht Club.

Gary Gould succeeded to his father and grandfather’s positions in Gould Hardware.
and Machinery Co., which moved from its downtown location on Main Street in 1973 to Kearny Mesa. Facing competition from major chain hardware and home supply stores, Gould in 1988 sold the family-owned store that had operated in San Diego since the early 1920s, founded Gould Industries and, at the same time, joined long-time friend Bryan Worthington in the real estate business in the Point Loma area.

Gary, again following family tradition, is actively involved in service to the community. He became a member of the downtown Rotary Club in 1971, of which grandfather E. B. had been president, and was elected Commodore of the San Diego Yacht Club in 1979, a position held by his father Gartz in 1945 and 1946. In addition to following his hobby of sailing, Gary was a member of the Board of Directors of the San Diego Maritime Museum, the Linda Vista Boys Club and the San Diego Employers Association, president of the San Diego Wholesale Credit Association, and a member of the Cruising Club of America. In 1990 he helped found, and became president of, the San Diego Yacht Club Sailing Foundation—a non-profit organization designed to promote national and international amateur sailing, as well as maritime education and competition among young people who otherwise have neither the opportunity nor funds to participate. The Foundation’s
support of outreach programs, sponsorship of training activities, and provision of sailing equipment through scholarships to at-risk and under-privileged youth has been very successful.

Fifth Generation San Diegans: Gould Klauber Branch

Members of the fifth generation San Diego Goulds, stemming from the Grace Gould Klauber branch, have also remained in San Diego. Philip and Detty June Klauber have one son Timothy Klauber (b. 1949), an antique dealer, who has one son Max, born in 1995. Daughter Janet Klauber (b. 1951), Director of Development at the Timken Art Museum, has long been committed to community service, and is active at the San Diego Natural History Museum and St. Paul’s Senior Homes and Services. Janet entered the first class at Yale University that allowed women to enroll, and continued on to the University of Illinois, Chicago Circle, for a Master’s degree in Urban Planning. Janet Klauber married Lee Oliver in 1978; they were divorced in 1993. Daughter Jessica Oliver, born in 1981, graduated from the University of San Diego in 2005; son, Philip Allan Oliver, born in 1983 died in 1985. Laurie Klauber Wasserman (b. 1958), a graduate of the University of California Davis, married Neal Wasserman in 1985 and is also active in community service. The Wassermans have two children Eleanor Mae (b. 1987) and Timothy Wasserman (b. 1991). Jeffrey Conyers (b. 1943), project manager in real estate, also grew up under the guidance of Phil Klauber.

Klauber family in 1957. Back row standing left to right: David Miller, Sr., Laurence Miller, Philip Klauber, Jeffrey Conyers, Timothy Klauber, Laurence Klauber; sitting left to right: Alice Klauber Miller, Detty June Klauber, David Miller, Jr., Grace Gould Klauber, Janet Klauber; sitting in front: Grace Louise Miller. Photo courtesy Philip Klauber.
The children of Alice Klauber Miller and David Miller, Sr. include Laurence Alexander Miller (b. 1944), a graduate of Stanford University with a B.A. in 1966 and an M.D. from the University of California San Diego School of Medicine in 1975. Dr. Miller’s specialty is Preventive and Occupational Medicine. Laurence Miller married Vera Naffziger on April 20, 1997; they have triplets Alexandra, Laurence, and Victoria born on January 11, 2002. Grace Miller Valencia (b. 1947) graduated from Scripps College in 1968 and received an M.A. in history from the University of California Santa Barbara in 1976 and an M.A. in Education from San Diego State University in 1985. She is Director of Health Care and Behavioral Sciences at the University of California San Diego Extension. Grace Miller married Jorge Arturo Valencia, a native of Colombia, on December 17, 1988. They have one daughter, Alicia Isabel Valencia, born March 14, 1992. David Means Miller Jr. (b. 1952) graduated from San Diego State University in 1974. David Jr. joined his uncle Philip Klauber on the staff of San Diego Gas & Electric Co. in 1980. He married Melody Ritterman on July 14, 2001.

After Twelve Generations

San Diego is no longer the small settlement that was just beginning to grow during the latter half of the nineteenth century. The years since have witnessed remarkable changes through twelve generations of Goulds from the arrival of Jarvis Gould in 1635 on the Atlantic Coast to the birth of Amelia Lauren Gould-Lindberg on the Pacific Coast in 2005. The country has evolved from a sparsely populated rural, farming colony of Great Britain, when the first Goulds saw an opportunity for advancement, to an independent world power of some 282 million people. When Hiram Gould arrived in San Diego in 1883, it was a small town, albeit on the verge of “boom,” but in no way could the first Goulds have foreseen that by 2006, San Diego’s population would pass the one million mark. Members of the Gould family were indeed pioneers in business, ranging from trucking and public storage to hardware, engineering and real estate; in recreation from rowing and handball championships to prestigious sailing trophies; and in community outreach from service clubs and hospital auxiliaries to charitable foundations and historical societies. Gould descendents in San Diego are many and will continue to leave their imprint in local annals.
NOTES

1. Funding for the preparation of this article was made possible through a generous grant to the University of San Diego from Philip M. Klauber, G. Reeve Gould, Gary and Gayle Gould, and Mary Ann Gould Workman.


3. Savage, II, 285. Also spelled Jarvice and Jervice. Gould was also spelled Gold on some lists, but pronounced Gould; hence the change in spelling. See Bill Bryson, The Mother Tongue: English and How it Got That Way (New York: William Morrow, 1990), 95. Jarvis Gould was listed as Cordwainer (shoemaker) and as a servant to Clement Bates on board the Elizabeth. He was accompanied by a brother Edward. See also Gould Family History. Washington, DC.: The American Genealogical Research Institute, 1978, 28.


5. Savage, II, 285. King Philip’s War fought in 1675-76 resulted from a battle between the natives led by Philip, a Wampanoag, against the British colonists over land. Some natives who had converted to Christianity fought on the side of the British while many did not.


7. This was shortly after the beginning of the French and Indian War (Seven Years War 1756-1763) between the English and the French. As a member of the Society of Friends (Quakers), John would have been opposed to war.


10. Rural Intelligencer (Augusta), May 1, 1856, p. 142. A survey of the town by Samuel Gould in 1880 includes the note that the town was organized as a plantation in 1805 and incorporated as a town on March 9, 1808. Maine Historical Society archives, Portland, Maine.

11. Roland E. Foss, A History of the New Portlands in Maine, p. 11. The plural is used because there evolved an East and North New Portland from the original village, now called West New Portland.


14. Information supplied by Gary Gould, July 2004. The town today has a population of approximately 800 of which 98% are listed as White Non-Hispanic and 1.4% American Indian. The population of New Portland reached about 1500 in 1840 and had decreased to 1,000 by 1914.

15. Plots of 80 acres, 100 acres, and 125 acres were not uncommon in rural areas. Most families kept farm animals and planted staple crops.

16. S. G. Weathern is listed as owner of Somerset House in the 1860 business directory. Weathern is later spelled Wethern by descendants, including Hiram.

17. Foss, A History of the New Portlands, p. 114; Records in the International Genealogical Index indicate that Samuel G. Gould married Mary Wether [sic] on October 28, 1817, in New Portland, Somerset, Maine. Given the date of birth of Hiram, it seems entirely possible that the wedding date was 1817 rather than 1818.


19. The Libby Family 1602-1881, p. 341. Elizabeth Ilsley Libby, daughter of Theophilus Libby of Scarborough, Maine, and his second wife Sally Wood of Standish, Maine, was born in Portland, Maine on December 3, 1826, the sixth of twelve children. The International Genealogical Index gives the
marriage date as March 3, 1851, in Lewiston, Androscoggin, Maine. The Ilsleys also had family in New Portland. Danville is today a part of Auburn.


21. Hiram Lynton, born August 10, 1856, died a year later in Danville, Maine on August 18, 1857. Irving Libby, born November 18, 1859, died on May 24, 1930, in New York while Howard Merton, born March 16, 1863, died in Winthrop Beach, Massachusetts on February 3, 1938.

22. Diary of Hiram Gould, San Diego Historical Society Research Archives. Between the years of 1868 and 1875 approximately $13,000,000 in silver-lead bullion was shipped from Cerro Gordo smelters, making these mines the greatest producers of silver-lead in California’s history. Today, Cerro Gordo is also one of California’s most extensive and best-preserved ghost towns, due to the site’s private ownership and relative inaccessibility.

23. Elizabeth Libby Gould had been supporting the family in Boston, but as the sons matured, they saw opportunities in the newly developing transportation hub of the Midwest. Elwyn and Irving began an importing business while Howard became a well-known actor on the legitimate stage.

24. Also known as Gould House, it was managed by Mr. and Mrs. Charles W. McAllister. Two of the tenants were George Hensley and Joshua Slocum.

25. The San Diego City and County Directory of 1887-1888 lists Dr. Gould as a Surgeon-Dentist with a residence on the north side of C between Fifth and Sixth. It also lists the Gould Block at the SW corner of 4th and E. By 1892 his residence was given at 1422 C with Pioneer Trucking at 1427 E. He retired from dentistry in 1895 at age 76.


27. Distribution of Property, San Diego County Superior Court Probate No.1682, December 16, 1897; Grace Gould Klauber, “Witness to History,” San Diego Union, Sunday, February 13, 1983. Grace Klauber recalled hearing that her father Elwyn Bremer Gould did not like to pay taxes so for that reason sold the property to George Marston for a department store in the early 1900s for $39,000. The store became known as Marston’s.


30. In 1882, Irving Gould married Grace Mandeville of La Porte, Indiana, and Howard Gould, the actor, married Lena Martha Bugbee of Boston. Howard Gould then moved to Boston where he continued his acting career and also took up yachting in Boston Harbor.


33. Actually San Diego Gas and Electric Light Co.

34. Those paying rent, and the amounts, were listed in the Distribution of Property in the probate file for Hiram W. Gould, San Diego Superior Court 1682, December 16, 1898.

35. San Diego City and County Directory, 1915.

36. These included prominent San Diegans Harriet Marston [Headley], Elsa Wentscher [Marston] Theda Burnham [Boynton], Lenore Heller [Forward] and Isabel Polhemus.

37. Laurence Klauber, born in San Diego December 21, 1883, was the son of Bohemian-born Abraham and Theresa Epstein Klauber who arrived in 1869. Laurence served as president of San Diego Gas and Electric Co. from 1946 to 1949 and Chief Executive Officer from 1949 until his retirement in 1954. He died on May 8, 1968.

38. Klauber became the San Diego Zoological Society’s first Curator of Reptiles and Honorary Curator of Reptiles at the San Diego Natural History Museum in 1922. The University of California Press
The Gould Family of San Diego

published his definitive two-volume work on rattlesnakes in 1956. It was reprinted in 1972 and 1997.


42. David Means Miller, born in Louisiana in 1914, came to San Diego in 1941 as a lieutenant with the U.S. Army anti-aircraft unit. A graduate of Louisiana State University, Miller became vice president and CEO of Western Salt Company, president of Pre-Mixed Concrete and H. G. Fenton Material Co. He was active in community service until his death in 1993. San Diego Union, November 20, 1993.

43. In 1968 Philip Klauber became a director of Klauber Wangeheim Company (a mercantile store formed in San Diego in 1897) to fill the vacancy left by the death of his father Laurence Klauber.


45. Other boards in San Diego include the Chamber of Commerce, Building Contractors, Convention and Visitors Bureau, Planned Parenthood, Navy League, UCSD Stein Institute for Research on Aging, and the George Glenner Alzheimer’s Family Centers.


47. These are selected from a list of fifteen outstanding achievement awards.

48. Roscoe E. Hazard (1881–1975) constructed many of the highways in southern California. Bridge 57-619, at Adams Avenue in San Diego county built in 1970, is named the “Roscoe E. Hazard Memorial Bridge.” Roscoe, also known as “Pappy” Hazard, donated a collection of his memorabilia to the California State Park system for display in Old Town.


51. Marian Gartzmann was the daughter of Gustav Gartzmann, M.D., born in Berlin, September 1, 1842. Gustav, confirmed in the Lutheran Church, attended medical school in Germany but came to the United States in 1869 and graduated from Bellevue Medical College in New York in 1873. He married Charlotte Reeve in 1883 and they had three children—Pauline, Reeve and Marian. Dr. Gartzmann died in 1896. Newburgh, New York, Portrait and Biographical Record (date unknown), p. 322.

52. The initial “G” is used in the San Diego Yacht Club minutes of 1910. Reeve Gartzmann lived at 2567 Front Street.

53. Gould and Roscoe Hazard, together with Henry G. Fenton and Harry Schnell, were active in supporting the development of Mission Bay during the 1950s. They sold land back to the city for the original price paid in the early 1920s.

54. San Diego Union, May 27, 1962. The home on Albatross, still standing in 2006, was designed by Hebbard and Gill. The original blueprints are housed in the San Diego Historical Society archives.


56. Mary Griffith was born November 22, 1897, in San Diego to Theron Griffith (1869-1965) and Katherine Boone Griffith (1868-1961). Her father worked for forty-five years as a buyer and executive for the Marston Company Department Store. Her mother was a charter member of the San Diego Women’s Club. She had two sisters, Katherine Griffith Sanders (1864-1973) and Lucille Griffith Robinson Shafer (1896-1977). Her parents lived at 4179 Ibis Street in Mission Hills.

57. Mary Griffith Gould married and divorced two more times: Colonel Frederick Johnson (d. 1939) and Clarence N. White (d. 1963).


59. The PCs included No. 5 Imp; Gartz Gould owned the yawl Brilliant with Paul Rayburn.

60. Gould Family Archives.

Reeve Gould met Nancy Lawson at Berkeley while at the International House on the Berkeley campus. They were introduced by the Director of Admissions, Lionel Ridout, later professor of history at San Diego State College/University.


Reeve Gould, interviewed by the author April 5, 2006. An internet search offers the following: “According to the WD-40 Company: ‘WD-40 literally stands for Water Displacement, 40th attempt. That’s the name straight out of the lab book used by the chemist who developed WD-40 back in 1953. The chemist, Norm Larsen [sic], was attempting to concoct a formula to prevent corrosion - a task which is done by displacing water. Norm’s persistence paid off when he perfected the formula on his 40th try.” Nancy Lawson’s mother was killed in an automobile accident when Nancy was a child.


Mary Gayle Lee Edler is from a well-known sailing family. Her Uncle Don Edler, a champion Star sailor, won the Star Worlds event in Boston in 1964.


Grace Miller, interviewed by the author, April 15, 2006.

Jeffrey Conyers is the son of Detty June Stevenson and her first husband Robert Conyers. He lives in San Diego.

Grace Miller, interviewed by the author, April 15, 2006.

Laurence Miller, interviewed by the author, April 18, 2006.

“Until Kingdom Come”
The Design and Construction of
La Jolla’s Children’s Pool
Jeremy Hollins
Winner of the Marc Tarasuck Award

The Children’s Pool, located along the rocky bluffs of the Pacific Ocean below the Casa de Mañana, is one of La Jolla’s best known structures. Built in 1930, it was one of the many gifts that philanthropist Ellen Browning Scripps gave to the community of La Jolla. Originally heralded a “wonderful improvement” by the press, the concrete breakwater became the setting for controversial debate sixty years after its completion.¹

The debate involved a colony of harbor seals that has inhabited the beach since the mid-1990s. In 1999, one hundred seals rested at the beach, causing San Diego Parks and Recreation to install a rope barrier. The barrier gave the seal habitat a boundary and protected the seals from people. People either supported the seal habitat or argued that the seals prevented swimming, diving, and use of

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the beach.\textsuperscript{2} Topics discussed in La Jolla and San Diego newspapers included the possibility of removing the breakwater and returning the beach to its natural state, ways to improve water quality by eliminating seal waste, and plans to enforce the Marine Mammal Protection Act to restrict the public’s contact with the seals. Meanwhile, advocacy groups like “Save Our Seals” educated the public about the seal colony at the Children’s Pool.\textsuperscript{3}

In 2004, the city removed the rope barrier and adopted a “joint use” policy. Joint use allowed members of the public to use the beach recreationally but prevented them from harassing the seals. Volunteers created the “Rake-A-Line” program in order to dissuade the public from crossing a line raked in the sand. That same year, a swimmer filed a lawsuit, claiming that the city violated the terms of a 1931 trust between the State of California and the City of San Diego. The trust required use of the beach as a public park and bathing pool. In August 2005, Superior Court Judge William C. Pate ruled in the lawsuit. He ordered the excavation of the pool and a “return to its pre-seal condition in six months.” He intended to lower the beach’s bacteria level, which had exceeded state standards since 1997, and to deter the seals from using the site. In September 2005, the city council voted to appeal Judge Pate’s ruling. Council members such as Donna Frye felt that the judge had overstepped his authority by ignoring the environmental review process. The city expected it to take a year to complete the environmental studies and obtain permits.\textsuperscript{4}

While the controversy has brought increased attention to the Children’s Pool, few San Diegans know the origins of the breakwater. Construction of the Children’s Pool was an intensive effort that took nearly a decade to complete. Spearheaded by city hydraulic engineer Hiram Newton Savage, architect William Templeton Johnson, and contractor W. M. Ledbetter and Company, the breakwater and pool’s lasting design were feats of modern engineering. This study examines the planning, design, construction, and early history of La Jolla’s Children’s Pool.

“For the Health and Happiness of Children”

Beginning in the 1870s, San Diegans and tourists traveled to La Jolla’s coastline for picnics, sunbathing, and afternoons of leisure. Hotels like the Horton House organized day trips to La Jolla, bringing guests and San Diego residents to La Jolla along the dusty, fourteen-mile road. However, many of La Jolla’s beaches remained unsafe for swimmers due to the “rapid cross current” that swept through the shore. By 1921, the “Old Ocean” had “taken toll of human life” numerous times and swimming during high tide was prohibited. Signs warned swimmers of the dangers but few people obeyed or even heeded the warnings.\textsuperscript{5}

Ellen Browning Scripps (1836-1932), a community resident since 1897, sought a solution to the dangers posed to young swimmers. Scripps devoted much of her time to the welfare and safety of La Jolla’s children. An investor and consultant in the newspaper empire run by her brother,
E. W. Scripps, she amassed a considerable fortune before 1890. She founded the Scripps Institution of Oceanography, Scripps College, Scripps Hospital, and Scripps Clinic. She built the La Jolla Women’s Club and the La Jolla Public Library. She purchased the pueblo lots that became Torrey Pines State Reserve for use as a public park. She donated money to the San Diego Zoo, provided scholarships to the Bishop’s School, and helped to build the Children’s Playground and Recreation Center. Scripps explained, “I have always had an innate interest in children, particularly those handicapped in life’s game.” While the creation of a breakwater would ultimately benefit all visitors to La Jolla’s beaches, she wanted “the children to have a primary claim” to such a structure.6

In 1921, Scripps contracted Hiram Newton Savage (1861-1934) to conduct preliminary surveys for the breakwater and to “work out the issue with Old Ocean.”7 Savage was a hydraulic engineer with a reputation as a tireless worker. Ed Fletcher described him as “positive in his convictions, and would not yield an inch, under any conditions.”8 He had worked on numerous projects, including the Rio Grande Water Company, before graduating with a degree in civil engineering from Dartmouth College in 1891. In San Diego, he served as Chief Engineer in charge of
construction and maintenance of the Sweetwater Dam. Between 1903 and 1916 he served as Consulting Engineer in the United States Reclamation Service, working on dam and irrigation projects in Montana, North Dakota, and Wyoming. He returned to San Diego to reconstruct and enlarge the Sweetwater Dam, which had been damaged by the record flood of 1916. In 1917, he became Hydraulic Engineer for the City of San Diego. He supervised the design and construction of the Barrett Dam and new Lower Otay Dam, the enlargement of the Morena Dam and extensions to the city’s rapid sand filtration plants. Most important, he planned San Diego’s future water development, creating detailed plans and estimates for the dams, reservoirs, carrying systems, and purification plants. Scripps hired him for his expertise in water management; she also knew that he had engineered the Zuniga Jetty in San Diego Harbor.9

Savage submitted his preliminary findings on March 22, 1923. The preliminary survey looked at the “feasibility, practicability, and estimated cost” of the potential project. His report examined some of the world’s “most important breakwaters,” including ones in Alaska, Florida, and California.10 He also made careful notes regarding the geology of the region. His top priority was designing a breakwater that was “durable” and “economical.” He was forthright in telling Scripps and the people of La Jolla that he intended to build a structure that was “likely to endure” and remain a lasting edifice on La Jolla’s coastline.11

The preliminary survey recommended a site and contained design drawings. Savage chose the crescent-shaped beach area immediately in front of Block 56 of the La Jolla Park subdivision. His drawings predate the construction and design of Coast Boulevard’s Casa de Mañana Hotel, completed in 1924. He wanted to build the breakwater in this location for two reasons. First, this beach was “a favorite bathing place, especially for the women and children of the town.” Despite the dangerous crosscurrent and undertow, many swimmers felt safe here and children enjoyed playing at this location. Second, the natural geology and contour of the site was conducive to building a breakwater. Savage’s drawings noted the beach had a “natural barrier reef curving seaward from a bluff.” The sandstone reef extended in a series of “parallel ribs almost continuously in a general arc.” The proposed breakwater would follow this shape, offering protection from “the prevailing” northwestern waves. The breakwater would be approximately 300.6 feet long with an arc length of 177.8 feet. This was nearly the same length and arc as the barrier reef.12

The breakwater embodied several principles of organic architecture. It was harmonious to the environment’s natural features and it complimented the existing conditions of the site. The 300-foot arcing breakwater would be composed
Until Kingdom Come

of reinforced concrete. As it extended seaward, 79 percent of the structure would be ten feet high while 21 percent would be sixteen feet high. This created a gradual incline that was devoid of sharp, jagged lines. He planned for “the ocean side having a slope of 10 on 6 to a point 6 feet below the top and an 8 foot radius curved upper portion design to turn the wave back on itself.” The pool side of the structure would have a set of steps eighteen inches high and wide. The steps ran the entire length of the pool and their purpose was “to facilitate the children in climbing around…and to also serve as seats.” At three evenly spaced points along the pool, he designed pilasters fitted with wrought iron ladder steps. The ladder steps provided access to a four-foot wide walkway on top. The top would also have a set of parallel railings, composed of two-inch galvanized pipes, three-feet high, and supported by vertical posts spaced every eight feet. By unifying the structure’s form and function, Savage made sure that the breakwater would not detract from La Jolla's attractive scenery.\(^{13}\)

Savage’s design was unlike any structure in San Diego. It materialized from the extensive research he conducted and his vast experience in hydrology. To assist the natural removal of sand from the pool’s bottom, Savage included plans for four sluiceways, four feet wide by six feet high. The sluiceways were “built thru the shore end of the breakwater.” Additionally, Savage proposed building a new sewage drain and catch basins along the Coast Boulevard elevation. The drain and catch basins would “eliminate the ugly washes which have occurred where the drainage has found its way down the bluff toward the beach.” Access to the breakwater and walkway would be through a multi-leveled stairway structure set into the face of the bluff. The stairway structure would have a symmetrical rectangular form, with the stairways centered, and angular concrete piers flanked at the sides.\(^ {14}\)

“Go Forward With It”

Scripps approved the preliminary survey in 1923 but she did not pursue the project for nearly seven years. The La Jolla Journal claimed that other “projects crowded in,” and distracted her from the project. In fact, the delay was caused by Savage’s disappearance from San Diego after a highly publicized dispute with San Diego officials in 1923. The dispute concerned construction of the Barrett Dam. City officials discharged Savage from the project after “men who wanted to run things clashed with the engineer when he failed to bend his engineering opinion in their views.”\(^ {15}\) Savage spent the next several years traveling the world, performing engineering research for private parties. He visited over thirty foreign countries, including Italy, Egypt, the Sudan, Java, the Philippine Islands, China, and Japan, inspecting irrigation and hydroelectric projects and often reporting to President Calvin Coolidge on their technical requirements. In an attempt to find Savage and bring him back to San Diego, “cablegrams and messages raced around the world.” In 1928, they caught up with him in Paris. He agreed to return to his post as engineer “only on condition that he would be free from political interference.”\(^ {16}\) Once Savage took “hold of the water helm,” projects like the Children's Pool could begin to take shape.

In May 1930, Scripps commissioned Savage to reexamine the project and to produce updated drawings, revised topographic and geological surveys, and a
new budget. Savage then expected the project to cost $50,000 although he did not recommend any structural changes from the first surveys he conducted in 1923. Still, Scripps was determined to finish the project. She even had several codicils inserted into her Last Will and Testament: “Plans have been prepared for developing the Pool near my home....if the work is not accomplished during my lifetime, I request...to go forward with it.”

Scripps retained architect William Templeton Johnson to design the breakwater’s parapet walls and dressing stalls. Johnson was a nationally known architect who designed a number of buildings in San Diego, including the private Francis W. Parker School (1912), the La Jolla Public Library (1921), the Fine Arts Gallery (San Diego Museum of Art) (1927), San Diego Trust & Savings Bank (1928), the Junipero Serra Museum (1929), San Diego Natural History Museum (1932) and the United States Post Office on E Street (1932). He favored the “smooth simple lines” of Mission Revival and Spanish Eclectic architecture. Not surprisingly, his proposed design for the Children’s Pool was utilitarian, unobtrusive, and consistent with the organic principals found in the breakwater’s design. His drawings, dated July 1930, show a horizontal, twenty-five foot, one-story structure that was perpendicular to the pool’s two symmetrical stairwells. The dressing stalls, like the breakwater and steps, were made of reinforced concrete and set “below the level of the adjacent street [Coast Boulevard].” It had a rectangular footprint, simple in form and shape. The project would not be Johnson’s most stylized or ornamented work, but his input on its aesthetic elements was
indispensable to Savage.

Before completion of the updated survey, Savage had begun obtaining the necessary permits and authority for the work. On June 26, 1930, Johnson mailed applications and formal letters to San Diego’s City Council, the Department of Public Works, the Board of Playground Commission, the Board of Park Commission, the U.S. War Department, and the State of California. The City of San Diego and the Department of Public Works jointly approved the project within four days of receipt of the letter through Resolution Number 54177. On July 11, 1930, J. B. Pendleton of the Playground Commission approved the project, and was “happy to cooperate in any and every way possible,” including “during construction,” and with “maintenance…after it is completed.” The Park Commissioners sent Savage an approval letter on July 22, 1930, which showed their support for the project.21

The War Department and the State took the longest to sanction the project. Before the War Department would consider the breakwater, Savage had to meet with Major W. H. Lanagan, the district engineer for the U.S. War Department, in Los Angeles. At the meeting, Savage discussed the project goals, the need for the structure, aspects of its construction, and ownership rights. It went well and a month later, on July 22, 1930, William Templeton Johnson invited Colonel Bennett and Major Borden of the U.S. Engineer Office to review the drawings at the site. They were pleased with the design and the “Engineer Officers concluded and announced that provided the breakwater was constructed as designed, it would stay until *Kingdom Come.*” Although the officers supported the project, they also planned to “hold the application in suspense” until the State approved the project. On August 30, 1930, Thomas M. Robins of the U.S. Engineer Office sent Scripps a formal letter telling her that his office would offer support under the following conditions: first, the Engineer Office reserved the right to suspend work at any point. Second, the project had to avoid injury to “the navigable channels or the banks of the waterway.” The Engineer Office also reserved “full and free use of all navigable waterways adjacent to the project.” Another condition gave the U.S. the authority to alter the position or to remove the structure at Scripps’ expense “during future operations.” They wanted the “permittee” to notify the office after the commencement of the work. Finally, if construction did not start before December 31, 1933, the permit would be “null and void.”22 Most of the letter’s body came from the War Department’s Standard Form Number 96, and was dependent on the State’s decision.

On September 2, 1930, Savage finally received formal approval from the State. U.S. Attorney General Webb told Savage that although the project still needed an Act of Legislature, “no action would be taken by the State to prevent the progress of the work prior to…legislative action.” Accordingly, Webb told Savage to “go forward with the project” without the Act, and he applauded the “public spirit and splendid ambition of Mrs. Scripps.”23 As Savage had anticipated in July 1930, construction of the breakwater would proceed without legislative authority.

On April 23, 1931, Gov. James Rolph, Jr. finally approved Senate Bill Number 422, *An Act Granting Certain Tide and Submerged Lands of the State of California to the City of San Diego,* which “officially” authorized the project.24 The Senate Bill passed seven months after Savage received approval to begin construction from Webb.

Savage began seeking general contractors in September 1930 while awaiting
approval from the State. He sent an informal “invitation to bid” to four contractors who had “experience with this type of marine work”: Merritt-Chapman and Scott Corporation of San Pedro, Healy-Tibbitts Construction Company of San Francisco, W. M. Ledbetter and Company of Los Angeles, and Charles Steffgan of San Diego. Savage spent “considerable time” with representatives from each company. He chose the Ledbetter Company, who came in with the lowest bid of $55,215, despite the fact that they were “not heard from” when invited to meet in San Diego. The bids were due in Savage’s office on September 10 and he promised a decision on September 15, 1930. The Ledbetter Company previously constructed the Scripps Institution Pier at La Jolla Shores and a similar breakwater in Newport, California, “under very difficult [and similar] conditions” caused by the “adverse ocean currents.” Additionally, the company had erected “falsework causeways” and “concrete piles” for the Mission Bay Bridge in San Diego earlier that year.25 Ledbetter provided Savage with a multi-phased construction plan, and a detailed list of supplies and equipment. On September 16, 1930, Savage issued Ledbetter surety bonds worth $50,000 and “labor and material man’s bonds” worth $25,000, through the Indemnity Insurance Company.26 After finalizing the contract, construction was finally ready.

“Through the Tides”: Construction and Difficulties

On September 17, 1930, “after long discussions and investigations,” the way was “clear at last” to begin preliminary construction of the breakwater. Ledbetter
organized a crew of “twelve men, including [a] carpenter, foreman Sam Neary, and superintendent Carl Gadesburg.” The crew brought equipment to the site and erected a “temporary building to house [an] office, blacksmith shop, and tools.” Ledbetter laid a water line and fenced off the site. The La Jolla Journal recorded the momentous day and excited the public over “this wonderful and valuable improvement.”

The first phase of construction involved the assembly of a timber trestle used as a platform for the workers, construction of a cofferdam, assembly of a pile driver, excavation of a cutoff trench, and the drilling of holes for structural support rails. The workers constructed the trestle outward from the bluff and over the reef. It was the length of the proposed breakwater. After the trestle’s construction, the workers next assembled the pile driver. The pile driver was nearly twenty-feet high, and many La Jolla residents found themselves “bewildered by the complex and towering apparatus.” The crew drilled twenty-one piles into the bluff and began assembling a cofferdam to protect their work from the shifting sand and rough current. The cofferdam was a massive wooden structure composed of air and watertight timbers that sat below the workers’ trestle. On October 9, 1930, they lowered the cofferdam into place at the channel between the bluff and the reef. With the cofferdam and trestle assembled, the crew started excavation of a cutoff trench for the foundation, nicknamed “the Toe.”

Savage recalled, “cutting the cutoff trench was the most interesting and important single thing about the entire project.” They placed the cutoff trench in an existing natural trench “previously out in the reef.” To assist the excavation of the trench, the workers used a fifty horsepower centrifugal pump to remove the sand through suction. They created the Toe with a pile driver and a twenty-inch drill bit. “The bit pulverized the rock in the trench and the sea removed about half of the muck in the resulting trench.” The crew then used pneumatic spades to trim the jagged rocks left in the trench and to break up large boulders. Once the Toe’s depth reached ten feet and 328 feet long, the workers smoothed the surface with hand excavations. Then workers washed the trench clean and began drilling holes for the metal upright rails that would support the concrete.

The digging of the trench took much longer than the anticipated seventy-five
days. Workers dug from October 16 to November 24, 1930. Consequently, the four weeks spent in the Toe was a setback to the schedule. The men lost several “hours through the tides,” and drilling the holes for the upright rails could only occur at low tide. Due to the “capricious” ocean, water frequently filled the uprights’ holes. Workers had to set wooden plugs wrapped in burlap sacks into the holes to protect them. The men had to drill 1,304.5 feet of holes and, when drilling slowed to a dismal sixty-two feet per eight-hour day, Savage tried to make up time through several measures. First, he had Ledbetter increase the size of the crew from twelve to sixteen men. During preparations for the trench, he had realized the proposed number would not be enough. He quickly learned that a sixteen-man crew was still insufficient for the trench and holes, and he had Ledbetter increase the crew to twenty-five men. To overcome the problems caused by the high tides, the twenty-five-person crew split into two teams and worked night shifts during low tide. Second, Savage ordered Ledbetter to begin laying the concrete and installing the upright railings while the crew simultaneously dig the trench and drilled the holes. The original plans had the concrete and railings installed after completion of the trench. Ledbetter ordered 3,125.5 barrels of Riverside Concrete, which arrived by railroad cars at Pacific Beach siding, and thirty-one tons of rail arrived from Los Angeles by the Shannahans Brothers Company.

While washing the Toe in late October 1930, the crew placed temporary concrete bulkheads along the channels of the reef to prevent water from reaching the cofferdam. Then they started laying concrete and installed the railings in “section one and two” of the trench (up to the opening of the sluiceways) and finished the two sections before completion of the trench. The workers would construct the breakwater in eight sections, and maintaining steady progress was crucial to the project. By early December, the workers were ready for the next phase of construction, which involved concreting the rest of the breakwater and inserting the railings into the upright holes.

On December 8, 1930, the crew finished concreting and inserting railings in all of section three, and started the foundation work for section four and five. At this point, they were fifty-two percent finished with the concretion. However, “heavy ground swells” and rough seas temporarily stopped their work in late December 1930. On December 11, the “newly poured concrete of section four was badly washed and the inside step forms were demolished, also the outside curved form for section three were demolished.” On December 16, “the lower portions of steps of section four were damaged.” The workers had to “cut away to a uniform level” and pour a new top to the damaged steps. Water seeped under two of concrete panels on December 23, which ruined the freshly poured concrete. After these events, Ledbetter requested “an extension of time of completion” until January 29, 1931. They expected to finish the breakwater two months later than the date they originally planned.

The difficulty in creating the breakwater caused further deviations from the original plan. Scripps decided to eliminate the dressing stalls after consulting with both Savage and her lawyer. But she continued to employ architect Johnson to advise Savage and Ledbetter on the overall visual quality of the project. He would also design the stairway structure and parapet walls.

On December 24, 1930, the workers finally finished installing and grouting the upright railings and the concretion of the eight sections. In addition, they
completed the four sluiceway holes and were ready to start building the grillages and gates for them. The breakwater began taking shape, and Savage, Ledbetter, and the crew became excited over the promise of the next phase.

The New Year began with the disassembly of the trestle. Workers started the excavation of the stairway structure. Additionally, the crew took advantage of favorable low tides by removing the remaining large boulders that lined the pool’s bottom. The site also had two small caves along the south beach and two caves entering into the bluff from the pool side. Phase III of construction required the workers to concrete and seal the caves “to protect the adjacent structures.” They used Riverside reinforced concrete and built three eighteen-inch steps into the face of the south beach caves “to facilitate access” to the sand. Once again, Savage had the workers use the site’s natural features to enhance the functionality of the breakwater. The use of the concreted caves as small access steps reflected the organic ideas that dominated the plan and design.

As the project seemed to be gaining speed, a significant setback disrupted work for several days on January 2, 1931. The dragline, used to remove the large boulders, fell while being moved into position. It “went off the bluff and landed on its side on the south beach opposite [the] caves.” Ledbetter replaced the dragline with a “larger Northwest shovel,” and actually used it to salvage the “old dragline.” Work did not resume for several days, and Savage’s crew felt they “fell short of accomplishment due to…the accident to the dragline.”

On January 13, 1931, Johnson and Savage submitted to Scripps several design modifications to the parapet walls. After they poured the breakwater’s walls, the men decided to “change the height and taper the top elevation.” Johnson and Savage wanted the parapet walls to be eight inches high on either side. They
suggested the change purely for aesthetic value, to accentuate the smooth lines of the breakwater.

By January 19, the workers finished the concretion of the caves and the excavation of the stairway structure. The blacksmith continued assembling the grillages for the sluiceways. During this time, they poured ten feet of concrete for the stairway structure and retaining wall. Still, the workers were quite far from their projected completion date. On January 28, Ledbetter asked Scripps for another extension of time, believing it was “was impossible to complete the work within the allocated time.” Scripps agreed and granted Ledbetter another extension until March 15, 1931. With the time extension, the workers prepared themselves for the final phase, which involved grouting the walkway’s grillings, completing the stairway and steps, finishing the parapet walls, and preparing the site for public use.

“Beautiful, Beautiful Lines”

Phase IV of construction was the culmination of a project that began nearly a decade earlier. Work on the last phase commenced the first week of February 1931. The workers began grouting the parallel railings on top of the breakwater and completed them shortly before February 19. After their installation, crewmembers cleaned and painted the railings with two coats of “Hermastic paint.” Next, Ledbetter’s men completed the stairway structure. They built the stairway structure to an elevation of twenty-eight and one-quarter feet, and concreted the lower landings and steps. The following week, the crew finished concreting the eight-inch east and west parapet walls. The only construction work left was the paving and curbing of the parking lot adjacent to Coast Blvd.

After the completion of construction in early March 1931, Savage invited representatives of Scripps to the breakwater to examine the structure. On March 4, the representatives met with Johnson at the site and offered some criticism. They felt the lines in the terrace area were distracting and they criticized the “angularity” of the stairway structure. Additionally, they recommended reducing the height of the parapet walls further and creating an additional step and extending the railing at the first section of the breakwater. The purpose of the step and railing were to provide an easier way for “nurses and those in charge of small children…to get from the walkway” to the “sunny steps.”

Following the meeting, Johnson and Savage began making changes. To fix the distracting lines, Johnson suggested coloring the breakwater’s walls. He told Scripps’ representatives “he would be glad to get in touch with a man in Los Angeles who is able to tint the concrete walls.” Tinting the walls would give it the same appearance as the surrounding soil’s color and would “relieve the stark appearance of this section.” This would also enhance the organic design of the structure. On March 25, Johnson had Arthur Raitt of Lamens Process Company color the walls, which created a natural algae visual effect and “beautiful, beautiful lines.”

To relieve the “angularity” of the stairway structure, Savage and Johnson added a balustrade along the upper portion of the first flight of stairs. It was a practical addition, since it aided “elderly people” in accessing the beach from the street. Work on reducing the parapet walls several inches began on March 12 and the
workers finished before April 4. Design alterations caused the project to go over deadline and over budget by approximately $4,000. However, the cosmetic changes clearly added to the visual appeal and safety of the breakwater.40

Outside of these slight modifications, Savage encountered only one obstacle during the final phase of construction. He noticed that the sand level of the pool constantly fluctuated with the ebb and flow of the tide. “A strong suction pull caused by the water running into the sluiceways and then receding” made it difficult for the pool to have an even sandbar. To remedy this problem, he decided to close the four wooden grillages. This prevented the sand in the pool from moving west through the sluiceways. On March 27, workers sealed the grillages. The pool’s floor immediately lowered one and a half feet. Three days later, a sand beach formed at “the corner between the bluff and the inside of the breakwater,”
which Savage saw as beneficial “for children bathing in the pool.” If it ever seemed
desirable to reopen the gates, Savage proposed hand excavating the sluiceways
at low tide and raising the frames and gates at low tide. After dealing with these
obstacles, work was finally finished on the Children’s Pool and it was ready for the
public’s use.41

“A Wonderful Improvement”

After extensive planning, a tedious permit/approval process, and construction
filled with numerous delays and obstacles, Savage, Johnson, and Ledbetter
eventually completed the Children’s Pool on April 4, 1931. From the initial survey
and design to the final work done by the contractor, the entire project took ten
years.

On May 31, a celebration occurred at the breakwater to celebrate the
accomplishment. Scripps was too ill to attend the celebration but Savage spoke
in her place, reminding the audience of the difficulties involved in constructing
the structure and the importance of the breakwater to the people of La Jolla.
The ceremony featured speeches, a pantomime performance by La Jolla school
children, and a concert by the San Diego Y.M.C.A. band.

The breakwater received tremendous support from members of the community.
Judge John Kean described the project as “the most valuable of all Miss Scripps’
benefits to La Jolla.” Samuel Fox, representative to Mayor Walter Austin, believed
that the breakwater would allow children “to enjoy without danger, the Ocean.”
The community’s weekly paper, La Jolla Journal, called the idea a “wonderful and
valuable improvement,” and “a great asset to the community.”42

The breakwater reflects the philanthropic legacy of Scripps and the dedication
and work ethic of Savage. Its construction was an intensive undertaking that
created a safer bathing area for children. It remains a durable and lasting structure
on La Jolla’s coast.

NOTES

1. The author thanks Dr. Molly McClain and the La Jolla Historical Society for their research
   assistance. “Work on Children’s Swimming Bathing Pool in La Jolla Started,” La Jolla Journal,
   September 18, 1930, 1.

2. Terry Rodgers, “Is Their Fate Sealed?” San Diego Union Tribune, October 22, 2005. In past years,
   seals came to the Children’s Pool to birth and nurse pups between February and March. Recently,
   the number of seals has increased and inhabited the beach for longer periods of time. Environmental
   advocacy groups like the San Diego Sierra Club opposed the removal of the seals from the beach.
   For more information, see Kristina Hancock, “Turf Wars: The Seals of La Jolla, Public Trust Land
   and Animal Law,” San Diego Lawyer (March/April 2006): 22-29; Hany Elwany, Reinhard Flick, Jean
   Nichols, and Anne-Lise Lindquist, “La Jolla Children’s Pool: Beach Management and Water Quality
   Improvement Project,” August 27, 1998, Scripps Institution of Oceanography Technical Report,

   Union Tribune, February 1, 2006; Alicia Booth, letter to the editor, “...And An Awful Stench,”
   San Diego Union Tribune, March 2, 2006; Rebecca Stanger, letter to the editor, “Pool is for Seals, Not Bratty
   Adults,” San Diego Union Tribune, December 8, 2005.

4. Rodgers, “City Council to Appeal Children’s Pool Ruling,” San Diego Union Tribune, September
   28, 2005; Rodgers, “Children’s Pool Ruling is Delayed,” San Diego Union Tribune, November 9, 2005;
Until Kingdom Come


5. San Diego Union, February 3, 1875, April 15, 1881, 1; “Young Woman’s Presence of Mind Saves Her Life,” La Jolla Journal, June 18, 1920, 1.


7. “Children’s Pool Given to the City.”

8. Fletcher wrote about Savage in his memoir, noting that “he entered into my life, touching on so many important problems, in opposition so many times, I could not write my memoirs with any degree of accuracy without bringing him into the picture.” Savage had the backing of Melville Klauber, for many years President and Chairman of the Water Committee of the San Diego Chamber of Commerce, and Harry Jones, manager of Bylesby Company, which owned San Diego Gas & Electric Company. He also had the backing of the Spreckels interests. According to Fletcher, “it was that backing that brought Savage to San Diego as San Diego’s Hydraulic Engineer.” He wrote, “Savage was the most expensive hydraulic engineer San Diego ever had. Savage had a coterie of friends backing him up. He was a big, husky chap who scarcely ever smiled and, when you doubted his judgment and tried to argue, Savage sulked.” Ed Fletcher, Memoirs of Ed Fletcher (San Diego: private printing, 1952), 389; Henry Love, “H. N. Savage, City Dam Builder, Dies on Duty in San Diego Service,” San Diego Union, June 25, 1934, 1.


10. Hiram Newton Savage, Ellen Browning Scripps Bathing Pool for Children at La Jolla, California: Feature History, March 1931 (San Diego, 1931), 7. Savage included copies of letters, plans, estimates, and other materials in this bound typescript, located at the La Jolla Historical Society. Another copy of this document can be found in the Water Resources Center Archives, University of California, Berkeley. The archive also contains nearly fifty photographs of the Children’s Pool, WRCA MS 76/16, box 4, folders 80-81.

11. Hiram Newton Savage to Ellen Browning Scripps, September 15, 1930, La Jolla Historical Society (LJHS); “Children’s Pool Given to the City.”

12. “Work on Children’s Swimming Bathing Pool in La Jolla Started,” 1; Savage, Ellen Browning Scripps Bathing Pool, 5-6, 8, 196.

13. Ibid., 5-6, 202.


22. Ibid., 20-21, 64, 66, 72.

23. Ibid., 23, 77.


25. Ibid., 27-28, 33-34, 77; “Work on Children’s Swimming Bathing Pool in La Jolla Started”; Charles Steffgen came in at $57,749.70. Merritt-Chapman and Scott came in at $79,877.80. Healy-Tibbitts made an offer to “furnish equipment and do work at cost plus fifteen percent.”


27. “Work on Children's Swimming Bathing Pool in La Jolla Started,” La Jolla Journal, September 18, 1930, 1; Savage, Ellen Browning Scripps Bathing Pool, 78.


31. Savage, Ellen Browning Scripps Bathing Pool, 52, 82-83, 87, 131, 137.

32. Ibid., 88, 129.

33. Ibid., 54-55, 93.

34. Ibid., 93.

35. Ibid., 129.

36. Ibid., 131-133.

37. Ibid., 98, 131.

38. Ibid., 100, 124-125.

39. Ibid., 104, 124-125.

40. Ibid., 105, 124.

41. Ibid., 116-119.

42. “Children’s Pool Given to the City,” 1; “Work on Children's Swimming Bathing Pool in La Jolla Started,” 1.
Although she is virtually unknown today, Kate Field (1838-1896) was “one of the best-known women in America” during her life, according to her obituary in the *New York Tribune.* A member of the expatriate community in Florence in the late 1850s, she befriended the Brownings, the Trollopes, and Walter Savage Landor while she was still in short dresses. She covered Charles Dickens’s final American speaking tour in 1867-68 for the *New York Tribune* and published her account of the trip under the title *Pen Photographs of Charles Dickens’s Readings* (1868). A popular lecturer and prolific writer, author of the best-selling travel books *Hap-Hazard* (1873) and *Ten Days in Spain* (1874), Field was also the model for the character of the journalist Henrietta Stackpole in Henry James’s novel *The Portrait of a Lady* (1881). More to the point, Field visited San Diego and Ensenada for seven weeks in February-March 1888, and the record of her visit silhouettes the region at the height of the local “boom” here and in Lower California.

Field left New York on the longest lecture tour of her career in January 1887. She spent February in the Great Lakes states; March in Kansas and Nebraska; April and May in Colorado and Utah; June in the Pacific Northwest; most of July in Alaska; and August through December in San Francisco. In January 1888 she headed south to Santa Barbara, then in early February to San Diego. She arrived on the steamer *Santa Rosa* in the evening of February 7 and immediately ferried

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across the bay to Coronado Island, where she registered at the Hotel Josephine, a three-story, Eastlake style building on Orange Avenue between Third and Fourth Streets. A reporter for the San Diego Bee was waiting for her there, though Field rebuffed his attempt at an interview. She had docked at half-past seven, she explained, and “it is now 9,” so her “knowledge [of the area] is limited to the wharf and an omnibus.” She begged for a chance to tour the city before she was asked to express an opinion of it, though like a civic booster she declared that she expected the city to prosper — it was “the manifest destiny of the Pacific Coast” — through tourism and investment. She planned to linger several weeks “in order to become acquainted with this marvelous State,” particularly with its southern part. “I want to see San Diego thoroughly and shall be glad to be shown the way, as I come a perfect ignoramus.”

A reporter for the San Diego Union also pressed her for comment, and she finally acknowledged that San Francisco “needs to recognize in San Diego a rival.” The progress of southern California, she thought, was “wonderful and very interesting, and I shall know more about it after I have seen your city by daylight.”

A day or two later she began to speak her mind. With a population of about 35,000, San Diego and Coronado Beach in the winter of 1888 boasted five daily newspapers (the Bee, San Diegan, Union, Sun, and the Coronado Mercury), and Field was repeatedly interviewed by each of them during her visit. She told the Sun on February 8 that “she likes the town, the climate, and the people,” and she informed the Union the same day that she was “delighted with the climate here.
The temperature is remarkably equable throughout the day and night.” As she wrote her friend Lilian Whiting in Boston:

> Coronado Beach is across the bay from San Diego and is well situated for view of ocean and mountain. The day is lovely, and as I look out upon mountain, sunshine, and the glitter of a placid sea, I wish you were here to enjoy its loveliness. An Eastern woman is playing Mendelssohn extremely well in the adjoining parlor. *Les extremes se touchent* [the extremes touch]. I know you would exclaim at the fine scenery, the delightful air, the glorious sun, delicious fruit, and the general *dolce far niente* [pleasant idleness].

> Over and over again I wish you were here. It is so lovely and so lazy. I can't do anything—not even write a letter without an effort. The work I came here to do remains undone, and I am desperate in one sense while utterly indifferent in another.7

On February 9, Field toured the new and fashionable Hotel del Coronado on the southern shore of the peninsula. It would not officially open its doors until February 14, but some guests had already registered. Field promised to transfer her lodgings there in a few days,8 but she did not, probably because the rooms were too expensive. Besides, she was satisfied with her accommodations at the Hotel Josephine.

For better or worse, Field was regarded during her residence in San Diego not only as a professional travel writer but as something of a travel expert, and so she was expected both to comment on the attractions of the region and on how to enhance them. Privately, she allowed that she was more impressed with San Diego than with Santa Barbara. “The climate is drier and the nights and mornings are less cool,” as she wrote a friend in San Francisco. “Coronado Beach will soon be very attractive. Send your friends to my hotel which is pretty, clean and quiet.”9 Publicly, she warned against the threatened industrialization and commercialization of the island. It was “a beautiful little place—a regular little gem—and you might have here an ideal spot, but I don’t like the notions of foundries and factories, and oil refineries and...
machine shops coming here. Coronado is such a pretty, clean, restful spot that it should be kept entirely for fine residences, beautiful gardens, and lovely drives, and it is a mistake to contaminate its Heavenly breezes and Edenic sunshine with the smoke and dirt of iron works.” Coronado should become “the abode of artists and scholars,” she declared, like such bohemian enclaves in the East as Saratoga Springs and Greenwich Village.\(^\text{10}\) In their history _Coronado: The Enchanted Island_, Katherine Carlin and Ray Brandes quote some of these comments by Field, whom they describe as “a noted authoress and lecturer of her day.”\(^\text{11}\) As for San Diego, Field added, “I really think Old Town is the best place over there. The ruins of the old Mission are very attractive to me, and already I have visited there several times since I came here, and I hope to go many times more.” She criticized the myopic members of the San Diego City Council, who had “well-nigh ruined” the route to Old Town by granting overlapping franchises to steam motor lines and railways and then proposing “to build a fine boulevard parallel with their tracks.”\(^\text{12}\) Still, Field predicted “a great future for the city, and there is no reason why a great commercial center will not develop here in time.” She also expected San Diego to become an agricultural center. Though the city at that time had to import “fruits and vegetables to supply the demand,” Field noted that many local Chinese farmers were planting “vegetable gardens, and they will become rich in a short time at the business.”\(^\text{13}\) She also recognized the strategic value of San Diego harbor, potentially the most important port south of San Francisco.

As for the vexing problem of potable water, Field offered a suggestion. To be sure, some people “can drink lime-water and be benefited thereby, but many more are seriously injured.” In fact, she insisted, bad water may do “as much harm in its way as bad whisky.” But the residents of the city “have the remedy in their own hands if they choose to use it.” While the water channeled from the mountains may be “freighted with lime,” she wrote:

> Heaven sends you rain, pure and soft and health-giving. Every house should have its cistern, and if every house had a cistern, nobody would be obliged to drink lime in solution. Were it known to travelers that soft water was provided at all hotels and boarding-houses, many an invalid would gladly come to breathe your balmy air. . . . The dew or fog or whatever you please to call the moisture in the air on this coast is sufficient, if caught, to supply every family with soft water.

Field cited the example of J. B. Elliott, a former railroad official credited with planting the cypress and eucalyptus trees along the rail corridor from Leucadia to the ocean. Elliott lived half a mile from the beach and had never dug a well because “his cistern supplies all the water necessary for domestic purposes.” His 2400 square foot roof captured 140 gallons of water every day, over 51,000 gallons per year “without counting the rainfall.” Similarly, the Hotel Josephine supplied its guests with drinking water from a cistern. Though they “bathe in hard water,” Field noted, “they drink rainwater twice filtered, and thus avoid laying the seed of ill-health.”\(^\text{14}\)

On February 16 she sailed on the steamer _Montserrat_ for Ensenada in company with former Nevada congressman Thomas Fitch and his wife.\(^\text{15}\) The region had recently been opened to immigration by the International Company of Mexico, a
U. S.-Mexico partnership dominated by American businessmen. On board she “met prominent railroad officials who had come from the East with their families; I met brilliant lawyers, shrewd capitalists and charming women, all bound for what the old Mission fathers christened more than a hundred years ago Tierra Perfecta.” Field registered at the new Hotel Iturbide in Ensenada with its magnificent view of the bay of Todos Santos. “Here I am on Mexican ground—only 65 miles south of San Diego and yet out of my own country!” as she wrote her friend Laurence Hutton.

With a population of about 1,400, Ensenada was “prettily situated,” but the cuisine there was “not what it ought to be. Fancy living on salt water and having no fish!” Still, she had met “unusually agreeable people” in the town, “some of whom I had either known or long heard of in New York society.”

On February 20, she was interviewed by telephone by the San Diego Bee. “I am agreeably disappointed” by Ensenada, she admitted. “I was told that I’d be disgusted in half an hour. I’ve been here four days and I’m not disgusted yet.”

The bay “is beautiful, and the finest bit of it, to my thinking, is Punta Banda,” a prominence on the southern side, which she predicted would eventually become a popular resort for Mexican and American tourists. “The scenery is fine, and the estuary at this point forms a lake that will be capital for boating and fishing. Close beside this lake is a hot spring of great medicinal value, while back of it rise hills, most easy to climb, and from the top of which there is a beautiful view of the Pacific coast.” The journalist Charles Nordhoff (1830-1901), author of California for Health, Pleasure, and Residence (1872) and Peninsular California (1888), had purchased a thousand acre ranch near Punta Banda where “he threatens to build himself a retreat from the madding crowd,” and his son, Walter Nordhoff (1855-1937), had “a farm of 100 acres in the valley near by.” The American hosteller Gabriel S. Erb (1843-1895) also planned to erect a 600-room hotel in Punta Banda as soon as a pier was completed. “The intended big hotel at Punta Banda,” she declared, “will undoubtedly be a capital resort for Mexicans and Americans.”

On February 25 she again went to Punta Banda for a clambake and “tea squall” and to enjoy the “sun and mountain and sea and peaches in bloom!”

Between February 20 and 24 she toured the San Rafael valley. “One beautiful morning I sat in a buckboard behind two roadsters” bound for the valley twenty-
six miles east of Ensenada, as she later reminisced. “Up mountain and down,” they traveled until noon before eating lunch “on the ground in the pneumonic month of February!” Field was impressed by the commercial potential of San Rafael valley, “twenty miles long north and south and ten miles wide” with a flowing river “and more than one marsh” indicating “how near water lives to the surface of the earth.” With good reason, she thought a gold rush to the region was imminent. “Toward the north end of the valley sleeps the small town of Real del Castillo,” she explained. A generation before there rose up this Mexican town with the hope of great fortune. Much gold was found and successfully extracted at a primitive mill adjoining the town, but . . . mines, to be properly worked, need capital; thus it comes to pass that the fecund mountains of San Rafael have been left almost undisturbed. But the coyotes will not be masters of the situation much longer. The prospector is going in with his pick. Mining companies are already setting up claims.24

Field predicted that the coming gold rush in Lower California, “a boom that will surprise many people in California,” would “do more toward opening up the country than all the advertising in the world” by insuring the construction of railroads. San Diego would benefit, too, because “all the supplies, for the present at least, will have to be sent into the lower country from and through the city.” Field conceded that “some San Diegans will be greatly disgusted to read so much praise of their next door neighbors,” but “I believe in telling what to me is truth” and “I also believe that Southern California and the entire Pacific Coast will be benefited by additional emigrations.”25

Though rich in minerals, the valley was even better suited to farming than to mining, according to Field. “Nature has dedicated the fifty thousand acres of San Rafael valley to agriculture,” she explained. “Portions of the soil are a rich black loam with clay subsoil, while other portions consist of fine comminuted granite. Cereals, grasses, roots and every fruit but such belong to the citrous family can easily be raised, while all kinds of stock thrive with no danger of drought.” While gazing across “the cañon, sheltered from winds and rich in foliage,” she imagined
“a not distant future when its fertile valley would be the home of the olive and the walnut, and its hills would be terraced with grape vines.” Had the valley been located in San Diego county “instead of being seventy-six miles south of it in Mexican territory,” she averred, “there would be much beating of drums and tooting of horns.” In all, the San Rafael valley was “capital farming country, and will soon be inhabited by thrifty farmers, the only people who ought to think of going into that region—unless it be a few mechanics and carpenters.”

Field was so enthusiastic about the prospects for Lower California that, an unapologetic economic imperialist, she recommended that the U.S. buy the peninsula from Mexico just as William Seward had bought Alaska from Russia in 1867. It belonged, she insisted, “to us by necessity.” Field was hardly the first person to express this idea. The original draft of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (1848) ceded Lower California to the United States, and the notorious freebooter William Walker planned in 1853 eventually to join his self-proclaimed and slave-holding “Republic of Lower California” to the U.S. Similarly, Field asserted that the “comparatively unknown peninsula” might legally be owned by Mexico, but it was “more remote from [Mexico] than from the United States.” She expected that eventually the Mexican government, “seeing the absurdity of holding onto a peninsula she cannot reach overland except by going through our territory and which she will never develop,” would sell it. Indeed, “President Díaz has already sold eighteen million acres to the International Company of Mexico.” Field approved wholeheartedly of the elaborate colonization scheme sponsored by the Company. It was, she said, “a magnificent enterprise.” The promised internal improvements would require “time, money, and brains,” but “I have faith.” The Mexican Government seemed no less determined than the American investors to make “the International Company’s grand scheme a success. Let the piers be finished at Ensenada and Punta Banda and the railroad be built to Yuma and Lower California will cease to be an unknown country.” Field was at pains to assure her friends that, unlike their countrymen to the east, “the Mexicans of Lower California are an amiable, peaceable people, from whom little trouble need be expected.” The local people were so docile, she suggested, that they could easily be trained to perform all domestic labor: the “amiable Mexican and Indian women” can be “taught far more readily than can the common variety of emigrant that condescends to serve American citizens for a valuable consideration.” George
H. Sisson, a San Francisco engineer, vice-president and general manager of the Company, and reportedly “a remarkably clever man,” certainly “has a great opportunity to distinguish himself.” Field’s only regret was that the central office of the Company was three thousand miles away in Hartford when it “ought to be in San Diego.”

Field returned to San Diego from Ensenada aboard the *Monserrat* early in the morning of March 1 in order to keep a lecture date. Among her fellow passengers was W. E. Webb, the Land Commissioner of the International Company, who was returning to his home in New York. Her arrival was delayed by stormy weather some twelve hours, however, which cemented her belief that a rail should be laid between the cities. “I have never experienced more misery in less time than during last night’s gale,” she acknowledged, “but the *Montserrat* behaved well, and barring seasickness I am none the worse for the journey--perhaps the better.” In retrospect, she did not recommend travel to Lower California to anyone except visitors to San Diego, though she did envision “a future for this region.” She urged her friend Hutton to wait three years, until railroads were built and hotels more comfortable, before booking a trip. Then “Lower California will be worth your seeing.” The region “is more interesting than Southern California. The climate is better and the Mexicans and Spanish language give it a novelty.”

As promised, Field delivered her lecture “The Mormon Monster” to a full house at the First Methodist Church at the corner of Fourth and D streets on the evening of March 5. Attired in a garnet silk dress cut low in front with a long train, short sleeves, and a collar trimmed in white lace, *pince-nez* in hand, she was introduced by Judge M. A. Luce and proceeded for the next hour to decry Mormonism as a form of treason, to condemn the “inefficiency” of the Edmunds anti-polygamy law, and to call for a standard national marriage law. As the *San Diego Sun* reported the next day, “No public speaker was ever greeted with a finer audience in San Diego than the one which gathered in the new Methodist church last evening to listen

Field delivered several lectures to audiences in downtown San Diego. Photograph looking west on D Avenue from Sixth Street, 1887. ©SDHS, #1432.
to Miss Kate Field’s lecture.” Ever an apostle of culture, Field praised Charles Dickens before a large audience at a meeting of the Unity Club at the Unitarian Church of San Diego at the corner of Tenth and F streets a few days later.

Over the next couple of weeks she visited the American Ostrich Company breeding farm on Coronado Island; she rode around the island with the manager of the Hotel Josephine in his “stylish four-in-hand”; and on the evening of March 22 she delivered her famous lecture “An Evening with Charles Dickens” to another large and distinguished audience—the “wealth, beauty, fashion, and intellect of San Diego, young and old”—at the Methodist Church. Stylishly dressed in “a white silk skirt en train and a crimson satin waist faced with old gold lace,” Field reminisced about “Boz” for an hour and a half, her anecdotes punctuated with “frequent applause and expressions of pleasure.”

Two days later, as her visit was drawing to a close, she was again asked her impressions of San Diego by a local reporter and her answers were by turns caustic and cautious. “I have seen very little [in the city] that is uncomplimentary,” she began, but she quickly added that “you have given yourselves and have received from others more treacle than is good for you. Your digestion is out of order in consequence.” She also warned against the adventurers who would prey “upon the unwary and extract the very gold from their teeth if police do not stand by with cocked revolvers.” San Francisco had resorted to vigilantism to maintain order in the 1850s, she reminded the interviewer, but San Diego “will have no need of such committees if your best citizens go to the polls and elect honest intelligent men to office. It will be a great pity if so promising a seaport falls into unscrupulous hands.” Nor should San Diegans brag that their city is “no worse than New York.
It ought to be better. New York is the nation’s metropolis. It daily receives the scum of Europe and has much to contend against. San Diego is beginning its career, has no such infliction and can readily dispose of its lawless element. Field also cautioned against too-rapid growth. Too many developments had been planned “for the good of the town,” she thought, and some real estate brokers “have resorted to lying in order to put money in their purses.” Among the “deadheads” she mentioned privately were Douglas Gunn (1841-1891), the editor of the San Diego Union and later mayor of San Diego, and Theodore S. Van Dyke (1842-1923), author of Millionaires of a Day: An Inside History of the Great Southern California “Boom” (1890). Such ruses were unnecessary, of course. “San Diego has an excellent harbor, a fine climate, and good scenery. With such a blessed trinity it is your own fault if you do not steadily advance.”

As for “your present drawbacks?” According to Field, the city had hardly begun to address its sewerage problems. Rather than widespread use of cesspools, the city ought to adopt the system of drainage designed by the sanitation expert George W. Waring (1833-1898), with all houses connected to sewer mains. As it happened, Waring was in San Diego at the time to advise city officials. Field argued that property owners should be required by law to connect to the mains. “When people are too stupid or too careless to do their duty to their towns they should be fined until they experience a change of heart,” she insisted. “With all your sewers laid you can then pave your streets, and thus avoid much of the dust and sand with which San Diego can now be afflicted.” The city planners might then lay out boulevards and select sites for parks. “Of course, you should have an opera house,” too. If all “respectable citizens” led by someone like Bryant Howard, the president of the Consolidated National Bank, supported “high license” or the sale of beer, wines, and light spirits, “you’ll do more good to your town than prohibitionists ever dreamed of.” The reorganization of the Flume Company under the direction of the developer E. W. Morse (1823-1906) guaranteed “this valuable system of irrigation will be speedily completed, and then your pretty valley of El...
Kate Field’s Visit to San Diego

Cajon will have all the water it needs to blossom as the rose.” More local transit lines would also benefit the tourist, “the dairyman, and market-gardener.” Finally, in order to integrate Coronado Beach with the city, Field recommended “better and more frequent ferry-boats” across the bay “at more moderate fares.” Then an amazing prediction that would not be realized for over eighty years: “The day may not be far distant when a bridge will span the bay.”

Two days later Field packed her bags and left San Diego by train. She lectured on Dickens in Riverside that evening before continuing north to San Bernardino and Pasadena. She wrote Hutton from Los Angeles on March 31 that she enjoyed the view of the San Gabriel mountains but “nothing can compensate for the lack of water” there. She thought most Los Angeleans “uninteresting,” with real estate virtually their only topic of conversation “and ‘booms’ the rage.” She had speculated in property in Washington, D.C., Omaha, Nebraska, and Atchison, Kansas, while traveling across the continent months before; but if she had invested instead in southern California—particularly in San Diego “with its beautiful harbor,” as she admitted, “I’d be a howling squillionaire.”

Ironically, her expectations for Lower California were disappointed by the end of the “boom” in San Diego, the economic recession of 1888-90, and the bankruptcy of the railroad project she had hoped would speed immigration and increase trade. Gabriel Erb began construction on the Hotel Erb in the spring of 1887 but never completed it. “Some day Punta Banda will be a famous watering place,” she reiterated in 1891, correctly enough, “but not until millions of dollars and thousands of people have found their way to this remote corner of North America.” As Field anticipated, mining companies developed the gold fields around El Alamo, sixty miles southeast of Ensenada. Without them, the recession in Lower California would have been worse. But her faith in the “magnificent” project of the International Company of Mexico and its “remarkably clever” manager Sisson turned out to be unwarranted. Sisson was implicated in a filibustering scheme which helped discredit the Company, and he transferred all of its assets in mid-1888 to the Mexican Land and Colonization Company. Field was disgusted. The reborn company, she complained, “can never be satisfactory to us, as it is English in the worst sense of the term.” The Díaz government eventually charged the company with fraud.

During the winter of 1891-92, Field returned to the topic of southern California in a pair of essays written for her weekly paper Kate Field’s Washington. She was still bullish on the region. “San Diego is our only harbor on the Pacific coast south of San Francisco,” she reminded her readers:

Consequently the growth of this town is as inevitable as the growth of population on the Pacific coast. Gross exaggeration has lured many an adventurous soul to San Diego who has heartily wished himself at home; speculators have overleaped themselves and cut up more farms into town lots than can be peopled in years; but, after deducting the enthusiasm of born “boomers” and the lying of unscrupulous real estate agents, the fact remains that San Diego has a fine harbor, a fine climate, a back country, good scenery, and is the natural terminus of the railroad systems passing through our southern territory.
Four years after her seven-week visit to San Diego and Lower California, Field continued to insist on the attractions of the region. “Perhaps Uncle Sam may some day discover San Diego on the map and conclude that for strategic importance it has not its equal south of San Francisco,” she averred. “Not only should San Diego Bay be a naval station, but Coronado should be the site of a fortified garrison.”

Who could have guessed that, a half century later, Field would be proved so prescient?

San Diego’s real estate market was booming when Field left the city. Realtor B. L. Muir promoted Coronado Beach in 1886. ©SDHS, #1583.
NOTES

3. “Miss Kate Field,” San Diego Bee, February 8, 1888, 8:3.
4. “Kate Field,” San Diego Union, February 8, 1888, 8:5.
7. Lilian Whiting, Kate Field: A Record (Boston: Little, Brown, 1899), 456-57.
10. “Coronado: The Impressions of a Distinguished Visitor,” Coronado Evening Mercury, February 14, 1888, 2:3. In a San Diego Sun article, Field was quoted as saying, “This beautiful strip of land [Coronado Beach] should be preserved for residences; not a mill, or a shop, or a factory should be located here. I understand that it is proposed to build several large factories here. If this is done there will soon be great black smokestacks belching forth their clouds of nasty smoke, and the result will be that the people will not come here to live. No, Coronado Beach should be a tract for residences, where people may live and enjoy themselves, and it is a poor-sighted policy that prompts the owners to build factories here. They should hold in reserve all this unsold land and not allow a factory to be built here.” “A Woman’s Opinion: Kate Field Talks Freely on Local and Other Matters,” San Diego Sun, February 14, 1888, 5:5. Her comments apparently touched a nerve. Two days later, the San Diego Sun noted, “Coronado Beach has just such a future as Miss Field would like it to have. It will indeed be ‘a tract of residences where people may live and enjoy themselves.’” “The Future of Coronado Beach,” San Diego Sun, February 16, 1888, 4:2.
12. “Coronado: The Impressions of a Distinguished Visitor.” Field was quoted as saying, “The other day I drove out to Old Town with some friends, and we did nothing but cross and recross railway tracks all the way. Seems to me one cannot drive a half mile in San Diego without crossing a lot of railways. If it is true, as I am told, that the road to Old Town is to be flanked on one side by the California Southern and on the other by a motor line, with the driveway between, I blush for the wisdom and sense of your City Council. In fact such an arrangement is pure idiocy, and I am perfectly willing that you should say so.” “A Woman’s Opinion: Kate Field Talks Freely on Local and Other Matters.”
14. Ibid.
17. Field to Laurence Hutton, February 25, 1888, Princeton University Library, Rare Books and Special Collections, C0080, Box 4.
20. “Kate Field by Telephone.”
21. “Miss Field’s Return.” Four years later, Field again averred that she did “not know a lovelier bit of scenery on this continent than Todos Santos Bay, with its amphitheatre of mountains, its half moon beach extending nine miles south and west, its nine miles of estuary forming a charming lake, its hot spring and its promontory of Punta Banda.” Field, “A Glimpse of Lower California.”
22. “Miss Kate Field,” San Diego Sun, March 1, 1888, 5:5; see also “Ensenada,” Lower Californian, March

24. “Miss Kate Field,” San Diego Sun, March 1, 1888, 5:5; see also “Ensenada,” Lower Californian, March 8, 1888, 1:5.

25. “Miss Field’s Return.”


29. “Miss Field’s Return.”


32. Field, “A Glimpse of Lower California,” 347; Field to Laurence Hutton, March 2, 1888, Princeton University Library, Rare Books and Special Collections, C0080, Box 4.

33. San Diego Union, March 6, 1888, 5:4; “The Mormon Monster,” San Diego Bee, March 6, 1888, 8:1-2; “Miss Kate Field’s Lecture,” San Diego Sun, March 6, 1888, 1:5-6; “Kate Field, the Lecturess,” Coronado Mercury, March 6, 1888, 1:1.


35. “Coronado,” San Diego Bee, March 9, 1888, 8:3.


39. Field to Will M. Clemens, March 20, 1888, Indiana University, Lilly Library, Manuscripts Department, S. C. Woodward Collection.

40. “Miss Field on San Diego,” March 25, 1888.


43. Field, “A Glimpse of Lower California,” 347. A filibuster is one who engages in illegal military action in a foreign country. The term is not much used in modern parlance, though it was often used in the nineteenth century to refer to William Walker’s expeditions to Mexico and Nicaragua.

44. Ibid.

45. “People and Things,” Kate Field’s Washington, February 3, 1892, 77-78.
“The Service Knows and Will Remember”
The Aircraft Crash Memorial on Japacha Ridge

Alexander D. Bevil
Winner of the James S. Copley Library Award

Located at an elevation of nearly 4,600 feet on a stone-lined terraced ledge just below and east of Japacha Peak in Cuyamaca Rancho State Park is a lonely memorial dating back to San Diego’s golden days of military aviation. Erected on May 22, 1923, and refurbished later in 1934 and 1968, it consists of the battered and burnt V12-cylinder aircraft engine mounted on a stone and concrete pedestal. Affixed to the pedestal’s base is a bronze plaque, dedicating the structure to the memory of U.S. Army pilot First Lieutenant Charles F. Webber and U.S. Cavalry Colonel Francis C. Marshall, “who fell on this spot on December 7, 1922.” All but forgotten by most modern military historians, the memorial marks the site of one of the most sought after crash sites in U.S. military history. It is also associated with several notable individuals who would go on to play major roles in U.S. military aviation history.

On December 7, 1922, between 9:05 and 9:15 A.M., a twin-seat U.S. Army Air Service DeHaviland DH4B model biplane took off from Rockwell Field, North Island. Behind the controls was twenty-six-year-old pilot First Lieutenant Charles F. Webber. Sitting in front of him in the forward passenger seat was fifty-five-year-old Colonel Francis C. Marshall. A decorated World War I veteran, Colonel Marshall was acting as assistant to the newly appointed Chief of Cavalry on a fact-finding inspection tour of cavalry posts throughout the American Southwest. Having just completed an inspection tour of Troop F of the Eleventh Cavalry based at

Major Henry H. “Hap” Arnold at North Island, 1919. As commanding officer of Rockwell Field, Major Arnold played an important role in the search for the missing airplane. A pioneer aviator, he is credited with transforming the Army Air Corps into the U. S. Air Force, first as commanding general during World War II and, later, as a five-star general on the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Courtesy of the San Diego Aeronautical Museum, Research Library and Archives.
Camp Hearn near the United States-Mexico International Boundary in Imperial Beach, he was now on his way eastward on a three hour flight to inspect an ROTC cavalry unit at Tucson, then the Tenth Cavalry base at Fort Huachuca, Arizona. Colonel Marshall was particularly keen on hitching rides in military aircraft whenever possible during his inspection tour, shaving hours if not days of travel time off his busy schedule.

Knowing full well of Colonel Marshall’s importance, Rockwell Field’s base commander, thirty-six-year-old Major Henry “Hap” Arnold, made no small effort to guarantee the safety of Lieutenant Webber and his distinguished passenger. An accomplished award-winning aviator, Major Arnold was well aware of the dangers involved in early twentieth-century powered flight, especially flying outdated aircraft over the rugged mountain and desert route between San Diego and Fort Huachuca, where no fewer than nine military aviators had reportedly vanished without a trace. Major Arnold had personally instructed Lieutenant Webber to turn his aircraft around and head back to Rockwell Field if conditions prevented him from flying over the mountains. If he was able to climb over the mountains, but was unable to reach his primary destination, Lieutenant Webber was to fly to alternative civilian landing fields either at Calexico, Yuma, Nogales, or Tucson. At a time when radio communication between airplanes and the ground was still in the experimental stage, Webber could only contact and inform Major Arnold by telephone or telegraph immediately upon landing.

If anyone could fly a plane over treacherous terrain through less than friendly skies, Lieutenant Webber, who had volunteered to fly Colonel Marshall, could. Born on January 15, 1896, in Mosca, Colorado, Webber had joined the U.S. Army Signal Corps’ Aviation Section in December 1917. A graduate of the School of Military Aeronautics at the University of California, Berkeley, Webber completed ground, observation, and gunnery training at Army air fields in Michigan and Texas. He reported to the air station at Rockwell Field on July 6, 1919, where he made his first solo flight. After a short stint in the Philippines, Webber returned to Rockwell Field in February 1922. Here he became chief test pilot and officer in charge of flight training. Lieutenant Webber was also the assistant engineering officer assigned to the base’s Air Intermediate Depot, the Army Air Service’s primary supply and repair facility for the West Coast, as well as Hawaii and the Philippines. Among Webber’s duty assignments was the testing of each repaired airplane before it could be returned to its respective air field. Despite his busy schedule, Webber squeezed in additional flight time, participating in a successful round-trip flight looking for suitable sites for auxiliary landing fields between San Diego and Phoenix, Arizona. From July 26 to August 7, 1922, Lieutenant Webber and his co-pilot, First Lieutenant Virgil Hines, logged almost 4,000 miles in a DeHaviland DH4B exploring and mapping potential air routes and emergency
landing sites throughout the American Southwest. Their commander, Major Arnold, recognized their flight over uncharted desert and mountains, often in bad weather, for its “contribution to the establishment of future transcontinental airways.”

While not exactly “state-of-the-art,” Lieutenant Webber’s DeHaviland DH4B was strong and powerful enough to carry him and his passenger along the 505.9-mile trip from Rockwell Field to a landing field at Fort Yuma, Arizona, where he would have to top off his fuel tank for the remaining flight to Fort Huachuca, near present-day Sierra Vista, Arizona. A variant of the earlier British-designed DH4 “Liberty Plane,” the only American-made aircraft that saw action in World War I, the U.S. Army Air Service “modernized” 1,538 post-war DH4s after the Armistice. Webber’s plane, a Dayton-Wright-built DH4, serial number AS63789, had been modified by the Boeing Aircraft Company. While it retained its original 30 foot, 4 inch long fuselage and 43-foot, 6-inch wingspan, the pilot’s position was relocated to the rear observer/gunner’s position, and vice-versa. This, plus moving the fixed landing gear slightly forward, afforded the pilot a better view of the ground below, especially during landing. It also kept the pilot from being trapped between the engine and the 150 gallon fuel tank after a crash landing, which explained the original DH4’s reputation as a “flaming coffin.” The plane’s power plant, the famous water-cooled V-12 Liberty aircraft engine, was rated at 410-horsepower, and could propel the 3,557-pound aircraft to a top speed of 128 mph. However, Webber more than likely would have kept the throttle of the engine back to conserve fuel at its 90 mph cruising speed. Capable of flying at a height of 19,000 feet, the DH4B contained two compasses (one in each cockpit), an altimeter,
and other instruments necessary for long-distance flight. Rockwell Field ground crewmen, who had overhauled it on March 16, 1921, and again on July 20, 1922, had inspected it prior to its takeoff.\(^8\)

The mainstay of the U.S. Army Aviation Service from 1919 to 1930, the DH4B served as a transport, trainer, photographic plane, air ambulance, target tug, and forest fire patroller. However, its most famous postwar role during the 1920s was as a record-breaker. U.S. Army Air Service pilots flew DH4B’s on the 9,000 mile round-trip flight from New York to Alaska, July 15 to October 20, 1920. On September 4, 1922, hotshot pilot Lieutenant Jimmy Doolittle, with only one refueling stop at Kelly Field, Texas, flew a modified DH4B from Pablo Beach, Florida to Rockwell Field, California, completing the first transcontinental flight across the U.S. within a single 24-hour day. Escorting Doolittle from Yuma to his final destination were two North Island DeHavilands flown by Lieutenant Webber and Captain William Randolph. Webber’s navigational skills were put to the test again on October 3 and November 3, when he guided Lieutenants Oakley Kelly and John Macready’s heavily loaded Fokker T-2 monoplane through the 1,700-foot Temecula Pass between Riverside and San Diego counties on the first leg of their attempt to fly non-stop across the continental United States. Although mechanical trouble forced Kelly and Macready to abandon their attempt, their familiarity with the route no doubt contributed to their successful east to west non-stop flight from Roosevelt Field, Long Island, New York to Rockwell Field on May 3, 1923.

Arguably, the most historic use of DH4B’s occurred on June 26, 1923, when Rockwell Field Army pilots Virgil Hine and Frank W. Seifert made the first successful aerial refueling from their plane to that of fellow pilot’s Lieutenants Lowell H. Smith and John Paul Richter beneath them. The following day, Smith and Richter kept their plane aloft using in-flight refueling for 23 hours and 48 minutes. Two months later, from August 27 to 28, they broke this record when they flew the equivalent of some 1,250 miles over San Diego for 37 hours and 15 minutes. Participating in this historic accomplishment, which established five new world flight records for distance, speed, and duration, were Lieutenants Hine, and Seifert, along with another plane flown by Captain R. G. Irvin and Oliver McNeil, who refueled Smith and Richter during the flight. On October 25, 1923, Smith and Richter, along with Major Arnold, flew 1,250 miles nonstop from the Canadian to the Mexican border, utilizing two in-flight refuelings. These pioneering pilots were the first to demonstrate the efficacy of extending the range of an airplane by mid-air refueling.\(^9\)

Due to funding cutbacks, modern navigational aids, such as on-board radios and radio beacons, were lacking on most military planes. Because of this, pilots, especially during poor weather, were often hard-pressed to reach their destinations. Exacerbating the problem was the lack of auxiliary landing fields and adequate weather reports.\(^10\) Most of the weather information that concerned Major Arnold had been gleaned from second-hand sources or from pilots flying into Rockwell Field. He was deeply concerned over the approaching North Pacific storm that was expected to bring rain as far south as the Tehachapi Mountains and possibly Southern California by late December 8. In fact, he personally followed Webber and Marshall in an SE-5 pursuit plane, turning back over Chollas Heights in East San Diego. No doubt he was extremely apprehensive as he watched Webber and Marshall’s plane disappear into a low cloud bank over the eastern mountains.\(^11\)
Major Arnold’s anxiety would have been fueled by recent events. On two separate occasions, two Rockwell Field planes were overdue flying east toward Yuma. Both had strayed off course into Baja California, Mexico. While the crew of one plane was found and rescued, local fishermen had allegedly murdered and robbed the other. Death or injury were no strangers to Army pilots flying in the line of duty during the 1920s. In 1921, 76 aircraft accidents in the United States caused 137 deaths. Fifty-eight percent of the casualties were military aviators, with over half being Army aviators. The majority of the crashes were caused by engine trouble, stunts, bad weather, or structural defects. However, 15 percent of aeronautical fatalities could not be explained, which suggests either that the planes were never found or that the cause of the crash was indiscernible. With only 900 pilots and observers on active duty, there were proportionally more deaths among Air Service officers when compared to land army units. While it offered additional pay and the thrill of flying, the Air Service’s chief drawback, as quoted by a contemporary pilot/ writer in 1923, was “its uncomfortable brevity.”

When Webber failed to report in the following morning, Major Arnold ordered telegrams to be dispatched to fields along the route in order to investigate the plane’s whereabouts. As soon as the return telegrams proved negative, he immediately organized and started a search and rescue effort. He directed Aerial Forestry Patrol commander Captain Lowell H. Smith to initiate an air search from Rockwell Field. One of the foremost cross-country fliers in the Air Service, Smith led a flight of three DeHavilands in search of the missing military officers. Captain Smith, with First Lieutenant Frank Seifert as his observer, flew directly to Tucson, then worked his way back westward over established air routes. Captain William Randolph and Webber’s best friend, First Lieutenant John P. Richter, began their search eastward from El Centro. First Lieutenant John McCulloch, Rockwell Field’s former adjutant, had been recalled from his leave of absence to pilot the third plane, with Lieutenant Virgil Hine. McCulloch and Hine reconnoitered the terrain eastward from Yuma to a point midway to Tucson.

Reaction from Army headquarters in Washington was swift. The war department issued instructions that “the search for Colonel Marshall and Lieutenant Webber be [conducted] with every facility at the command of the government in an effort to clear up as rapidly as possible the mystery surrounding the fate of the two officers.” Army Chief of Staff, General John J. “Blackjack” Pershing personally ordered that other air units be made available. From Fort Bliss, Texas, Major L. G. Hefferman, commanding officer of the Twelfth Observation Squadron, led a flight of five DeHaviland planes for Tucson, which would serve as one of the search’s interim base of operations. Despite years of interservice rivalry, the U.S. Navy lent a hand. Captain Albert Marshall, commander of the Pacific air fleet, transferred four naval aircraft from the North Island Naval Air Station over to Major Arnold’s command. This was not the first time both commands cooperated in a search for missing aircraft. A combined squadron of Army and Navy airplanes out of North Island had participated during the previously mentioned searches in Mexico. Major Arnold directed the naval aircraft to search the mountains between Indian Wells and Warner Springs, after which they were to proceed eastward to El Centro, and join the search with the Army planes.

Concerned for the aviators’ welfare, and no doubt smelling a story, the San Diego Union had wired a telegram to the Western Union operator at Nogales,
who soon replied: “No airplane passed or landed here today.” Through the Associated Press network, news of the missing airmen’s plight soon appeared in the Washington Post and New York Times newspapers. Almost as soon as the pilots had been reported overdue, the San Diego Union began publishing unsubstantiated front page reports of unidentified airplane sightings. For example, on December 8, it reported that an “army airplane” was seen flying over Yuma toward Tucson at 11 o’clock in the morning. Two days later, readers learned that the plane was “last sighted at 10 o’clock Thursday passing over Estrella, 50 miles east of Gila Bend, about halfway between Tucson and Yuma.” Major Arnold ordered his pilots to shift their search some 150 miles eastward from San Diego’s mountains and desert to those of Arizona, placing them under Major Hefferman’s immediate command. Flying out of Tucson, nine DH4Bs flew wing abreast along a 10-mile wide line, sweeping southeast over the range of mountains beyond Estrella. While there were small valleys where an airplane could land, it could not do so without wrecking the plane. If Webber and Marshall had survived a forced landing or crash, due to the area’s isolation, there was little chance of their survival if not found within a few days. Because of this, search planes were equipped with emergency rations and water tanks that could be dropped in case a landing could not be made.

Three days after they were reported missing, Lieutenant Webber and Colonel Marshall were the focus of what would become one of the most comprehensive combined air and land search and rescue missions instituted by the United States government at the time. During its peak, between December 12 and 19, forty military and two civilian aircraft, with almost 100 pilots and observers, would fly along the 1,500-mile U.S.-Mexico border region between San Diego, California, and El Paso, Texas. Included were every available flight officer and airplane stationed at Rockwell Field. In addition to the aircraft under Major Hefferman’s command, planes from two aerial attack groups at Brooks and Kelly Fields, San Antonio, Texas, and the Ninety-First Observation Squadron from Crissy Field, San Francisco, took part in the search. Major Arnold dispatched spare parts, spare motors, and other equipment from Rockwell Field to the interim operating base at Camp Stephen Little, near Nogales. This way, if any search plane was forced to land or crash, as several would, reserve airplanes would rush replacement parts to the site in order to repair the plane.

Without any solid leads, the search was often directed by rumor. On December 10, when word reached Major Hefferman that an army airplane had passed over Tacna, Arizona in a southeasterly direction, he ordered the searchers to shift their operations almost 100 miles westward from Estrella. Following a motorist’s report, sheriff’s deputies searched the highway between Bisbee, Arizona, and Rodeo, New Mexico, in search of “two men dressed in army uniform, answering the aviators’ descriptions.” Reports that an airplane was seen passing over Ruby and San Miguel, Arizona, precipitated a flight of five aircraft to search the area from Tucson to Nogales on the Mexican border.

On December 11 the search for Webber and Marshall elevated into a bi-national humanitarian search and rescue mission. Upon hearing the possibility that the missing aviators might have flown and possibly crashed south of the border, Mexican president Alvaro Obregón had permitted U.S. military planes to expand their search over Baja California and Sonora. In a telegram sent to U.S. authorities, President Obregón stated:
I have just learned with sincere regret of the possible accident suffered by Col. Francis Marshall and Lieutenant Charles L. Webber. Acting in my official capacity as executive, permission is granted for you to search for these aviators and both the civil and military authorities in Sonora have been directed to try to find them and to render them every assistance and conduct them to the International Boundary.24

Besides allowing U.S. planes to fly in Mexican air space, President Obregón ordered his country’s Rurales (federal rural police force) to coordinate their efforts on the ground.25

Flying out of Nogales, Captain R. G. Ervin led a four-plane squadron some 80 miles south to Magdalena, Sonora, then turned west for a distance of 60 miles before returning; he entered the United States near Ruby, west of Nogales. Flying low in a wing-abreast pattern, the planes, according to Captain Ervin, “grid-ironed a wide area.”26 On December 16, Major Theodore C. Macauley, a noted transcontinental flier, took off from Rockwell Field to Calexico, where he began a seven-day search of the vast tule fields extending from the Cocopah Mountains south to La Bomba. Major Macauley was following an unsubstantiated report to Rockwell Field that Lieutenant Webber’s plane had been sighted near La Bomba, a small town on the edge of the tule fields.27

By December 17, the search for Webber and Marshall had evolved into the largest combined air and ground search in U.S. military history during peacetime. The search area encompassed the mountainous and desert region from San Diego to a point east of Nogales, Arizona. Besides including every available flight officer and airplane from military flying fields throughout the southwest, there was a large contingent of eyes on the ground. Arizona Governor Thomas E. Campbell had called out Indian runners from local reservations along with county deputy sheriffs and the Arizona National Guard. From Fort Huachuca and other army bases, approximately 300 mounted and foot soldiers, among them elements of the famed “Buffalo Soldiers” of the Tenth Cavalry28 and Twenty-Fifth Infantry regiments, to search the rugged mountain region between Nogales and San Miguel. The First Battalion, Twenty-Fifth Infantry, sent patrols out from Douglas, Arizona, its interim base of operations.29

After twelve days of searching, the military authorities reluctantly abandoned all hope that the army officers would be found alive. By December 18, the mission shifted to a search and recovery mission. While forces continued to search on the ground, the pilots were ordered back to their respective bases. Captain Ervin explained that, “We have made flights into Lower California, northern Sonora, and along the entire air route leading to Tucson without obtaining any information that would throw any light on the disappearance.” “We,” he continued, “do not know, in fact, that they got safe across the mountains.” There was a strong belief among the officers that Webber and Marshall’s plane had gone down in a remote area and they were either killed outright in a crash or perished by their injuries or lack of food and water. If that were true, it might be months or years before someone stumbled across their wrecked plane.30

The following day, however, the search’s focus shifted back to San Diego’s mountainous backcountry. Ever since Webber and Marshall’s plane was first
reported overdue, reports continued to reach Major Arnold from persons sighting a low flying plane with a misfiring engine over the Cuyamaca Mountains. The most intriguing reports came on December 11 and 16, respectively. On the former, J. B. Merritt reported that he had seen a “military plane sweep out of a thick fog bank about noon [on December 7] and thence head to the southeast.” On the latter, J. J. Dorey, manager of the Oak Grove Store at Descanso said that Russell Alexander, a local cowboy, entered his store. Because he had been in country for over a week, he was hungry for news. When Dorey told him about the missing aviators, Alexander claimed that he had seen an airplane on the afternoon of December 7, between 1 and 2 p.m., flying over Green Valley north toward the Cuyamaca Ranch. He specifically remembered that the plane’s engine “seemed to be working badly and the airplane was flying at such a low altitude it would have been impossible, in his judgment, for it to have gone over the Laguna Mountains safely.” Major Macauley had flown over Green Valley and the Lagunas enroute to Calexico on December 17, but reported sighting nothing that would indicate that Webber and Marshall had crashed in that vicinity.

On December 20, Major Arnold sent fifteen planes from Rockwell Field on a flight northeast to Banning, Riverside County. Here they would turn south and search the mountains northwest of Palm Springs down six miles past the Mexican border before turning west back to San Diego. The following morning he sent thirty-five men from Troop F of the Eleventh Cavalry at Camp Hearn on a 10-day march to join the search for the missing aviators. Ironically, among the last soldiers that had seen Colonel Marshall alive, they were now involved in finding his remains. Under Major Arnold’s direction, the troopers rode east along the border to Dulzura, where half of them continued on to Jacumba. From the west and east ends of this base line, they searched the Jacumba and Cuyamaca mountains along a triangular pattern north to Santa Ysabel. The leader of the troop, a Captain Heron, said that, although eyewitnesses at Viejas, Descanso, Guatay, and Morena Dam reported seeing a plane fly overhead on December 7, “no new clues had been received to divert the search again to San Diego County territory, but that the cavalry would be employed as a final resort.” Assisting the Eleventh Cavalry was a complement of military officers and federal forest rangers on foot and in automobiles.

On the same day that the Eleventh Cavalry troopers headed east, an officer acting for the Ninth Corps Area’s Inspector General paid a visit to Major Arnold at Rockwell Field. His mission was to make a general inquiry regarding the circumstances of Webber and Marshall’s disappearance. It would take at least two weeks for the Inspector General to interview Arnold and the pilots involved in the search, and to review correspondence related to the search before he could finish his report.

While other soldiers celebrated Christmas, the Tenth and Eleventh Cavalry troopers continued their search for Colonel Francis C. Marshall and Lieutenant Charles L. Webber’s remains. Although the air search had been called off days ago, the latter’s wingman, Lieutenant John P. Richter, refused to believe that his friend was lost forever. For about a week, Richter made daily reconnaissance flights out of Nogales. Although acting without orders, the War Department permitted him to continue his quest. On December 29, Major Arnold sent Lieutenant Richter, Captain William Randolph, and two naval DeHavilands to Yuma where they
would divide and continue south following the Colorado River to the Gulf of California. Afterwards they would explore the desert region of northern Sonora.36

Sometime prior to New Years Day, Lieutenant Charles L. Webber’s brother officers and relatives of Colonel Marshall subscribed a $700 reward for information leading to the recovery of the bodies. Both groups were experiencing a deep sense of loss. Colonel Marshall and Lieutenant Webber’s families would never feel a sense of closure until the remains of their loved ones were found and returned for proper burial. Men like Major Arnold, Lieutenants Richter, Hine, and Siefert, and even those who didn’t know Lieutenant Webber or Colonel Marshall were willing to put their own lives on the line doing everything they could to follow the time-honored military dictum to “Leave no man behind.”37

On January 6, 1923, the Ninth Corps area inspector released his report. In it he stated that Major Arnold had not violated any military regulations in requesting or authorizing Webber and Marshall’s flight. Lieutenant Webber, according to the report, was competent and qualified to fly the plane, which was suitably equipped and serviced. Despite his concern over the weather and the previous loss of pilots flying over the intended route, Major Arnold, according to the report, did not show any negligence or dereliction of duty.38

Five days later, on January 11, Major Arnold asked for and received permission to send an automobile search party to trace Webber and Marshall’s flight on the ground “step by step” from San Diego to Nogales, “until either the airplane was found or its whereabouts located.” Between January 15 and February 23, 1923, Major Macauley led the team of Lieutenants Richter, Hine and three others across primitive roads searching for clues to the aviators’ whereabouts. Along the way Major Macauley and his men interviewed at least twenty-nine “eye witnesses,” each one “positive that they had actually seen the Marshall-Webber plane on the morning of December 7th.”39

On January 16, Major Arnold faced a Board of Inquiry into the possible scenario behind Webber and Marshall’s apparent crash. He explained that he believed that Lieutenant Webber had turned southeast at Descanso in order to steer around a heavy cloud cover over the Cuyamaca and Laguna mountains. Finding a hole in the clouds over Campo, he continued eastward and was seen over the town of Seeley in Imperial County, before traveling eastward to the Colorado River. Somewhere east of Yuma, Arizona, possible engine trouble caused him to make a forced landing in rough terrain. The landing may have been hard enough to rupture the plane’s fuel tank. The resulting fire killed Webber and his passenger.40

On February 12, 1923, Secretary of War John W. Weeks, acting on the Adjutant General’s February ninth report of the incident, announced that “the name of Colonel Francis C. Marshall, veteran of the World War, Sioux Indian Campaign, the China relief expedition and the Philippine insurrection, had been dropped from the rolls of the army.” This meant that the War Department had officially abandoned all hope of ever finding him alive. As far as they were concerned, “despite the most vigorously prosecuted and extensive search of its kind yet attempted by United States forces, the disappearance of Colonel Marshall and Lieutenant Webber will remain one of the unsolved mysteries of aviation history.”41

Three months later, though, on Saturday, May 4, 1923, local rancher George W. McCain and a companion came upon a grisly sight while riding on horseback along Japacha Ridge. On the ground sloping eastward toward the Japacha Creek
drainage was a large 12-cylinder engine laying on its side amid a jumble of twisted metal that looked like it belonged to an airplane fuselage. There were several sections of doped canvas wings bearing the red, white and blue star and circle of the Army Air Service. Amongst the wreckage, next to the battered engine, were two piles of charred bones. McCain noticed two tall pine trees about 200 yards from the crash site, the tops of which had been broken off. He speculated that the airplane had hit the trees, damaging its controls and forcing it to crash and explode on contact. He believed that both men had been killed instantly. Carrying a piece of burnt canvas bearing a number of undecipherable letters and figures as evidence, McCain immediately rode north to report his findings to Joe Peterson, caretaker at Cuyamaca Lake. Peterson then telephoned Ed Fletcher, director of the Cuyamaca Water Company, to tell him that McCain had discovered the missing aviators’ crash site on the Cuyamaca Mountains. Around 4 p.m. Fletcher telephoned Major Arnold at Rockwell Field, informing him of the news. Quickly organizing a search and recovery party, the major and his men boarded a truck and took the last ferry from Coronado to San Diego. They drove all night, expecting to start their search at first light.

Getting wind of the discovery, shortly before midnight reporters from the San Diego Union left San Diego ahead of Major Arnold. They had arranged to have McCain and others meet them at Descanso and guide them to the crash site. After hiking some three miles through heavy undergrowth through the oak and pine forest, in a thick ground fog, they all became hopelessly lost. Deciding to make camp around 1 a.m., they waited for daybreak to continue their search. When McCain and his party finally reached the crash site, he requested that nobody touch anything, but “to leave things just as he had found them until the arrival of the Rockwell Field forces.” The San Diego Union later reported that “the order was complied with the big majority,” which would suggest that the minority engaged
in some looting.\textsuperscript{43}

When Major Arnold, Major Macauley, Captain Ervin, Lieutenants Hine and Richter, and six enlisted men finally reached the area, they investigated the crash site and conducted an informal inquiry to determine the cause of the crash. According to a May 14 \textit{San Diego Union} reporter's statement, Colonel Marshall and Lieutenant Webber's remains contained broken leg bones and crushed skulls. Next to one of the charred skeletons lay uniform buttons and three fire-blackened silver dollars that may have been in a pocket. Nearby was a blackened thermos bottle, along with a safety razor, army service pistol and cap, and a bolo knife.\textsuperscript{44}

Major Arnold, with Richter and Hine, identified the bolo and pistol, along with a cap and watch, as belonging to Lieutenant Webber. Likewise, they found Colonel Marshall's eyeglasses and West Point Class of 1890 ring near his remains. After photographing the site, the two parties reconnoitered some 1,500 yards along the mountain slope. They located and identified scattered wreckage. Using the evidence contained at the crash site, along with the previous reports, an informal Board of Inquiry held at the crash site speculated that the following events had led to the crash.

A U.S. forest ranger had seen Lieutenant Webber's DH4B fly over the Viejas Indian Reservation near the town of Alpine some 15 minutes after its takeoff from Rockwell Field. Five minutes later, his District Supervisor, a former employee at March Field near Riverside, identified the plane as a DeHaviland biplane flying low toward the Descanso Ranger Station, which it flew over at 10:00 a.m. Because of a thick ground fog, the operator of the Descanso Store could only hear what he perceived to be a low flying airplane over the store. One informant, a motorist, said he thought he was being followed by a motorcycle, and pulled off the road to give it the right of way, only to hear the roar of a motor pass overhead. A local rancher did report seeing an airplane circling over the northern end of Horse Thief Canyon. While it appeared as if the plane's pilot was trying to get his bearings, thickening ground fog prevented the rancher from seeing which direction the pilot took. Another rancher east of Descanso at Guatay reported seeing an airplane banking sharply northward in a successful attempt to avoid hitting the 4,885-foot Guatay Peak.

From this point, the flight's final moments are based on speculation. Webber may have decided that, after narrowly missing Guatay Peak, heavy ground fog and a low cloud cover would prevent him from recognizing landmarks along the prescribed route from San Diego to Yuma. Traveling in a northerly direction through Descanso Creek and Green Valley, he could fly along the relatively safe route north from Descanso along Lake Cuyamaca Road (today's State Route 79). After gaining enough altitude, Webber would then veer toward the west and double back to return safely to Rockwell Field. It would only have taken him three minutes to reach the Japacha ridgeline. While he may have cleared the 4,781-4,800-foot ridgeline, low clouds may have obscured the tree tops, which he was approaching rapidly. Webber, who was a conservative and conscientious pilot, did everything within his power to avoid crashing into the trees. Perhaps a misfiring engine just did not have enough power to pull the plane high enough to clear the tree tops, which tore off the airplane's tail rudder and elevator. Losing control, the plane crashed down through the trees at about 125 mph, before smashing headlong into the ground. If lucky, the impact would have either killed or rendered Webber
and Marshall unconscious before fuel from the ruptured fuel tank spilled over the hot exhaust manifold and pipes, turning the DH4B into a “flaming coffin.”

The informal board of inquiry then tried to explain why neither the pilots from Rockwell Field nor the Eleventh Cavalry troopers and others on the ground could find the wreckage. They quickly deduced that hidden under a screen of branches, the scattered wreckage would have been nearly impossible to see from the air. Adding to this were poor weather conditions, which included ground fog and a low cloud cover with heavy rain, which also kept the fire from spreading over a wider area. As the temperature dropped, an ensuing blanket of snow may have further obscured the wreckage from both air and ground observers. Located in an isolated area, it was pure luck that McCain “solved the problem and shed light upon a mystery which,” according to the San Diego Union, “attracted the attention of the whole world.”

Whether or not the local paper was reporting fact or hyperbole, the discovery of the wreck and the aviators’ remains had a profound effect on Major Arnold and his men. After concluding their inquiry, they reverently removed Lieutenant Webber and Colonel Marshall’s remains, along with their personal belongings and some of the wreckage down the mountain to a waiting truck. Upon reaching San Diego, Captain Lewis M. Field, a doctor in the Army Medical Corps, examined the shattered skeletons, determining that both men had died on impact. The remains were then taken to the Johnson-Saum undertaking establishment for preparation prior to their placement in coffins. On May 15, at 7:00 a.m., a horse-drawn caisson carried Lieutenant Webber’s flag-draped casket from the funeral home to the San Diego Union Depot. Leading the caisson was the Fifty-Sixth Brigade Marine Band playing a funeral march, accompanied by Webber’s brother officers and a detachment of civilian workers from Rockwell Field. Once aboard the waiting train, Lieutenant Richter accompanied his friend to his parents’ home in Denver, Colorado. When informed that his son would be returning home, the Reverend S. A. Webber declared that, “It is a great relief to me to know that his body has been found. The days since he was reported missing have been filled with great suspense for his mother and myself.”

During the subsequent funeral ceremony, Lieutenant Richter eulogized his friend by saying that:

> In the hazardous service in which he [Webber] served, he was a leader, and his sound judgment and conservative flying were demonstrated even in his last great flight, when we found that everything had been done by him the instant before his death to save his passenger and plane.

Next to Lieutenant Webber’s grave was a floral spray bearing the Air Service insignia and the last line of Richter’s eulogy: “The Service Knows and Will Remember.” Colonel Marshall’s remains were held in San Diego until his widow notified Major Arnold as to her wishes where to bury her late husband’s remains. The previous February, at a memorial service held at Washington, she had stated that if her husband’s body were ever found, she wanted to have it interred at Arlington National Cemetery. However, something or someone must have changed her mind because Colonel Francis Cutler Marshall was buried with full military
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honors at the U.S. Military Academy at West Point’s Post Cemetery on May 21, 1923.

Such was the loss to his friends and fellow officers that, on Sunday, May 23, 1923, a large contingent of officers and civilian workers from Rockwell Field returned to the crash site. Led by Prentice Vernon Reel, civilian supervisor of the base’s aero repair shop, the men, carrying digging tools and sacks of concrete, hiked up from the nearby road to Japacha Ridge. Here they mixed the concrete and poured it into a rectangular wooden form over the half-buried Liberty engine. While the concrete slab was setting, they placed several small pieces of the wreckage, and a small rectangular bronze plaque that Reel had cast in his machine shop. On the plaque was the legend:

IN MEMORY OF

COL. F.C. MARSHALL

AND

First. LT. C.L.WEBBER

WHO FELL AT THIS SPOT

DEC. 7, 1922

After Reel installed the plaque, the group held a brief memorial service before heading back down the mountain. Major Arnold, along with Reel and Lieutenants Hine, Richter, Siefert and Smith, revisited the crash site a few days later. After removing one of the memorial’s base stones, they inserted a 3-foot metal tube under the cement slab. Within the sealed tube was a list of the officers and enlisted men from Rockwell Field at the time, among these the names of
those actively involved in the search. It also included three copies of the *San Diego Union* that described the search and recovery mission, as well as a copy of a Coronado Masonic Lodge calendar for 1923. Major Arnold sent photographs of the memorial along with a letter to Webber’s father, stating that he and the men had done “everything . . . possible to . . . preserve his [son’s] memory to the present and coming generation, and that affectionate care and thought guided in the little that we were able to accomplish.” He had predicted that, because of its relative isolation, lack of adequate trails (plus the fact that it was on private land), the Airplane Crash Memorial would be seldom visited by the public. While this was true for the next twelve years, the owner of the property, Ralph Dyar, reportedly granted a deed to a small plot surrounding the monument as a sort of protective easement, “so that it may forever stand as a monument to two brave men who gave their lives in the service of their country.”

Due to financial difficulties brought upon by the Great Depression, Dyar sold his ranch to the California Department of Beaches and Parks in 1933. The former Cuyamaca Ranch became Cuyamaca Rancho State Park. The following year, civil engineer Charles Carter stumbled upon the monument while surveying the park’s boundaries. Carter then notified the unit leader of a Civilian Conservation Corps construction camp at Green Valley Falls, which was involved in improving the new park’s infrastructure. The camp was one of many that agreed with state and federal governments to employ companies of out-of-work youth to improve local, state, and federal parks and forests between 1933 and 1942. Much of the work of the “CCC Boys,” including aesthetically pleasing and functional structures, still survives in Cuyamaca Rancho State Park, including a stone custodian (ranger) cottage, fire suppression station, bridge, retaining walls, as well as public picnic and camping facilities at the Paso Picacho and Green Valley areas. One of these construction projects involved the development of a number of hiking and equestrian trails “in order to make life more pleasant for park visitors.”

One of these trails, the Japacha Ridge Trail, led from the newly built Green Valley Falls Picnic Area to the Airplane Wreck Monument site. Because most of the CCC leaders were active or reserve Army personnel, they would have had prior knowledge of the 13-year old crash. However, they had no idea where it was located. They spent several Saturday afternoons searching fruitlessly before Carter had reported its location.

Completed in the summer of 1934, the one and one-half mile “Airplane Monument Trail” hugged the southeastern spur of Japacha Peak before leading up and over “Airplane Ridge,” where it continued northward to the West Mesa Trail junction. At this point it descended northward down to a point overlooking the Japacha Creek where Webber and Marshall had perished. The CCC crews, which at times consisted of segregated African American workers, cleared brush, moved and split large boulders, widened and leveled the trail, and built at least three stone ramparts along the way. At the monument, the workers improved the surrounding landscape by planting shrubs and building stone retaining walls, including steps and a built-in stone bench, to prevent erosion and to make the site “a mountain sanctuary.”

Thirty-four years later, on March 12, 1968, California State Parks again chose to improve the Airplane Crash Monument, which had become a popular hiking destination. Park maintenance workers broke up the concrete slab, exhumed and
mounted the Liberty V-12 engine on a new, stone rubble and concrete platform, and placed the bronze memorial plaque on the low platform's east-facing side. Clearing the rocks around the engine, they discovered a heavy metal tube. Having no idea what the metal tube represented, they took it back to park headquarters and showed it to Park Supervisor Ronald McCullough, who recognized it as something the U.S. Army would use to hold documents. When McCullough, along with Park Ranger Eugene R. Junette, took off the tube's heavy brass top, he found that it had been sealed carefully with wax to keep out air and moisture. Inside they found three well-preserved copies of the *San Diego Union*, along with a 1923 Coronado Masonic Lodge calendar, and a paper listing the names of several officers: Major H. H. Arnold, Major H. D. Munnikhuysen, Captain R. G. Ervin, Captain William M. Randolph, and First Lieutenants Hine, Richter, Seifert, and Smith. McCullough and Junette were able to locate and contact Seifert, the only survivor on the list, who was a retired colonel living in San Diego. Invited to the park, he told the story of the metal tube's significance. Colonel Siefert summed up the tube's contents by saying, "We just wanted [to leave] a permanent record of the officers who had participated in the search, so we put the tube at the foot of the monument as a sentimental memorial to the two men.

Tragically, the tube, along with its historic contents, may be lost forever. Reportedly stored in the basement of the park headquarters building (the historic Ralph Dyar House), it was consumed by the October 26-29, 2003 Cedar Firestorm along with hundreds of other archaeological and historic artifacts. Spreading at a rate of 6,000 acres per hour in its first 36 hours, the fire incinerated Cuyamaca State Park. Burning thousands of acres of trees, brush, and chaparral, and killing untold numbers of wildlife, the fire destroyed a number of historic buildings and structures. Concern for the loss of these irreplaceable resources led the author, in his capacity as a California State Park Historian, to investigate the Airplane Crash Monument's condition. On December 6, 2003, one day before the crash's eighty-first anniversary, the author, after gaining permission from the Park Supervisor, hiked up through the ash-covered trail to the monument. Not knowing what to expect, he half-expected to find a pile of melted metal and shattered rocks. Intense heat could have ignited the engine's aluminum crankcase and manifolds, and shattered its stone retaining walls and cement mortar. Finally, upon descending down the final leg of the trail, he was surprised by what he saw. While the stand of manzanita and pine trees surrounding the site was reduced to blackened sticks, the monument, including the upright engine and the stone retaining walls, was relatively unscathed. Untouched by the fire was a small plant growing under the propeller hub, as well as a metal U.S. flag and plastic flowers that the author had placed next to the memorial plaque one year earlier.

Symbolically, the survival of the flag and flowers, along with the battered and rusting V-12 Liberty engine and discolored bronze plaque, is a fitting tribute. Neither monumental nor imposing, the Airplane Crash Memorial on Japacha Ridge is a simple expression of three generations' honor and respect. First in 1923, then again in 1934 and 1968, they built and improved the monument so that "the present and coming generation" would honor the memory of the two pioneer military aviators who died on this spot while flying outdated machines through treacherous skies over forbidding terrain.
1. Recognized as the “Birthplace of Naval Aviation,” Rockwell Field was the first permanent military aeronautical installation on North Island. Established in January 1913, the United States Army Signal Corps named it after the late Lieutenant Lewis C. Rockwell, who had recently died after a training flight accident. See Elretta Sudsbury, *Jackrabbits to Jets: The History of North Island, San Diego, California* (San Diego: North Island Historical Committee, 1967), 27. In July 15, 1915 students trained at North Island became part of the Army’s First Aero Squadron stationed at Fort Sill, Oklahoma. On March 13, 1916 the squadron was attached to General John J. “Blackjack” Pershing’s command at Columbus, New Mexico, where it flew reconnaissance and courier missions with the American punitive expedition into northern Mexico seeking Mexican rebel leader Francisco “Pancho” Villa. Besides being the first use of fixed-wing aircraft in a military engagement, it tested the Army’s fledgling pilots who had to operate their primitive aircraft under harsh conditions, often flying over inhospitable desert and mountain regions at altitudes beyond their planes’ recommended ceiling. Joe Christy, LeRoy Cook and Alexander T. Wells, *American Aviation: An Illustrated History* (Blue Ridge Summit, PA: Tab Aero, 1994), 19-20.


3. A well-respected, energetic and resourceful field commander, Colonel “Tildy” Marshall was intimately familiar with the American West. His first commission after his 1890 West Point graduation was as a Second Lieutenant, Eighth Cavalry, where he led a detachment of enlisted Sioux scouts during the 1890 Pine Ridge campaign in South Dakota. From 1892 to 1895 Lieutenant Marshall took over command of “Casey’s Scouts,” a troop composed of Cheyenne Indians. Transferred to duty in the Philippines in 1900, his regiment was sent to mainland China as part of the multi-national relief expedition to lift the siege of foreign nationals at Tientsin. First Lieutenant Marshall distinguished himself leading a combined charge of the U.S. Sixth Cavalry and British Bengal Lancers, routing a large number of Chinese nationals and taking over 300 prisoners. After the campaign, he served as Adjutant General of the U.S. forces in China, with the rank of brevet captain. Officially promoted to Captain in 1901, he continued to serve in the Philippines during the army’s attempt to “pacify” intractable native Filipinos opposed to American administration. Returning to the United States in 1904, he was an instructor of Tactics at West Point until 1908. He later served as Inspector/Instructor of Cavalry with the New England National Guard from 1911 to 1914. Once again sent to the Philippines, he was there until the United States entered World War I in April 1917. In command of the One Hundred Sixty-Fifth Field Artillery brigade, American Expeditionary Forces, in June 1918 the newly promoted Brigadier General accompanied his troops to war-torn France. In October-November 1918, Gen. Marshall commanded the Second Brigade, First Division during the Meuse-Argonne operations. As a result of his leadership and bravery, Marshall was awarded the Croix de Guerre with palm, the highest honor the French military could bestow to a foreign officer. Likewise, the U.S. government awarded Marshall the Distinguished Service Medal for “exceptionally meritorious and distinguished service . . . [subsequently contributing] in large measure to the success of his division.” After the November 11 signing of the armistice, he served with the American Army of Occupation in Germany before returning to the United States in 1919. Reduced in rank to Colonel in the peacetime army, he was stationed at various posts along the U.S.-Mexico border until appointed Assistant Chief of Cavalry in 1920. Col. Marshall had flown from Crissy Field, San Francisco, to Monterey before arriving at Rockwell Field. “Colonel Francis Cutler Marshall,” *Fifty-fourth Annual Report of the Association of Graduates of the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York*, June 11, 1923 (Saginaw, MI: Seeman & Peters, 1923), 110-114; “Marshall, Francis Cutler,” *Who’s Who in America*, 1922-1923 (Chicago: Marquis Who’s Who in America, 1923), 12:1836; “Planes Search over Mexican Hills for Lost Army Officers,” *San Diego Union*, December 12, 1922, 1; “Staff Officer Lost in Flight from San Diego,” *San Diego Union*, December 8, 1922, 1.

4. One of the great men in American military aviation history, Major Henry H. “Hap” Arnold (1886-1950) had earned his flight wings from the Wright Brothers in Dayton, Ohio. A daring and innovative pilot, he had narrowly survived some serious crashes and near misses during his early career. In October 1912 he won the first Mackay Trophy for successfully using aerial reconnaissance to locate a
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cavalry troop. Ten years later, Major Arnold would be hard pressed to repeat that scenario searching for the lost aviators. He led a distinguished career in the Air Service, rising to the rank of Commander of the Army Air Forces in World War II. He went on to become the only air commander ever to attain the five-star rank of General of the Armies. General Arnold was personally responsible for building up the Army Air Corps into the U.S. Air Force, a completely separate branch of the United States’ armed forces. Colonel Phillip S. Meilinger, USAF, “Henry H. Arnold,” in American Airpower Biography: A Survey of the Field; Air and Space Power Chronicles http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/airchronicles/cc/arnold.html (accessed March 28, 2006); “Staff Officer Lost in Flight from San Diego,” 1; Howard E. Morin, “Marks to Guide Aviators Needed in Southwest, and Needed Right Away, Government Neglectful,” San Diego Union, December 13, 1922, 1.

5. Based on experience, if Webber and Marshall were forced to land in the rugged area due to bad weather, engine trouble, or a combination of both, their chance of survival and rescue was less than favorable. Major Arnold was also concerned over reports that worsening weather conditions over the mountains would force Webber to fly dangerously lower than his DeHaviland DH4B’s 19,600-foot service ceiling. A low ceiling and ground fog might also prevent him from recognizing familiar landmarks, forcing him off course and well below the Laguna and Cuyamaca mountain ranges’ respective 5,960 to 6,512 foot elevations. “De Haviland DH-4: Air Service Workhorse,” USAF Museum, http://www.wpafb.af.mil/museum/early_years/ey8a.htm (accessed March 28, 2006); Arnold, The History of Rockwell Field, 96, “Shipping Warned of Coming Storm,” San Diego Union, December 6, 1922, 6; “Staff Officer Lost in Flight from San Diego,” 1.

6. From December 1919 to January 1922, Lt. Webber was stationed at Clark Field, the Philippines, where he flew many observation missions as well as regular mail and passenger runs between Manila, Corregidor and Cavite Bay. Upon being reassigned to North Island, he became close friends with fellow airmen Lieutenants Virgil Hine, Frank Siefert, and John Paul Richter. Arnold, History of Rockwell Field, 95, 100; Rodgers, “Charles Leland Webber,” 264-68, 271-73; Frank Kent Rodgers, interview by author, June 10, 2005.


8. Ibid., 54; Rodgers, “Charles Leland Webber,” 276; Rodgers, interview. Regarded as one of America’s greatest technological contributions to World War I, the 820-pound cast aluminum and iron Liberty V-12 engine had a higher horse-power-to-weight ratio than any aircraft engine in use at the time. During and after the war, American automobile companies like Packard, Lincoln, Ford, Marmon, Cadillac and Buick built over 20,478 Liberty 12s. The majority were installed in the DH4s. Following the war, the U.S. Army Air Service continued to use them in numerous types of airplanes. During Prohibition, smugglers installed them in speed boats used for “rum running,” while others found their way into British and Russian tanks during World War II. See also Christy, et. al., American Aviation, 26-28; John H. Lienhard, “Engines of Our Ingenuity No. 1309: The DeHavilland DH-4,” http://www.uh.edu/engines/epi1309.htm (accessed March 28, 2006).


10. Ibid., 54; USAF, Official Pictorial History, 54.


14. Samuel Taylor Moore, quoted in “Sudden Death in the Army Air Service,” Literary Digest, May 12, 1923, 67. Between 1918 and 1922, forty-five planes flying to and from San Diego had crashed or made forced landings. Of these, fifteen aviators were killed. Arnold, History of Rockwell Field, 2, 106.
15. When a pair of DH4Bs soon approached Rockwell Field from the east, Major Arnold and others wondered if one of them was Webber’s plane. Did worsening weather conditions over the mountains force him to return? Did he pick up an escort on the way? Unfortunately, upon landing, neither of the planes was Webber’s. Instead, they were part of an expected squadron commanded by Major Ralph Royce on a flight from Brooks Field, Texas. Royce told Arnold that two planes from his squadron had crashed prior to reaching El Centro, where another had landed for fuel. Royce and his wingman were able to fly directly to Rockwell Field, but they reported extremely strong winds and a heavy cloud cover over the mountains. Arnold, History of Rockwell Field, 106, Rodgers, “Charles Leland Webber,” 275; “Staff Officer Lost in Flight from San Diego,” 1; “Planes Continue San Diego Flight,” San Diego Union, December 6, 1922, 6; “San Diego Rescue Plane Finds Clue,” 1.


21. Arnold, History of Rockwell Field, 105. At the time of the search, Rockwell Field’s command consisted of 10 officers, 2 warrant officers, 42 enlisted men, and 190 civilian employees.

22. Ibid., 107, “Thorough Search Instituted,” 1; Rodgers, “Charles Leland Webber,” 275; “Planes Search over Mexican Hills,” 1; “Lost Army Plane Traced to Desert Mountains,” San Diego Union, December 11, 1922, 1. Two of the five airplanes from San Antonio had made forced landings while en route to El Paso, but none of the occupants were injured.

23. “Lost Army Plane Traced to Desert Mountains,” 1; “Trail of Lost Aviators Found in Southwest,” New York Times, December 14, 1922, 8. Exasperating the search was an increased number of false leads after Fort Bliss’ commandant Brigadier General Howze announced a reward of $100 paid to any civilian who found the lost plane or one or both of its passengers. “Aeros Hunt in Mexico Vainly for Lost Fliers,” Washington Post, December 12, 1922, 2.


25. “Search for Lost Fliers Shifts to Laguna Mountains,” San Diego Union, December 16, 1922, 1. This compassionate act of international cooperation is all the more significant considering that only six years previous, the current Army Chief of Staff had led a punitive expedition into northern Mexico against General Villa.


28. Composed of African-American troopers, the Tenth Cavalry had formed at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas in 1866. By the end of July 1867 the Regiment consisted of eight troops of enlisted men led by white officers, who would distinguish themselves in the late nineteenth-century Indian and the Spanish-American wars. Tenth Cavalry troopers from Fort Huachuca accompanied General Pershing,
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30. “Planes Ordered to Return to Their Stations,” 6; “Search for Lost Fliers Shifts to Laguna Mountains,” 1. The searchers had followed every possible clue, even those given by mediums, in the slim hope that the mystery surrounding the fate of the two missing army officers would be solved. “Resume Search for Lost Fliers,” San Diego Union, December 30, 1922, 6.

31. Located between Descanso and Cuyamaca Lake, west of the Laguna Mountains, it is now part of Cuyamaca Rancho State Park.

32. “Search for Lost Fliers Shifts to Laguna Mountains,” 1; “Mountain Clue to Lost Fliers Fails to Solve Tragic Mystery,” 16.


37. “Relatives, Brother Officers of Airmen Missing Three Weeks Subscribe to Fund,” 6; Rodgers, interview. The tradition of “leave no one behind” may have started during the French and Indian Wars with Colonial Rangers, who, after a fight, were not willing to leave their wounded or dead comrades to be mutilated by the enemy.


40. Ibid.


43. “Bodies of Lost Officers Returned to Rockwell Field,” 1. In a telephone interview with the author on June 10, 2005, Lieutenant Webber’s biographer, Frank Kent Rodgers, confirmed that some “collecting” had occurred at the site prior to Major Arnold’s arrival.

44. “Bodies of Lost Officers Returned to Rockwell Field,” 1.

45. Ibid.; Rodgers, “Lieutenant Charles Leland Webber,” 276-77. The author had inspected the radiator to Webber’s plane that was stored in the basement of the Cuyamaca Rancho State Park’s headquarters’ building. A protruding and ragged semi-circular hole along the steel and copper radiator’s lower
front base suggests that the force of impact drove the plane’s front engine crankcase through it. The historic building containing the radiator and other historic artifacts was itself destroyed by fire during the October 2003 firestorms that devastated the park. At the time that this article was written, the disposition of the radiator is unknown, having been buried under two stories of debris.

46. “Bodies of Lost Officers Returned to Rockwell Field,” 1.
49. “Military Honors Will Be Accorded Dead Officers,” 6; Fifty-fourth Annual Report, 114. Colonel Marshall’s remains are buried at Section 8, site 41.
52. Rodgers, “Lieutenant Charles Leland Webber,” 278; Bill Wright, “Tales and Details,” San Diego Union, March 17, 1934, II-1; Harriett Begemann, Cuyamaca Rancho State Park History [1957], Southern Service Center, California State Parks, San Diego; CCC Photograph Collection, SP14-035, SP14-037, SP14-038, SP14-039, SP14-042, and SP14-044, all February 1934.
55. Another “survivor” of the firestorm is a small hard plastic or ceramic “Smiling Buddha” near the west retaining wall bench. His back was fused to an adjoining manzanita stalk. After finding the metal flag and plastic flowers on the slope below the monument, the author has since replaced them with a cloth flag.
ART IN BALBOA PARK


The San Diego Museum of Art (SDMA) celebrates its 80th anniversary with American Ceramics, 1884–1972, an exhibit showcasing significant works from its collection of American ceramics. SDMA’s founding director, Reginald Poland, acquired many significant pieces from the Arts & Crafts movement and well-known studio potters spanning the years 1884–1972.

Several outstanding San Diego artists are represented in the collection, including Albert R. Valentien and his wife, Anna Marie Bookprinter Valentien, who was an enthusiastic supporter of the Museum. Both had previously been employed by the renowned Rookwood Pottery in Cincinnati. Three Rookwood vases in the early section of the exhibition came to the Museum as a bequest from her estate. Particularly striking is a large vase showing the South American orchid, phragmipendium, rendered against a neutral background and signed by Albert Valentien in 1898. The exhibit also includes some of the glazed earthenware produced by the Valentiens in their pottery on Texas Street at University Avenue between 1911 and 1913.

The exhibit also includes a four-tile mural, dated 1913, inspired by the local Torrey pine tree and produced by California China Products Company. Instead of using pressed ridges, the unidentified decorator outlined the composition with thin, broken lines of colored slip, applied by hand with a squeeze bag.

Works produced by Markham Pottery of National City between 1913 and
1921 have simple profiles and oriental forms. A dark, covered jar with slightly raised, web-like veins, provides an example of reseau ware. A nearby vase with a coarser, more irregular surface, provides an example of an effect described by the decorator as “arabesque.”

Works by Southern California studio potters began entering the collection in 1933. Among the early acquisitions from this era are pieces by Glen Lukens, Gertrud and Otto Natzler, Laura Andreson, and Beatrice Wood. Soon after meeting the Natzlers, Poland invited them to the Museum for their first solo exhibition, and SDMA became the first museum to acquire their works for a permanent collection. Poland also served as a juror for national and regional shows and brought a number of exhibitions in this field to San Diego.

*American Ceramics* also includes outstanding examples from a number of key firms associated with the American Art Pottery movement, such as Rookwood, Newcomb, Grueby, and Van Briggle, as well as from the eccentric Biloxi potter, George E. Ohr. The Pewabic Pottery of Detroit, Michigan, is represented by an important group of six vases that came to the Museum in 1941 as a gift from Mary Chase Perry Stratton, who had been the driving force behind the firm. In a letter to Poland at the time of the donation, Stratton noted, “the pieces sent to you have been made at different periods during the past 25 years and put away as ‘top notchers,’ to be installed someday in distinguished places.” The iridescent glaze used by Pewabic Pottery almost glows, an effect achieved through the use of metal oxides and multiple firings.

*American Ceramics* remains on display through September 3, 2006.
CORRECTION


Owing to an editing error, on p. 49 the author’s phrase “the State College area” was changed to “San Carlos,” the present location of St. Dunstan’s Church. The old St. Paul’s Church was relocated in 1948 to 5198 College Avenue, adjacent to the State College campus. The St. Dunstan’s congregation retained the old building until 1967. It was later moved to Lemon Grove and rededicated in 1970 as St. Philip’s Episcopal Church.

BOOK REVIEWS


Reviewed by Michael J. Gonzalez, Associate Professor of History, University of San Diego.

This volume claims a noble purpose. In 2003, the Zamorano Club of Los Angeles, commemorating its seventy-fifth anniversary, and the Historical Society of Southern California, honoring its one-hundred and twentieth anniversary, published in translation, and in the original Spanish, the eighteenth-century documents concerning the establishment of Los Angeles in what was known as “California Septentrional” — northern or upper California. The twelve documents first appeared in 1931 when the Historical Society of Southern California published a special volume of its journal to note the one-hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Los Angeles’ founding in 1781. Doyce Nunis, the editor of the current version, says that the publication will not go to bookstores. He explains that the Zamorano Club and the Historical Society of Southern California will donate their work to schools and libraries in Los Angeles County and research libraries around the nation. Documents that would otherwise crumble in an archive now sit within easy reach of the public. To help the reader, the volume republishes three essays by historians who supply details the documents do not contain. Thomas Workman Temple II, whose work appeared in the 1931 publication, provides biographical information about the settlers and soldiers who established Los Angeles. Harry Kelsey and Theodore Truetlein, scholars who published in the 1970s, offer other perspectives. Kelsey describes the founding of Los Angeles and says that the settlers arrived in three separate groups. Truetlein, meanwhile, investigates the name the first inhabitants bestowed on Los Angeles (he prefers El Pueblo de la Reina de Los Angeles, The Town of the Queen of the Angels).

The documents, though, are the main attraction. A reader can examine the decrees issued by Felipe de Neve, the governor of Upper and Lower California, and the man assigned by the Spanish Crown to establish Los Angeles. Or the reader can scan the padrones, or rosters, to learn that the first inhabitants of Los Angeles only numbered about forty-four people. Save for one man born in Spain, all the settlers came from Mexico and claimed Indian or African ancestry, a bit of news that may enlighten long-time southern California residents who insist they are descended from “Spanish” colonists. Other interesting tidbits sit in the documents. The Crown offered a stipend to the first inhabitants of Los Angeles. The payments, spread out over a five-year term, often took the form of supplies and fine goods. Thus, a settler could receive, among many items, a saddle, “cotton drawers” (p. 139) or a “bolt of Brittany linen” (p 146). Alcohol, no doubt to the disappointment of thirsty inhabitants, was not part of the stipend.

One wonders, though, if the Zamorano Club and the Historical Society of Southern California could have done more to help the expert and layperson understand the significance of the documents. The volume’s dust jacket declares that unlike the American approach for building communities beyond the
Mississippi, Spain “carefully... planned its settlement policy.” Yet the essays, the most recent of which is nearly thirty years old, say nothing about Spain’s urban designs for the Americas. For instance, Neve’s order to establish Los Angeles, a document, incidentally, for which there is no Spanish original, says that a plaza “200 feet wide by 300 feet long” (p. 157) should mark the center of the city where would sit “the Church...Government Buildings, and other public offices” (p. 160). Two streets would extend from each corner, while two main thoroughfares would shoot out from the western and eastern sides of the plaza. Of course, it would make sense for Neve to convey simple, clear instructions, as soldiers and settlers had little training in cartography or architecture, but would, presumably, have no trouble tracing out the straight lines that comprised the streets and plaza.

Be that as it may, the Spanish, and later Mexican, approach for constructing settlements followed precedents established by the Roman Empire. An orthogonal arrangement of streets and plazas allowed any settlement to grow in an orderly fashion. As Dora Crouch, Daniel Garr, and Alex Mundigo explain in Spanish City Planning in North America, when the town, or city, expanded, it represented the triumph of civilization over a supposedly wild, primitive land. A more current essay discussing Neve’s order would explain why the Spaniards and Mexicans often used the same plan to build settlements throughout what is now the American West.

In the end, any criticism may amount to carping. The essays do their part to convey information and provide some benefit. As for the documents, they are a treasure. Their presentation, worthwhile translation, and historical merit will go a long way to help scholars and students appreciate the origins of Los Angeles. The city, as stated in the foreword, is a “great metropolis” and it has received a treatment equal to its stature.


Reviewed by Richard Griswold del Castillo, Professor, Chicana and Chicano Studies, San Diego State University.

Santa Fe, New Mexico, founded in 1610, is one of the United States’ oldest towns. Many of its Hispanic inhabitants trace their ancestry ten generations back to the early colonists. For almost 400 years, the Hispanos lived in this town and developed a vibrant and resilient culture, one that drew from Spanish, Mexican, Indian, and now Anglo influences. After World War II, Santa Fe became a tourist mecca and its Hispanic culture was marketed as “The City Different.” The influx of tourists and new settlers changed many aspects of the older Hispanic way of life in the city. Lovato, who is a native of Santa Fe, sets out to explore how the cultural commodification of historical capital has transformed and threatened the city’s Hispanic identity.

To answer this question requires Lavato to define the most important aspects of Hispanic identity. He does this by providing a good overview of New Mexico’s and Santa Fe’s Spanish and Mexican history and then transitioning into a contemporary social analysis of the elements of Hispanic identity in the city. In
surveys he finds that the Catholic religion, food, family togetherness, and language are vital in defining identity for Hispanic residents of Santa Fe. A key event that brings all this together is the annual *Fiesta de Santa Fe*, a multi-day celebration, procession, and commemoration of the Spanish reconquest of the city in 1693. Lovato does a wonderful job of historicizing the *Fiesta*, showing how its meaning changed over time while retaining its Hispanic content.

Perhaps the most fascinating part of this book is Lovato’s discussion of Hispanic art and cultural identity in Santa Fe. A central paradox is that Hispanic cultural and artistic identity is essential to the charm and appeal of Santa Fe, yet Hispanic artists are marginalized and excluded from controlling the sale and display of their work. Spanish Market, an annual sale of local traditional Hispanic arts and crafts is controlled by non-Hispanics. All of the fine arts galleries along Canyon Road are owned by non-Hispanics. Contemporary Hispanic artists have to fight to get their work taken seriously when they produce something other than traditional santos, which are often seen as quaintly folkloric.

Lovato gives us a behind-the-scenes view of the contest for control of local culture in Santa Fe. This is a serious struggle since tourist visitation to Santa Fe depends on the “authenticity” of the historic culture. It turns out that Hispanics are seriously threatened by the influx of new settlers who have raised real estate prices and transformed cultural places into tourist attractions. Hispanic identity is changing, but it is an open question whether it will survive the success of its cultural appeal.

Lovato’s analysis is relevant to San Diego where commercialization has triumphed over authentic culture, especially in the case of Old Town. This historic center, once a neighborhood for Mexican families, is no longer home to a living culture. Like Santa Fe’s Plaza, Old Town has been so marketed to tourists that native residents (Old Town’s families) feel like foreigners. Mexican Americans in San Diego no longer consider Old Town as their place, tied to their cultural identity. Hopefully the Hispanics of Santa Fe will not suffer the same fate.


Reviewed by Theodore A. Strathman, Lecturer, Department of History, University of San Diego.

The subtitle of Andrew Isenberg’s fascinating study of California industry in the nineteenth century is perhaps more illuminating than the title itself, for the idea of ecology is critical in this book. Borrowing from ecologists’ observations about linkages within the natural world, Isenberg investigates the interrelationships among economic activities, human communities, and the state’s non-human environments.

In lively prose, Isenberg argues that industrial production was central to the economic and social experience of nineteenth-century California. Extractive industries like hydraulic mining and logging developed before large-scale agriculture in the state, and thus Isenberg contends that California fits poorly into the trajectory of western development posited by historian Frederick Jackson
Book Reviews

Turner. These industries and affiliated activities like urbanization and commercial ranching depended on entrepreneurs’ ability to utilize natural resources in a way that overcame the shortage of capital and labor that characterized California. In converting natural resources into saleable commodities, miners, loggers, and ranchers triggered transformations that transcended local landscapes. Thus the debris from hydraulic mining operations in the Sierra foothills, for example, raised the level of river beds in the Central Valley and contributed to floods that devastated Sacramento in the 1860s and 1870s.

Isenberg constructs his argument in two parts. In the first, he examines three economic activities in nineteenth-century California: hydraulic mining, city-building in Sacramento, and logging in the state’s redwood forests. In each of these arenas, Isenberg maintains, entrepreneurs attempted to impose order on a seemingly chaotic environment. For instance, the creation of a network of dams, flumes, and reservoirs in the Sierra foothills replaced an unpredictable hydrology with regularized water sources that would allow for hydraulic mining on a year-round basis. According to Isenberg, this ordered environment not only replaced the simple technology of the individual prospector with more expensive and sophisticated machines, it also removed the unpredictability which had made investors wary of risking capital in California’s gold fields. In this part of the book, Isenberg argues that California industry, far from the chaotic and wasteful exercise portrayed by some historians, was actually characterized by entrepreneurs’ efforts to impose order on the landscape to obtain regular profits.

The second part of the book focuses more on the social implications of the economic and environmental transformations associated with the gold rush and its attendant industries. Isenberg examines here two populations in opposite corners of the state: the Mexican rancheros of southern California and the Modoc Indians of northernmost California. The central argument of this portion of the book is that the social costs of the new economic order weighed heaviest on the Californios and Indians. Both the Modocs and the rancheros attempted to integrate elements of the new order into their “resource strategies” (p. 101). Confronted with an Anglo-American presence that brought with it disease, denudation of native grasses, and disruption of traditional trading networks, Modocs integrated wage labor (as ranch hands, domestic servants, and prostitutes) into their traditional economic activities of hunting, fishing, and gathering. Isenberg argues that the erosion of the Indians’ resource base was at the heart of the Modoc War of 1872-1873.

In its thematic and geographic scope, Isenberg’s book is quite ambitious, and on the whole, the author succeeds admirably in his task of analyzing the environmental and social implications of industrial development in California. However, Isenberg’s wide-ranging approach points to a number of unanswered questions. For instance, Isenberg does quite well to explore the implications of economic development for Indians and rancheros who found themselves on the “opposite side” of the industrial frontier (p. 101). Nevertheless, apart from a brief acknowledgment of how hydraulic mining limited the opportunities open to individual miners, the reader is left to wonder about how erstwhile forty-niners coped with a dramatically altered economic landscape.

Furthermore, a few of the book’s claims about human motives for transforming California’s environments might be more thoroughly documented. For example, Isenberg argues that Sacramento’s civic officials built levees not simply to protect
the city from inundation but as a way to legitimate their political authority at a
time of crisis. While Isenberg illustrates effectively the “crisis of legitimacy” that
followed an epidemic in Sacramento, there is little direct evidence to indicate that
city officials specifically designed their program of levee building as a way to
bolster support for the municipal government (p. 67).

These reservations aside, Isenberg’s book is an important contribution to
ongoing historiographic discussions about the implications of the gold rush and
the economic development of California. While those familiar with California
history may recognize some of the events described by Isenberg, the brilliance of
Mining California is the author’s ability to expose the linkages among the book’s
disparate thematic areas.

_Spirit and Creator: The Mysterious Man Behind Lindbergh’s Flight to Paris._ By Nova
and index. 185 pp. $39.95 cloth.

Reviewed by Kevin M. Brady, Department of History, Texas Christian
University.

In May 1927, Charles A. Lindbergh made aviation history by flying across the
Atlantic Ocean aboard his _Spirit of St. Louis_. Lindbergh’s transatlantic flight made
him one of the most famous men in history, but limited information exists about
the aeronautical engineer who designed the aircraft that carried Lindbergh to
Paris, France. In _Spirit and Creator: The Mysterious Man Behind Lindbergh’s Flight
to Paris_, Nova Hall discusses the life of Donald Albert Hall, whose hard work,
integrity, teamwork, and dedication made the _Spirit of St. Louis_ a reality.

On December 7, 1898, Hall was born in Brooklyn, New York. Growing up, he
developed an interest in photography, science, and new inventions. Initially, Hall
wanted to become a designer in the automotive industry, so he enrolled in the
School of Engineering at the Pratt Institute School of Science and Technology. In
1919, he received a certificate in mechanical engineering from the Pratt Institute
and accepted a position as junior draftsman at the Curtiss Aeroplane & Motor
Corporation. In 1924, Hall joined the workforce at the Douglas Aircraft Company
as an aerodynamic engineer. During his tenure with the company, he gained
valuable experience designing long-range aircraft. Wanting to learn about aircraft
designs from a pilot’s perspective, Hall took a leave of absence from the company
to register with the Army Air Corps. While he did not become a pilot, he acquired
the necessary knowledge on how to develop an airplane for pilots.

Meanwhile, Ryan Airlines offered Hall a chance to serve as a freelance engineer
for the company. He willingly accepted the opportunity because it enabled him
to work on experimental aircrafts. On January 31, 1927, Hall became the new chief
engineer for the company. Three days after he accepted the position, a telegram
arrived at Ryan Airlines inquiring if the company could construct an airplane
capable of flying non-stop between New York and Paris. The aircraft manufacturer
responded by noting that building such a plane was feasible. Lindbergh traveled
to San Diego to determine if the airline company had the ability and resources
to deliver on its promise. Upon meeting Hall, Lindbergh was certain that Ryan
Airlines could design and assemble the aircraft in sixty days.
Collaborating with Lindbergh, Hall constructed an aircraft that incorporated a single Wright Whirlwind J-5C engine, Ryan M-2 tail surfaces and wing rib, Earth Inductor compass, and two side windows. Additionally, he agreed to place the fuel tank in front of the cockpit instead of behind it for safety reasons. After investing hundreds of engineering hours on the aircraft, the workforce at Ryan Airlines completed the *Spirit of St. Louis* on April 27, 1927.

Following Lindbergh's historic flight in May 1927, Hall quickly slipped away from the media spotlight. He turned his attention to designing new experimental airplanes, and, in 1932, he established the Hall Aeronautical Research & Development Company. However, the Great Depression forced him to close his business, and he accepted a position with the Consolidated Aircraft Corporation. Hall concluded his career as head of the Navy’s helicopter branch at North Island, San Diego. In 1967, Hall participated in the 40th Anniversary celebration of the *Spirit of St. Louis.* The following year, he passed away. Friends and family members remembered him more for his strength of character and devotion to his family than his role in the creation of the *Spirit of St. Louis.*

The book is well written and thoroughly researched. The author also includes photographs, newspaper articles, letters, and illustrations that offer readers a unique perspective on how the personnel at Ryan Airlines designed, assembled, and tested the *Spirit of St. Louis* in sixty days. Anyone interested in aviation history would find this work a valuable resource.


Reviewed by Jon A. Mochizuki, Lecturer, Loyola Marymount University.

Of L.A.’s most famous thoroughfare, Robert De Roos once opined in *National Geographic* that “virtually everything that has happened in Los Angeles has happened or is represented on Wilshire.” Kevin Roderick approvingly quotes this observation in his enjoyable and informative book, *Wilshire Boulevard: Grand Concourse of Los Angeles.* “Indeed,” he enthuses, “Wilshire -- at various times promoted as the Fifth Avenue of the West, the Champs-Elysees of the Pacific, the Grand American Avenue, and the Fabulous Boulevard -- serves as “a living museum of local history” (p. 9).

Roderick, a journalist who has written frequently about Los Angeles, and his researcher, J. Eric Lynxwiler, take the reader on an engaging, affectionate tour of Wilshire Boulevard, tracing its gradual development into a “linear city” that stretches from Downtown to the Pacific Ocean. In the process, the authors reinforce De Roos’ observation that Wilshire’s development both spurred and reflected Los Angeles’ rise to prominence as an urban center of national, and international, import.

Artist David Hockney “pedaled the entire length” of Wilshire a day after arriving in Los Angeles. In similar fashion, Roderick runs through his story geographically. He starts with a chapter recounting the creation of the “Wilshire Boulevard Tract” by Henry Gaylord Wilshire, the eccentric “Millionaire Socialist.” From there, Roderick progresses westward, moving through Wilshire Center, to
Park Mile, then on to the Miracle Mile, Beverly Hills, and Westwood and Holmby Hills, finally reaching the Pacific at Santa Monica. This organizing principle is simple and ingenious, allowing the author to present a clear, lucid mini-history of each region along the Boulevard; it also gives the book a larger narrative shape, as Wilshire’s development reflects that of Los Angeles as a whole. The sense of physical movement through the Boulevard marvelously parallels the history of a city whose growth went hand-in-hand with the increasing prominence of the automobile.

Essentially, the book serves as a tribute to the individuals whose vision, ambition and energy contributed to the growth of Wilshire Boulevard. They range from famed silver screen icons Mary Pickford and Douglas Fairbanks, whose move to Beverly Hills made that city a bonafide movie star colony, to the relatively unknown A. W. Ross, the guiding force behind the commercial development of the Miracle Mile. Through luck and pluck (as well as generous infusions of capital), Wilshire became “the Grand Concourse of history and dreams for the city that loves to drive.” Roderick also pays proper homage to architects such as Stiles O. Clements and the father-son team of John and Donald Parkinson, whose magnificent, eclectic buildings aided in giving the Boulevard a heightened air of glamour and prestige.

In a large sense, Wilshire Boulevard is most successful as a visual record. Roderick and Lynxwiler, with the aid of designer Amy Inouye, have provided a treasure trove of wonderfully evocative images. The reader is treated to archival photos of landmarks such as the Brown Derby and Bullock’s Wilshire (including a striking view of the art deco monument under construction). Also included are some delightfully revealing juxtapositions, such as the before-and-after look at the Boulevard’s extension into downtown in the 1920s, in which a small business, Covey’s U-Drive, barely escapes the wrecking ball. “Instead,” Roderick wryly notes, “Covey’s received a prime location on the newly created southeast corner of Wilshire and Figueroa Street” (p. 88). Aside from the baffling lack of any maps of the Boulevard and its location through the city, the book masterfully weaves text and image together to enhance the reader’s enjoyment and understanding.

As a guide through this history, Roderick is a perfectly engaging, well-tempered companion who regularly doles out wonderfully absorbing bits of historic lore. At times, the book is amiable to a fault: occasionally, one wishes that the author would present his material in a more trenchant historical context—not necessarily the vigorous political approach of a Mike Davis (as that would be a different book altogether), but a more incisive analysis in the manner of L.A. architectural experts such as Thomas S. Hines and Alan Hess. (All the above-mentioned authors are cited in the extensive, well-researched bibliography.)

Overall, though, Wilshire Boulevard: Grand Concourse of Los Angeles is an informative, well-researched history that should appeal to scholars and general readers alike.
Lamenting California’s apparent inability in the mid-1800s to provide public support for even a rudimentary institution of higher learning, a speaker at the state’s Constitutional Convention of 1849 ruefully acknowledged, “We are without a dollar belonging to the people, nor can we raise one but by levying taxes, which no population was ever in a worse condition to bear.” Happily, a few years later the fledgling state’s fortunes had improved substantially, to the point where in 1853 Congress elected to contribute 46,000 acres of public lands, the proceeds of the sale of which were to be used to found a public “seminary of learning.” Under the provision of the first Morrill Act, the state legislature went on to establish in 1866 an “Agricultural Mining and Mechanic Arts College.” Shortly thereafter a deal was struck whereby the College agreed to surrender its assets to the state in order to allow a more “complete” university to be created in its stead. The previous Act of 1866 was repealed and new legislation was signed into law on March 23, 1868. It marked the official beginning of the University of California.

From the institution’s proverbial humble beginnings (twelve student graduates—the so-called “Twelve Apostles” —comprised the entire class of 1873), UC evolved into an academic giant of truly gargantuan proportions and enormous influence in academe. Today it encompasses no fewer than ten coordinate campuses, five medical schools and teaching hospitals, three law schools, more than 600 research institutes, centers and programs, 100 libraries, multi-million-dollar budgets, massive endowments, 200,000 students and over 160,000 faculty and staff.

Patricia Pelfrey’s revision of an earlier work authored by Margaret Cheney offers a highly-abbreviated but engaging account of this institutional growth and what it meant to those who made it possible. The original Cheney monograph, it should be noted, was one of a series of publications commissioned for the University’s centennial celebration in 1968. Pelfrey, a research associate at Berkeley’s Center for Studies in Higher Education, has since expanded upon sections of the earlier work and brought the narrative up to the opening years of the present century. It is the story of how UC became, in the words of President Daniel Coit Gilman in 1872, “a group of agencies organized to advance the arts and sciences of every sort, and [a place] to train young men as scholars for all the intellectual callings of life.”

Appreciation for such accounts, however, is by no means universal. In a supplemental bibliography written for inclusion in Frederick Rudolph’s seminal The American College & University (1990), to cite only one case in point, historian John R. Thelin once complained that the genre of “house histories” of colleges and universities had improved but little over the course of time. The institutional history genre, he alleged, had crystallized to the point where an author’s preoccupation with the insular events and internal records of a given school were likely at best to generate “vertical” chronicles, narratives of scant interest.
or relevance beyond the confines of a given campus. From the professional historian’s perspective, he insisted, such histories were bound to be “not especially interesting.”

While Pelfrey’s slim little volume cannot possibly do justice to the full scope of its subject matter, it certainly does not lack for interest or appeal in its own right, Thelin’s rather harsh indictment notwithstanding. A full-bodied historical account of the University of California’s development as a leading institution surely would be a welcome addition to the literature on institutional histories in American higher education—if for no other reason than that the vicissitudes of UC’s historical career since its inception have been mirrored by countless other colleges and universities across the nation, whether the issue has been loyalty oaths, admission criteria, affirmative action, free speech, the women’s movement, student activism or apathy, attacks on shared governance, and so on. It has all happened—sometimes first—at UC. A major virtue of Pelfrey’s Brief History is the skill with which its author has encapsulated many of these events and challenges in her narrative, all the while hinting at what a more ambitious history of greater depth and detail might entail. Meanwhile, until a larger history makes its appearance, the Cheney-Pelfrey monograph can be depended upon to both entertain and instruct.


Reviewed by Lupe García, Doctoral Candidate, Department of History, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Jim Miller has compiled a selection of short fiction, essays, and poems that reveal both the pitfalls and possibilities present in the city of San Diego. The collection also contains photographs and artwork that like the writing itself highlight the diversity of experience among the contributors. Different viewpoints (some of which are inspiring and others of which are thought-provoking and/or powerfully disturbing) reflect the transformations that have taken place in the city and communities of the San Diego region. The title of the book, Sunshine/Noir, alludes precisely to the range of diversity and contradictions found in a city whose identity has all too-often been oversimplified into that of the theme-park metropolis of perpetual sunshine. It must be mentioned, however, that the subtitle is misleading, as many of the selections in the book tend to be from North American authors with North American perspectives. The selection of material from the Tijuana side of the U.S.-Mexico border is minimal, and selections by Latinos are few.

The book is divided into four sections. The first section, “Border Crossings,” speaks to the variety of transgressions—social, political, and geographic—that occur daily in San Diego. The short story written by Jimmy Santiago Baca demonstrates that love and desire (including the desire for the other and the desire for whiteness) can often be a reflection of unequal power dynamics, in this case those created by the political border that separates San Diego from Tijuana. In a different take on the same theme of “border crossings,” the essay by Mark Dery illustrates the different ways in which one may cross borders in San Diego. In
“Loving the Alien: Or, How I Learned to Stop Worrying and Became Californian,” Dery describes his and his family’s adjustment to San Diego after leaving New England, drawing a parallel between his experiences and those of other, more well-known Southern California transplants such as Ray Bradbury and Walt Disney. Dery’s essay points out the physical imprint that transplants to San Diego left on the city during San Diego’s initial real estate boom.

The next section, entitled “Memory and Ash,” reveals a similar nostalgia as that experienced by the transplants in Dery’s essay. The essay by Matthew Bokovoy, for example, evokes a yearning for a long-lost San Diego that is also echoed in the short story by Ed James (in the final section of the book, entitled “Where We Live Now”). Unlike in Dery’s essay, however, the San Diego which Bokovoy and James imagine is one that functioned as the natural environment for groups of residents that have become outcasts in a city continually undergoing a process of transformation. By and large, contributions in this section illustrate the extent to which memory—that all too often unreliable agent of our imagination—redefines the places we inhabit and, when juxtaposed with different versions of our own stories, helps reveal the many layers of our environment. It is in this section as well that Mike Davis presents a short essay that discusses another (albeit modern) signifier of the Southern California city: fire. Davis uses the brushfire outbreaks that sometimes devastate Southern California as a means to discuss the politics behind urbanization in San Diego. Why is it, his essay seems to ask, that in a region with the “luxury” of space, people feel the need to contend with nature in a losing battle for virgin space? With this question, one is brought back to Dery’s recollection of the eastern San Diego border that is now disappearing under the pressures of the real-estate market.

The final two sections of the volume are entitled “Homeland” and “Where We Live Now.” The latter is the longest section of the book and the one in which the full realm of San Diego grit and possibility is most visible. The subject of urban growth, gentrification, and the displacement (or lack of place) of individuals who are large in numbers but without cultural or political capital are some of the subjects addressed by contributors Leilani Clark, Marilyn Chin, and Mario Chacon.

The collection foregrounds the literary culture of San Diego. Although the works vary in their levels of success, *Sunshine/Noir* makes a noteworthy contribution to furthering an understanding of San Diego and its diverse communities. This volume is useful to individuals interested in San Diego history and popular culture as well as urban history in general.
BOOKS RECEIVED


SAN DIEGO HISTORICAL SOCIETY

38th Annual Institute of History

The San Diego Historical Society’s Institute of History encourages research on San Diego subjects of historical significance. Papers pertaining to California, the Southwest, and Baja California are appropriate to submit to the Institute when they involve events or individuals with some relationship to San Diego’s past. Students, non-professional, and professional writers are encouraged to submit papers.

Awards, which include cash prizes, may not be given in a category if no papers of sufficient merit are submitted, as determined by the judges. All papers submitted to the Institute of History will be considered for publication in the Society’s quarterly The Journal of San Diego History.

Deadline for submission of papers
October 15, 2006
Further details to be announced.
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