New Mexico Historical Review

Volume 30 | Number 1 Article 5

1-1-1955

Book Reviews

Arid Domain: The Santa Fe Railway and Its Western Land Grant. By William S. Greever. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1954. Pp. x, 184. Maps, notes, bibliography, appendix and index. $4.00.

Any history of the average western railroad ought to include a considerable treatment of the policies and methods adopted for the disposition of the extensive lands it received in government grants. All lines were anxious to promote settlement along their respective routes to reap the benefits of additional traffic as well as to profit from the lands most of them had been given. Even such a road as the Great Northern, usually regarded as a non-subsidy road, went to great lengths in encouraging settlement along its right of way. With the familiar story of land sales and promotion in mind, Greever's study comes along as an interesting contrast to the normal pattern of development.

Unlike some of the other roads, the Santa Fe gained relatively little from its lands. This was due in part to a lack of promotional zeal as well as to the fact that its lands were far from valuable for the average small farmer. Back in 1866, Congress chartered the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad, which proposed to build from Springfield, Missouri, to the Pacific Ocean. Although it was given the right to earn land from the federal government, it received little in Missouri (already well populated), and none in Indian Territory where the government declined to extinguish Indian titles. After getting as far west as Vinita, I. T., the railroad, in 1876, went bankrupt. It was reorganized as the St. Louis and San Francisco Railroad (generally referred to as the Frisco) and in 1880 formed a partnership with the Atchison, which had already reached Albuquerque, to form a new Atlantic and Pacific. Thus reorganized and strengthened, the road plunged across New Mexico and Arizona. Beset with further difficulties the A. and P. again went bankrupt in 1894; so did the Atchison and Frisco. After another reorganization, the Frisco took the Oklahoma trackage and the Atchison the track from Isleta, N. M., to

Needles, California, whose management it turned over to one of its subsidiaries, the Santa Fe Pacific. It was in Arizona and New Mexico, with over ten million acres of land at its disposal, that the Santa Fe made a reasonable profit from land. Between 1897 and 1952 it netted close to $16,000,000.

In the disposition of its lands the Santa Fe differed from other roads. For example, it made no attempt to interest stockmen outside the grant area to buy or to lease land, but instead urged those on the scene to participate in its use. Little profit was gained, considering the possibilities at hand. For example, the road—to its everlasting credit—refused to engage in, or sanction, the practice so common elsewhere of advertising its offerings as the garden spot of the West to innocents who might be, and elsewhere were, taken in. Instead, it did its best to dispose of an arid domain, as the title of the book calls it, as equitably as possible. No other railroad was confronted by the multiplicity of problems that faced the Santa Fe in its land policies and perhaps none comes off better than that road in the manner with which it mastered the complexities it faced.

Arid Domain is a detailed, tightly written account that was not designed for the pocket-book trade. But its orderly approach, and the introduction of the personalities involved, kept what was necessarily at times a statistical study from becoming dull. The book is certainly a contribution to the general history of railroad building and furnishes at least one refutation to the thesis that the roads gobbled up national resources with a rapacity that characterized the economic exploitation of the undeveloped West.

ROBERT G. ATHEARN

University of Colorado

Yuma Crossing. By Douglas D. Martin, with illustrations by Horace T. Pierce. Albuquerque, New Mexico: The University of New Mexico Press, 1954. Pp. ix, 243. $4.00.

The head of the Department of Journalism at the University of Arizona, also author of *Tombstone's Epitaph,* now has

focused attention upon the historically significant crossing of the Colorado River at Yuma, Arizona. The site of the narrow steel bridge which today links California and Arizona has been the setting for an historical pageant which opened with the Alarcón expedition of 1540 and presented in increasing tempo the dramatic procession of Vasquez de Coronado, Padre Kino, Juan Bautista de Anza, Chief Palma, James O. Pattie, Stephen W. Kearny, the Mormon Battalion, "Don Diego" Jaeger, the Camel Corps, the Butterfield Overland Mail, the California Column, the river traffic, and the Southern Pacific Railway.

In his telling of this eventful story the author has made the reading easy and interesting by employing a journalistic style and choice quotations from documentary sources. He deals skilfully with local history when he relates the story of the struggle of whites and Indians for control of the ferry, the progress of navigation on the Colorado, and the contribution of Jaeger to the development of Arizona. He presents also the panorama of events to the east and west which lead to the crossing, in order to emphasize the significance of the site. In other words, he has streamlined much of the history of the Southwest and brought each episode finally to the crossing. In this venture farther afield the authenticity of interpretation is questionable in some instances, perhaps due to the tendency to place a higher value upon popular jargon than upon accuracy.

Several illustrations of the above could be cited, but one will suffice, from pages 92-93:

> England was trying to close a deal with Mexico for California. This the young United States felt could not be tolerated so we decided to grab the territory and to seize New Mexico at the same time. Our excuse to ourselves and to the world was that New Mexico would not control her nationals, who were constantly raiding American soil on our border, and that she refused to pay for their murders and robberies.
>
> The course of empire was swinging southwest at last, but here neither occupation nor purchase would serve. This must be conquest, so we declared war on Mexico, May 13, 1846.
>
> Americans liked the idea . . . .

This by-passes the complex ramifications of negotiations for purchase, Mexican belligerency, annexation of Texas, and disputed boundary, and worse yet, Mexico declared war first and a host of Americans definitely did not "like the idea." The above quotation also illustrates a tendency which may be annoying to some, and that is the use of "so" as a conjunction several times on each page.

To the credit of the author, however, we may as well concede that that seems to be the way local history has to be written in order to get a book published, and if style will induce more Americans to acquire some acquaintance with the heritage of the Southwest, then a worthy cause has been served.

The publishers may well take pride in the attractive format. Moreover, the illustrations are appropriate and the bibliography is helpful. To the latter can be added now another title, *Yuma Crossing,* filling a gap in the history of Arizona, of which too little has been written to date.

LYNN I. PERRIGO

New Mexico Highlands University

Music in Mexico. By Robert Stevenson. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1952. Pp. xv, 300. $5.00.

In *Music in Mexico* Robert Stevenson for the first time gives us a comprehensive history of Mexican music. Following a chronological pattern the author first presents early aboriginal music. Going back to comments on and accounts of Aztec music by Spanish chroniclers, he notes the little interest of the modern Mexican in his musical heritage until about 1920. Then "Aztec music rather than being decried was being held up for the first time as the worthiest music for Mexican composers to imitate." (p. 6)

Characteristics of the ancient music such as minor quality, modal melodies and two or more rhythms with beats that never exactly correspond become virtues to be emulated. With the spread of the new enthusiasm for the past, Mexican scholars set out to study ancient Indian instruments, to gather

opinions and facts from Sixteenth Century chroniclers and to collect by recordings, melodies preserved by Indians in isolated areas, melodies which have basic elements found in pre-Cortesian systems.

Mr. Stevenson describes the ancient instruments, two-toned xylophones such as the Aztec *teponaztli* which he says was the same as the Maya *tunkul* and the Zapotec *tun,* drums, rasps, rattles; he brings together pertinent points in the accounts of the early Spanish historians, and sets forth in modern notation several melodies of the aborigines. He then summarizes the worth in ancient music which has stimulated the modern Mexican composer.

The discussion continues on the European music carried to Mexico by the Spanish conquerors. Music was used by churchmen to aid them in teaching religion to the conquered Indians and very aptly the Indians demonstrated their musicality. The Spanish padres trained Indian choirs for the church and taught the Indians to copy music thus creating "splendid libraries of church music." (p. 67) Also the Indians were instructed in making European instruments and in turn they adapted their native instruments to the European idiom.

In addition music was printed in Mexico in the Sixteenth Century, and in the 220 odd Mexican imprints of that period there were twelve liturgical books containing music. Mr. Stevenson included in this discussion a very able and painstaking "description of Sixteenth Century Mexican imprints containing music," with the present location of some of them. In the synopsis of polyphonic development the author lists in chronological order the important events of the Sixteenth Century (pp. 83-86). The narrative continues on the development of music for instruments and secular music for the dance.

In the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries many documents for the study of Mexican music have perished. Yet an inventory of Neo-Hispanic polyphonic repertory of the first three centuries of the colonial period is compiled from the copies of compositions as they exist in the cathedrals of Mexico City and Puebla in 1950 (Note 4, p. 166). There follows a

discussion of some of the composers and compositions with reproduction of scores and analyses of the works.

Decline of European vigor as the colonial period closes shows in the music. No really effective schools for instruction made professional musical training most inadequate, and concentration of European population in city centers left the outlying areas to a weakening hybrid culture or to little, if any, European influence. Yet music continues, religious, secular, and folk.

The Nineteenth Century witnessed an intense interest in opera, with Italian opera "the consuming passion." At the end of the colonial period Mexican music was in a depressed state, composers devoted themselves to "journeyman work on theatrical farces" (p. 173), and foreign talent kept Mexican musicians from much recognition.

With political independence Mexico no longer imported instruments by way of Spain and English pianos and foreign organs, which were preferred, came in in greater numbers. Likewise some instruments were manufactured at home. Music such as dance forms became popular with composers and Mexican dances, before avoided, were now preferred to the European types. With the break from Spain, Mexicans adopted the *jarabe* as the dance and song of the revolution.

A large number of operas were written by Mexicans who relied heavily on Italian models. Italian opera seemed in complete dominance. Despite this and other handicaps Mexican performers gradually gained considerable recognition. During the Díaz period the government subsidized musical activities so that by the beginning of the new century Mexico realized the right to govern her own musical life.

With the Twentieth Century a number of outstanding Mexican composers such as Manuel M. Ponce and the best known Mexican contemporary, Carlos Chavez, brought Mexican music into international acclaim. Mr. Stevenson concludes with a discussion of the contributions made by Carlos Chavez, analyzing his musical style and indicating the basis for his essential greatness. Also other contemporaries are briefly presented. The author closes with the statement that "Mexico is a land with a dynamic, living music."

Based upon widely gathered sources and carefully documented, this synthesis of Mexican music integrated into the political and economic development of the country is the best survey written to date. It evidences careful study and exceedingly thoughtful analysis. Folk music, salon music, and popular music are given slight consideration, although the author is quite aware that they exist. He has brought into proper focus for the first time the Neo-Hispanic colonial contributions with enough extracts of compositions to tell something of the style of the composers. An excellent bibliography and complete index further make this volume a welcome addition not only to musical history but also to the entire historical picture of Mexico.

DOROTHY WOODWARD

University of New Mexico

Petroleum in Venezuela: a History. By Edwin Lieuwen. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California, 1954. Pp. 160 (University of California Publications in History, vol. 47) $2.00.

This is a very scholarly book and should be read by all thinking people. The author has a splendid bibliography. The wealth of source materials which the writer had access to makes it authoritative. His conclusions and interpretations clearly show the author's originality and ability. This volume has great national and international significance for it is pertinent to the issues of this epoch.

The early history of petroleum has been given proper emphasis. The old Roman law and the laws of the Indies, along with the decrees of kings, indicate the evolution of policy as regards sub-surface minerals. The first leases were granted before a petroleum policy was formulated because the old Spanish policy only dealt with metals and lands.

As Dr. Lieuwen says: "It is difficult to compare Venezuelan contracts with those of other nations in 1907." The first leases were made before precedents were established. The Castro administration set a legal basis for the exploita-

tion of non-metallic materials. Even if the government of Venezuela was thinking of oil, which it was not, the terms of the contracts were more favorable than those in Mexico where the entire national domain was being alienated. No other country in Latin America produced much oil and in the United States where the surface owner owned the subsoil the government was not involved. Castro was dealing only with asphalt, because the strategic value of oil, prior to 1914, was not realized. He was fumbling for some kind of a policy but despite his liberal contracts he did not make Venezuela a very enticing place for investors, as domestic revolt and international monetary problems discouraged investments. However, a new atmosphere of political stability was created when Gomez came to power in Venezuela. He had a subservient congress, a spy system and an army. He was dictator for twenty-seven years.

Gomez needed revenue so he made liberal leases with the oil companies. The petroleum companies were to begin development of their leases at a specific date. The British and Dutch Shell took the initiative from the United States companies. The British companies acquired choice leases in the Maracaibo region. They exploited petroleum under the liberal laws of 1907 and 1912.

His major aim was to secure income from oil wells, so he disregarded the interests of the nation by making liberal grants to the companies. He permitted the refining of petroleum to go to the Dutch West Indies, and companies to practice their own paternalistic labor policy. He did provide for a fifty percent reduction for oil produced in Venezuela. Shell established a plant in Venezuela in order to take advantage of this proviso. Gomez alone could make contracts. The oil law enacted by Gomez in 1922 was so liberal that Gomez was criticized for giving the nation's resources away. President Wilson and the British statesmen realized the strategic value of oil. Rivalry began between Great Britain and the United States governments as well as the companies. Gomez was shrewd and took advantage of the rivalry.

Markets were found for oil in the United States and in Europe. The dictator Gomez was able to pay both domestic

and foreign debts because petroleum soon dominated Venezuelan economy. Dr. Lieuwen evaluated Gomez policy as follows: "The industry brought about a significant population shift, a foreign immigration and opening of new areas and a nation wide economic transformation. A public works program was initiated but as oil rose in importance agriculture declined. The ever increasing stream of petroleum dollars injected into Venezuelan income stream caused inflation and multiplied real estate values. Venezuela's short depression of 1927 and the prolonged depression of the 1930's were ripples from the disturbing pebbles falling into foreign waters." The companies at first assumed no responsibility for the shock of world events. Labor was kept docile and unorganized. West Indies labor was imported and Venezuela labor flocked to the oil fields. When depression came, prices rose faster than wages and worst of all oil contributed to the establishment of dictatorship, brutal and corrupt. Petroleum dollars went to increase the army. Education, industry and agriculture were ignored. The depression of 1930 stopped expansion and tariff menace loomed from the United States. PETROLEUM DOMINATED VENEZUELAN ECONOMY. The companies claimed that what was good for the companies was good for the nation. The author shows that the testimony of the company representatives clearly indicates that Gomez was friendly to the companies.

As long as Gomez lived opponents were silenced but as soon as he passed away critics asserted that an opulent state and an exhausted people was depressing. There was developing a nationalism which caused the companies to fear that Venezuela would follow the Latin American pattern in so far as natural resources were concerned.

Only a segment of the population enjoyed the income from oil. The author illustrates how the economy of the nation was affected by world currents. He also establishes the fact that Gomez and the army dictators who followed him failed to protect the interests of the nation. The amount of money stolen by Gomez and his friends was tremendous. The state became more and more opulent whereas the people lived in misery. The state developed a one sided economy—a single extractive

industry, very sensitive to world markets. The military dictators made policy but failed to develop a broad social program for human betterment.

The author shows very great ability as well as maturity in the last chapter wherein he interprets the preceding chapters and draws the conclusions. These interpretations and conclusions rest upon the best of evidence. He could not secure all of the government sources, as he stated, but this reviewer thinks that his work is lacking in few respects.

The author found that each year since exploitation of petroleum began oil made up an increasing share of the federal budget and national income. Between 1913 and 1935 Venezuelan exports excluding petroleum declined 40% in volume and 50% in value. Imports exclusive of petroleum doubled in volume and rose three-fifths in value. By 1935 oil constituted 99% of the volume and 80% of the value of Venezuelan exports. Dollars used in purchasing foreign goods came chiefly from oil. By 1935 Venezuela's imports were three times greater than her exports.

Lopez became the economic dictator upon Gomez's death. Political upheavals became non-existent. The new dictator answered only to the demands of the markets in the United States and Europe. If his decisions were harmful to Venezuela's economic life it was a matter of fate. He set up a system of labor inspection and took a direct interest in the protection of the rights of labor. The paternalistic relationships of employer-employee were destroyed. The powers of the company's superintendent were whittled away. His congress of 1936 gave labor the right to organize. This labor law was aimed for oil workers alone for industry and agriculture could not provide health, education, sanitation and housing for the laborers. A determined government forced the companies to give up their traditional labor policies. The companies opposed the union's right to organize. Syndicates were organized and Venezuela had its first strike. Lopez was angered because the strike interfered with his reorganization plans. Production dropped 40% and royalties dropped an equal amount. The paralysis of the nation's chief industry was felt in the entire economy. Lopez considered the strike

against the government so he invoked the labor law and intervened by force and thus ended the strike.

Lopez unlike Gomez felt that it was his duty to invest the income from oil wisely. He realized that his country was basically backward. A diversified economy was his aim. The companies were forced to change their policies and an era of reform started. The critics of Lopez assert that he was not the originator of reforms; that the press, congress and labor forced him to adopt reforms by putting pressure upon him. The companies were still operating under favorable terms. "Sembrar el Petroleo" had few results in reality for agriculture was still prostrate, transportation was lacking and sanitation, housing and education had not been improved. The nation was more dependent upon petroleum than ever. Yet the government had not expropriated petroleum properties.

The army dictators had secured a larger share of petroleum profits. They have invested the income from oil unwisely. The masses of the Venezuelans are still poor, illiterate, unhealthy and live in the most primitive conditions. The economy is still shockingly backward. While tremendous revenues have come from oil, too much goes to the army and bureaucracy. Venezuela has a budget equal to Mexico's with a population only one-fifth as large and she spends more on her foreign service than any Latin American nation. The ruling group have been guilty at times of speculation on a large scale. The nation has become dependent upon a single extractive industry, sensitive to foreign markets. Though the oil companies have become powerful, this does not excuse the army dictators from not investing the income wisely.

T. H. REYNOLDS
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College

A Half Year In The New World. Miscellaneous Sketches of Travel in The United States (1888). By Alexandra Gripenberg. Translated and edited by Ernest J. Moyne. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware Press, 1954. Pp. xv, 216. Index.

This is the first English translation of some lively impressions of late 19th century America, written by a keen-witted and strenuous visitor from Finland. Baroness Gripenberg, of a prominent Swedish-Finnish family, was thirty-one years old at the time of her tour, but already she had established herself as a writer of travel sketches, as a novelist and short-story author, and had served as a newspaper correspondent. By temperament she was a reformer, and especially devoted to woman's rights. It was to attend an international woman's rights convention in Washington, D.C., that she came to the United States; afterward she stayed on to investigate various aspects of American life.

Baroness Gripenberg's itinerary was extensive, yet in some respects it was restricted. She arrived in New York on a frosty morning in March, 1888, then in due course visited Philadelphia, Washington, New England cities, Indianapolis, Chicago, and together with a group of American school teachers undertook a fourteen-day train ride over the Santa Fe route to San Francisco. About one-fourth of her book is on California. Returning from the Pacific Coast to the East, she made a brief stopover at Salt Lake City. Although she mentioned the South several times in her text she did not visit that section. During most of her tour she stayed with educated and well-to-do families. She did not examine closely the living conditions of the native American working class, or otherwise study economic problems in the rapidly growing industrial cities. Agricultural unrest in the West seemed to be of little interest to her.

Many of Baroness Gripenberg's observations, although interesting, were superficial and unreliable. She was, however, too forceful a woman to accept merely the genteel tradition of American watering-places. With a true reporter's bent she sought out what she considered to be the unusual and even the bizarre in American life. In Philadelphia she attended out of curiosity a spiritualist seance; in Chicago she questioned Christian Scientists and delved into the literature of their faith; she interviewed an old abolitionist, Robert Purvis, of antebellum underground railroad fame, and apparently agreed with his extreme opinions on racial equality;

together with Susan B. Anthony she attended the Republican National Convention of 1888; in California she was an interested guest at the sessions of the National Education Association, but also toured the opium dens of the Chinese quarter, witnessed the triumph of American concepts of progress in the sleepy California towns, and tramped many miles through Yosemite. In Salt Lake City she sat with the Mormons on a Sunday morning in the Tabernacle, and swam with them in the Great Salt Lake.

Some of the most fascinating passages are vignettes of prominent Americans with whom she visited: the widow of Ole Bull, then living in the Lowell family home in Cambridge; a social evening with Mark Twain and friends at Hartford; acquaintance with Robert Ingersoll, Harriet Beecher Stowe (then in her clouded years), Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Joaquin Miller, and many others. At times her descriptions of American middle class life are vivid—for example, her sketch of a typical Indianapolis neighborhood on a hot summer's night. Her analysis of the plight of impoverished and wretched Finnish immigrants is thought provoking.

At times Baroness Gripenberg presented opinions which were based upon uncritical reading. As illustrations, she accepted the judgments of Parker Pillsbury, expressed in his *Acts of the Anti-Slavery Apostles*, as an authentic account of the anti-slavery movement. Catherine V. Waite's *Life Among the Mormons* was cited to support her unfriendly bias against that faith. Baroness Gripenberg also revealed little understanding of American government and politics. She assumed that the Fourteenth Amendment was a part of the federal constitution before the Civil War, and that this amendment guaranteed the freedom of all Americans, including Negroes. She asserted that the Republican party in 1861 held that the "common legislature" had the rightful power to force the southern States to abolish slavery. She believed that differences over the Negro were, as late as 1888, the major issue dividing American political parties, and that "Abraham Lincoln, Junior" was being considered for the Republican nomination in that year. At times her knowledge of geography and railroad routes was equally hazy. She spoke of the Coast

Range as the Sierra Nevadas, confused the location of La Junta, Colorado, and Las Vegas, New Mexico, and concluded that the Santa Fe railroad joined the Chicago and Alton at Las Vegas, New Mexico. She atoned for this, however, by writing a number of colorful paragraphs on Las Vegas and Santa Fe.

A final chapter on "The Homes and the Customs of the New World" is interesting for its details on American food, home life, young people, marriage, and similar topics. In this, as all through her book she was perhaps overly generous in her evaluation of American culture. Here she expressed the dubious view that a lack of American art and art criticism was counterbalanced by Americans' good taste in dress. For her, American co-education, the superior position of women relative to other nations, the development of wholesome family life, and a general appearance of neatness, thrift, ambition and industry were fundamental to American greatness.

Professor Moyne has consulted both the published Finnish text (1889) and the Swedish text (1891) in making his readable translation. There are a few editorial annotations, some of which point to errors in the text. A more thorough editorial service of this kind would have added to the value of the work. In his editorial introduction Professor Moyne compares Baroness Gripenberg's account to those of Fredrika Bremer and Peter Kalm, but in this reviewer's opinion it falls somewhat short in such a comparison.

University of New Mexico GEORGE WINSTON SMITH

Commerce of the Prairies. By Josiah Gregg. Edited by Max L. Moorhead. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press. Pp. xxxviii, 469. (American Exploration and Travel)

Gregg's classic of southwestern history retains its value as a prime source of information and never loses its appeal to the person who seeks pleasant and adventurous reading. This reprint will be useful in building private libraries and widening the circle of readers among the general public. It is a care-

ful reproduction of the first edition text with the illustrations and maps, and the addition of Gregg's notes and glossary of Spanish words from the second edition. The pictures, in a few instances, have lost the freshness of the original. Perhaps this is due to the printer's choice of method of production with an eye to cost of printing.

The editor has supplemented Gregg's footnotes with useful annotations of his own, in some instances drawing on knowledge derived from intensive research in Mexican archives. He presents, for instance, the specific information (p. 142) that Gregg brought the first printing press into New Mexico. In general, his notes assume a reader's acquaintance with the history and geography of the region traveled by Gregg, consequently they are not quite so useful for the general reader.

A few of the footnotes require some comment. According to Kendall, the "death march" ended at El Paso, not Chihuahua (p. 7, note 4). Note 5, p. 82, incorrectly implies that Coronado explored as far westward as the Gulf of California. The Pueblo of Zia is located on the Rio Jemes, not the Rio de las Vacas (p. 90, note 20). The characterization of Gertrudes Barcelo (p. 169, note 19) has been modified by Angelico Chavez in *El Palacio,* v. 57, no. 8. On the origin of the name New Mexico, the NEW MEXICO HISTORICAL REVIEW, 23:23, would have been useful. The date for the Parroquia (p. 180, note 5) needs revision; *ibid.*, 24:85. On the Navaho (p. 199, note 4) see *ibid.*, 26:101. And the distances in notes 5 and 7 (p. 193) need reconsideration.

The editor has compiled a bibliography of Gregg's sources, and has added a more lengthy one of his own, revealing significant additional material for students. A lengthy introduction includes a biographical sketch of Gregg and a critical essay on authorship of the book. Professor Moorhead overlooked, however, Howard Dimick's article on Gregg with a discussion of his death. The validity of Wood's article on this point is seriously challenged (*N. M. H. R.*, 22:274).

In the light of intensive checking on Gregg's story, the editor concludes that *"Gregg knew what he was talking about."* That is a valid conclusion.

F.D.R.

Florentine Codex. General History of the Things of New Spain. By Fray Bernardino de Sahagún. Book 8, Kings and Lords. Translated from the Aztec into English, with notes and illustrations by Arthur J. O. Anderson and Charles E. Dibble. Santa Fe, New Mexico: The School of American Research and the University of Utah, 1953. (Monographs of The School of American Research, No. 14)

Publication of the fifth of the twelve books of Fray Bernardino de Sahagún's account of the life of the Aztecs at the time of the Spanish Conquest is an event for many more than those who cannot read the Spanish language version. The intelligent and careful but very readable English translation of Sahagún's Nahuatl version is, as was pointed out in the review of the previous two Books, not the same as the parallel version which Sahagún made in Spanish; sometimes the Spanish text is fuller, sometimes the Nahuatl. And the Nahuatl version has never before had a complete translation; fragmentary versions have appeared in several languages, but nothing on the scale of the present project has ever been carried to completion.

While the present is the fifth of Sahagún's twelve to appear in English, it is not his Book Five. The order chosen has been One, Two, Three, Seven, Eight, apparently because these first issues are believed by the translators to be of the widest interest. Actually, it is almost impossible to choose between the sections on a basis of scientific value, and many will remain impatient until the appearance of the final Book. The issues to date cover, in Sahagún's imprecise titling, The Gods; Ceremonies; Origin of the Gods; Cosmology; and Kings and Lords. The remaining ones are Divination; Prognostication and Astrology; Moral Philosophy; Rights and Duties of Kin, Illness and Treatment, and Races of Anahuac; Flora, Fauna, and Habitat; and The Conquest. Last to appear will be the translators' introduction, with index.

To illustrate the value of having the Nahuatl version available in a European language, one may turn to the fifth chapter of Book Eight. In the Spanish version, speaking of Tula, is this statement: ". . . from the ruin of Tula, until the present year

of 1571, very few less than 1890 years have passed."[1] The Anderson and Dibble translation of the corresponding Nahuatl passage reads: "This was in the year one thousand, one hundred and ten; and from there the count reacheth and endeth at this year, 1565."[2] The Nahuatl version is probably the original one, and the Spanish one may be a translation from it, the section in question possibly dating from as much as six years later. The date given in the Nahuatl version for the fall of Tula has been confirmed by archaeology, which without assigning precise years to such events has come far enough in the study of Tula to place its fall around 1100 A.D. The date of around 300 B.C. in the Spanish version is entirely out of the question.

Book Eight gives us the names, conquests, and dates of rule of the Aztec kings; those of Tlatelolco, Texcoco, Huexotla, and the Chichimeca; an account of the omens which preceded the Spanish arrival in Mexico; and then enumerates at great length the articles of fine apparel which distinguished the great from the humble in Tenochtitlan. The ethnographic content is further enriched by accounts of noble amusements and feasts, of justice, of protocols of war, of choice of rulers and of the training of noble children for it. There is also an account of the market-place which should be of interest to many who are not Mesoamerican specialists nor historians.

JOHN PADDOCK

Mexico City College

1. Fr. Bernardino de Sahagún. *Historia general de las cosas de Nueva España.* Notes, bibliography, index and guide by Miguel Acosta Saignes. Editorial Nueva España, S.A., México, 1946. Three volumes. See Vol. II, p. 48.

2. Anderson, Arthur J. O., and Dibble, Charles E. *Florentine Codex (General History of the Things of New Spain,* by Fray Bernardino de Sahagún), Part IX (Book 8 of the *History*). Monographs of the School of American Research, No. 14, Santa Fe, New Mexico, 1954. See p. 15.

PUBLICATIONS FOR SALE

OLD SANTA FÉ (the quarterly published in 1913-16), 3 volumes unbound. A complete set may still be had at $20.00. The seventh issue is not sold separately; the tenth issue, $5.00; the others, $1.00 each. The Society will pay $5.00 for reasonably clean copies of Vol. II, no. 3.

NEW MEXICO HISTORICAL REVIEW (quarterly, from January 1926)

Vol. I, no. 1, out of print. Nos. 2, 3, 4, each	$2.00
Vol. II, no. 1 (sold only in sets)	$3.00
Vol. II, Nos. 2, 3, 4, each	$1.00
Vols. III to current year, per volume	$4.00
By subscription, during current year	$3.00
COMPREHENSIVE INDEX, Vols. I-XV	$2.00

Papers, Nos. 1 to 38 (1888 to 1935) List of titles sent on request.

ST. FRANCIS AND THE FRANCISCANS IN NEW MEXICO, 44 pp., ill. $1.50

REPRINTS from the HISTORICAL REVIEW, each $0.25

Titles sent on request. Some studies which appeared serially may be had as:

PUBLICATIONS IN HISTORY

Vol. I—Fray Marcos de Niza's *Relación*, Span. and Eng. ed. by Percy M. Baldwin. 59 pp. (1926) $1.00

Vol. II—Juan de Oñate and the Founding of New Mexico, Geo. P. Hammond. 288 pp., maps, bibliog., index. (1927). Out of print.

Vol. III—New Mexico in the Great War, ed. by L. B. Bloom. 166 pp., index. (1927) $1.50

Vol. IV—The Gallegos Relation of the Rodríguez Expedition to New Mexico, ed. by G. P. Hammond and Agapito Rey. 69 pp., maps, index. (1927). Out of print.

Vol. V—Barreiro's *Ojeada sobre Nuevo Mexico* (1832), ed. by L. B. Bloom. 60 pp., ill. (1928) $5.00

Vol. VI—Indian Labor in the Spanish Colonies. Ruth Kerns Barber. 135 pp., bibliog., index. (1932) $1.50

Vol. VII—Church and State in New Mexico, 1610-1650. France V. Scholes. 206 pp., bibliog., index. (1937). *Out of Print.

Vol. VIII—The American Occupation of New Mexico, 1821-52. Sister Mary Loyola. 166 pp., bibliog., index. (1939). *Out of Print.

Vol. IX—Federal Control of the Western Apaches, 1848-1886. R. H. Ogle. 259 pp., bibliog., index. (1940). *Out of Print.

Vol. X—Franciscan Missions of New Mexico, 1740-1760. Henry W. Kelly. 94 pp., bibliog., maps. (1941). *Out of Print.

Vol. XI—Troublous Times in New Mexico, 1659-1670. F. V. Scholes. 276 pp., bibliog., index. (1942). *Out of Print.

Vol. XII—New Mexico and the Sectional Controversy, 1846-1861. L. M. Ganaway. 140 pp., ill., bibliog., index. (1944) $2.00; in cloth $2.50

Vol. XIII—Black-Robed Justice. Arie W. Poldervaart. 234 pp., bibliog., index. (1948). Cloth. $3.50

Vol. XIV—Albert Franklin Banta: Arizona Pioneer, ed. by Frank D. Reeve. 143 pp., ill., index. (1953). $2.25

Vol. XV—Bishop Tamaron's Visitation of New Mexico, 1760, ed. by Eleanor B. Adams. 112 pp., ill., index. (1954). $2.50

*Available in serial issues. Price on request.

Address orders to

NEW MEXICO HISTORICAL REVIEW

Box 1727, Santa Fe, New Mexico