Southwest Florida Archaeological Society (SWFAS)
OUR 44th YEAR
April 2024 Newsletter

https://swflarchaeology.org/

PRESIDENT'S CORNER *By John F. Furey M.A., RPA,* jffurey@charter.net

This month we present France in the New World Part VII: South and Central America. This discusses the early attempt at founding colonies for the Huguenots in South and Central America and the invasion of Mexico.

Native Americans have answered the call to military for the United States in disproportionate numbers. Yet, Native Americans were not granted United States citizenship until 1924, 100 years ago this year, and were not granted theright to vote until 1960. Learn about Native American military contributions as we commemorate their 100 years of citizenship.

'We are still here: The Continuing Story of the Miccosukee Tribe'. See the exhibit at the Museum of the Everglades through May 11th, 2024. See images and artifacts of the shared history and cultural expressions of this federally recognized and sovereign nation.

A local often overlooked gem in Naples that has exhibits, programs, hiking trails, kayaking, birding and many other options for both children and adults is Rookery Bay. Look into their programs and you will find something that interests you. info@rookerybay.org 239-530-5972, 300 Tower Road. Rookery Bay oversees a large Federal area of the 10,000 Islands that has many archaeological sites and has long been a supporter of archaeological research and conservation.

SWFAS welcomes back Theresa Schober from her work in British Columbia as Director and Curator at the Nisga'a Museum. In 2023, the museum supported the Nisga'a Nation and family efforts to return a totem pole from a museum in Scotland. She is our speaker this month at the Collier County Museum on 17 April. Plan to attend. Theresa has been our long-time FAS representative and is a SWFAS Board Member.

SWFAS DUES REMINDER 2024

SWFAS dues for 2024 are due and your support of archaeology, history, preservation, and education in Southwest Florida is critical. Our sole source of income is your dues and your gifts, and SWFAS is a 501(c)(3) registered Florida non-profit organization. Thanks to everyone that has already renewed their 2024 tax deductible membership. If you haven't done so, we have two ways, you can renew online electronically with a credit card at https://swflarchaeology.org/ and go to Donate; or send a check to: Charlie Strader SWFAS Treasurer, 27655 Kent Road Bonita Springs, FL 34135. Thank you.

RECENT RESEARCH

PHOTOSYNTHESIS

Credit: Britannica

The oldest fossil evidence of photosynthesis has been found inside tiny cyanobacteria that lived around 1.75 billion years ago, 1.2 billion years earlier than the previous record-holder. The photosynthetic structures known as thylakoids, were found inside fossilized Navifusa majensis. Cyanobacteria are thought to have triggered the Great Oxidation Event more than 2 billion years ago, which transformed Earth's atmosphere. "One idea is that, perhaps, thylakoids developed at this time and this increased the quantity of oxygen on Earth," says paleobiologist Emmanuelle Javaux, who contributed to the discovery. "Now that we've found very old thylakoids and that they can be preserved in very old rocks, we think that we could go further back in time and try to test this hypothesis." *Reference: Nature Journal*.

PARADIGM SHIFT: EVOLUTION IS NOT AS RANDOM AS WE THOUGHT

Credit: University of Oxford

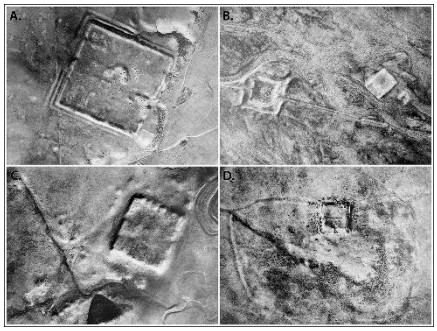
Recent research by Professor James McInerny from the School of life Sciences at the University of Nottingham and Dr. Maria Rosa Domingo-Sananes from Nottingham Trent University in England, have found that gene families are dependent upon other gene families being present to express themselves. Gene families can cooperate or be in conflict with each other and this makes evolution much more predictable rather than just leaving it to natural selection, genetic mutation, gene flow, and genetic drift. Because evolution is not random, this can be used to understand the diversity of life and lead to breakthroughs in understanding the ongoing process of change in the natural world. *Source: Journal, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*.

GUATEMALA: NEW FINDINGS THROUGH LIDAR

Credit: National Geographic

LiDAR technology continues to expose new sites and new information in jungle covered Central America. Recent findings in the journal Ancient America locates roads between cities, ballcourts, dams, irrigation canals, and new pyramids in Guatemala dated between 1,000-350 BC. See the paper below.

ROMAN MILITARY CAMPS IN THE SAUDI ARABIAN DESERT



Three 2,000-year-old Roman military camps were recently located in the Saudi Arabian Desert that were used for the conquest of the Jordanian Nabataean Kingdom in AD 106. The Roman Legions were divided into two types: regular legions and auxiliary legions. The regular fighting legions were Roman citizens, the auxiliary legions were not citizens, but upon being honorably discharged, they would gain full citizenship after 25 years of service. The auxiliary legions supported the regular legions in the field by being the engineers and laborers to make roads, bridges, camps, and fortifications in support of the fighting legions. It was the legion auxiliaries that built these temporary encampments that were in defensible positions about twenty miles apart; the distance a legion would march in a day. Each of the encampments were laid out the same manner and each group in the legion knew exactly where their area in the encampment was. *Source: journal Antiquity 2023: 1-18.* See below.

SCIENTISTS UNCOVERED 396 ANCIENT ROMAN FORTS

Another study looked at data from spy satellites in the 1960's and 1970's in Syria and Iraq. The distinct square design of the Roman 'forts' made them stand out in aerial photography. These 396 'forts' were established along the eastern edge of the Roman empire and, according to the authors, were thought to not represent a border 'wall', like Hadrian's Wall, but functioned as encampments to support the interregional trade of the area. Many of these 'forts' follow rivers and others appear to have been established along trade or caravan routes, at river fords, and some may represent the lines of incursion and control by the Roman Legions through time. See below.

MARCH PRESENTATION by Natalie De La Torre Salas

THERE IS NO SUCH THING AS A NATURAL DISASTER: HURRICANES AND HERITAGE IN SOUTHWEST FLORIDA. HURRICANE DAMAGE TO ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES

On Wednesday 20 March at the IMAG in Fort Myers, Natalie De La Torre Salas, M.A., RPA, who is our Southwest Florida representative of FPAN (Florida Public Archaeological Network), explained the methodology and planning that each archaeological site requires before a storm strikes. In order to attempt to mitigate major damage from catastrophic storms, mainly flooding, each site must have its own unique plan. While each site requires a different plan, it is important to have them in place so that, when a storm does strike, everyone already knows what their role will be. The success of the plan and the mitigation of damage is usually dependent on the resilience of the society at large and its ability to quickly recover from the damage the storm produced to itself. Natalie has been very involved in archaeological and historic site monitoring and mitigation to create a baseline for sites and, from there, develop a storm damage plan. FPAN has created a Scout Monitoring Program where local people are trained and they can monitor local sites. Anyone interested in this program can contact FPAN.

APRIL PRESENTATION: APRIL 17, 2024, 7:00 PM
NAPLES, COLLIER COUNTY MUSEUM AT GOVERNMENT CENTER

GIVING BACK - A REPATRIATION STORY by Theresa Schober

In January 2024, following decades of institutional complacency and Indigenous advocacy, the Department of the Interior adopted new regulations for the return, protection, and exhibition of Native American Ancestral remains, funerary belongings, sacred items, and objects of cultural patrimony housed at institutions across the United States. Major museums such as Chicago's Field Museum and the American Museum of Natural History in New York closed galleries, and universities are hiring specialized staff to meet the regulations' timelines. Drawing on her experiences repatriating Ancestral remains and significant cultural belongings back to their communities of origin in the United States and abroad, archaeologist Theresa Schober explores what these new regulations mean in practice and how US legislation dovetails with conversations about the return of cultural belongings and decolonizing practices in museums globally.

Theresa Schober collaborates with Indigenous communities to facilitate sharing, understanding, and preservation of their history and culture. She supports repatriation and rematriation of Ancestral remains and cultural belongings to First Nations through curatorial practice. Her experience includes serving as Director and Curator of Hli Goothl Wilp-Adokshl Nisga'a | Nisga'a Museum for the Nisga'a Nation in British Columbia, Canada where she accompanied only the second totem pole to return from Europe to its community, as well as holding leadership positions in the archaeological and museum communities in Florida, including Associate Curator in Anthropology at Florida State University.

TO GO TO THE COLLIER MUSEUM AT GOVERNMENT CENTER:

Take the I-75 toward Naples, then exit at County Hwy-886 exit, EXIT 105, toward Naples. Go about 1 mile and turn left onto Livingston Rd/County Hwy-881. Go 1.4 miles and turn right onto Radio Rd/ County Hwy-856. Then go 1 mile and turn left onto Airport-Pulling Rd S/County Hwy-31. Go about .5 miles and turn left onto Tamiami Trl E/US-41 N. 3331 TAMIAMI TRL E is on the left. It is the large government center complex. Follow the signs for the museum to the rear of the complex.

2024 SWFAS NEWSLETTER AND SPEAKER SCHEDULE

APRIL 17, 2024, 7:00 PM, NAPLES, COLLIER COUNTY MUSEUM AT GOVERNMENT CENTER

Theresa Schober, Archaeologist
Giving Back – A Repatriation Story

MAY 2024 Newsletter
FAS Annual Meeting - Hosted by the Pensacola Archaeological Society and FPAN

JUNE-AUGUST 2024 No Newsletters/Presentations/Summer Sabbatical

SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 2024 Newsletters

NOVEMBER 20, 2024, 7:00 PM, NAPLES, COLLIER COUNTY MUSEUM AT GOVERNMENT CENTER

Sarah Ayres Rigby, FPAN Archaeologist
Topic TBA

DECEMBER TBA Field Trip

ARTICLES

NATIVE AMERICANS' LONG JOURNEY TO US CITIZENSHIP AND VOTING RIGHTS

By Becky Little
November 7, 2023
From History at https://www.history.com/news/native-american-voting-rights-citizenship
Editor's Note: Despite losing land, broken treaties, and being disenfranchised in many ways, of the 350,000 Native Americans living in the US during World War II, nearly 45,000 enlisted in the military, making them the demographic with the highest rate of voluntary enlistment throughout the entire war. In World War I, 15,000 served despite not having US Citizenship and 42,000 served in the Viet Nam War. The most famous were the World War II 'Code Talkers' of the Navajo, Cherokee, Choctaw, Lakota, Meskwaki, and Comanche tribes. This year, 2024, is the 100th anniversary of Native Americans being given US citizenship. Source: American Legion Magazine January 2024.

Indigenous tribes in America practiced self governance long before the United States was founded in 1776. Despite this reality, Native Americans endured centuries of struggle before securing U.S. citizenship—and voting rights. Native Americans couldn't be U.S. citizens when the country ratified its Constitution in 1788, and wouldn't win the right to be for 136 years. When Black Americans won citizenship with the 14th Amendment in 1868, the government specifically interpreted the law so it didn't apply to Native people. "I am not yet prepared to pass a sweeping act of naturalization by which all the Indian savages, wild or tame, belonging to a tribal relation, are to become my fellow-citizens and go to the polls and vote with me," argued Michigan Senator Jacob Howard at the time, according to the Native American Voting Rights Coalition. Some Indigenous people didn't seek U.S. citizenship since they were already part of their own sovereign nations. However, these nations still found their land and the lives of their people subject to the whims of a country that would not recognize them as citizens.

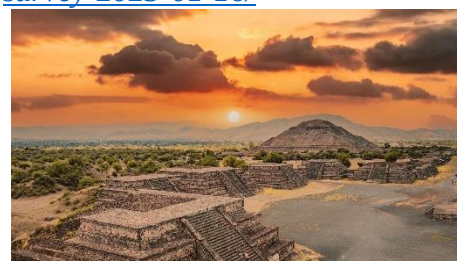
In 1924, Native people won the right to full citizenship when President Calvin Coolidge signed the Indian Citizenship Act, also known as the Snyder Act. But many saw the act as a way to break up Native nations and forcibly assimilate them into American society. A key part of this movement was forcing young Indigenous

people to attend boarding schools. As Carlisle boarding school founder Richard Henry Pratt said in 1892, their mission was to “kill the Indian in him, and save the man.” In any case, Congress didn’t guarantee Native people voting rights at that time either. The Constitution gave states the right to determine voting rights (with the exception of the 15th and 19th Amendments, which many states violated anyway by preventing Black people from voting). There were plenty of white Americans who didn’t want Native people voting in their states. In the late 1930s, “One of the Indians went over to Old Town once to see some official in the city hall about voting,” reported Henry Mitchell, an “Indian Canoe Maker” in Maine. “He said to the Indian, 'We don't want you people over here. You have your own elections over on the island, and if you want to vote, go over there.’”

Native Americans were only able to win the right to vote by fighting for it state by state. In fact, efforts to disenfranchise Native Americans, particularly those who lived on reservations, continued through the early 1960s. In 1957, after a challenge by an Indigenous voter, Utah repealed a law that had denied Native Americans living on reservations the right to vote. And in 1962, the Supreme Court of New Mexico struck down a challenge that claimed Navajos living on a reservation in the state should not have been allowed to vote in a 1960 election.

Despite these victories, Native people were still prevented from voting with poll taxes, literacy tests and intimidation—the same tactics used against Black voters. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 helped strengthen the voting rights that Native people had won in every state. However, in 2013, the Supreme Court’s decision in Shelby County v. Holder eliminated the Justice Department’s authority to block changes to voting laws in states with histories of discrimination. In 2019, a federal commission found that at least 23 states had enacted "newly restrictive statewide voter laws."

ANCIENT MAYA CITIES, 'SUPER HIGHWAYS' REVEALED IN LATEST SURVEY
By Reuters
January 19, 2023
From Reuters at https://www.reuters.com/world/americas/ancient-maya-cities-super-highways-revealed-latest-survey-2023-01-16/



A new high-tech study has revealed nearly 1,000 ancient Maya settlements, including 417 previously unknown cites linked by what may be the world's first highway network and hidden for millennia by the dense jungles of northern Guatemala and southern Mexico. It is the latest discovery of roughly 3,000-year-old Maya centers and related infrastructure, according to a statement on Monday from a team from Guatemala's FARES anthropological research foundation overseeing the so-called LiDAR studies. The findings were first published last month in the journal Ancient Mesoamerica. All of the newly-identified structures were built centuries before the largest Maya city-states emerged, ushering in major human achievements in math and writing.

LiDAR technology uses planes to shoot pulses of light into dense forest, allowing researchers to peel away vegetation and map ancient structures below. Among the details revealed in the latest analysis are the ancient world's first-ever extensive system of stone "highways or super-highways," according to the researchers. Around 110 miles (177 km) of spacious roadways have been revealed so far, with some measuring around 130 feet (40 meters) wide and elevated off the ground by as much as 16 feet (5 meters). As part of the Cuenca Karstica Mirador-Calakmul study, which extends from northern Guatemala's Peten jungle to southern Mexico's Campeche state, researchers have also identified pyramids, ball game courts plus significant water engineering, including reservoirs, dams and irrigation canals. "It shows the economic, political and social complexity of what was happening simultaneously across this entire area," said lead researcher Richard Hansen.

The latest finds date to the so-called middle to late pre-classic Maya era, from around 1,000-350 BC, with many of the settlements believed to be controlled by the metropolis known today as El Mirador. That was more than

five centuries before the civilization's classical peak, when dozens of major urban centers thrived across present-day Mexico and Central America.

2000-YEAR-OLD ROMAN-ERA MILITARY CAMPS DISCOVERED IN SAUDI ARABIAN DESERT

World News: Edited By: Amit Chaturvedi

April 27, 2023

From World News at https://www.ndtv.com/world-news/2000-year-old-roman-era-military-camps-discovered-in-saudi-arabian-desert-3985156#:~:text=Three%20Roman-era%20military%20camps%2C%20from%20almost%202%2C000%20years,discovery%20has%20been%20published%20in%20the%20journal%20Antiquity.

Three Roman-era military camps, from almost 2,000 years ago, have been discovered in the Saudi Arabian desert, according to Sky News. The camps were discovered by Oxford University researchers, who traced the camps using Google Earth. A peer-reviewed study detailing the discovery has been published in the journal Antiquity. The researchers say the discovery suggests as evidence of a Roman campaign across Southeast Jordan into Saudi Arabia during the second century, as per the Sky News report. Researchers claim that these camps were constructed during the Roman takeover of the Jordanian Nabataean Kingdom in 106 AD. "We are almost certain they were built by the Roman army, given the typical playing card shape of the enclosures with opposing entrances along each side," Dr Michael Fradley, part of the team that identified the camps, was quoted as saying by the outlet. He added that these camps were set up as defended barracks when the Romans began their Arabia conquest.

Oxford's Mike Bishop, an expert on the Roman military, told The National: "These camps are a spectacular new find and an important new insight into Roman campaigning in Arabia." "Roman forts and fortresses show how Rome held a province, but temporary camps reveal how they acquired it in the first place," the expert added.

Dr Fradley said the manner in which these camps have been preserved is "remarkable", considering these structures were temporary and used "for a matter of days or weeks". The National said that these camps are situated at a distance of 37-44 kilometres from each other, which suggests it was too far to be crossed by infantry in a day. The researchers say in the study that the camps were built by Roman cavalry, which would have been able to travel over barren terrain in a single day, possibly on camels.

A WALL OR A ROAD? A REMOTE SENSING-BASED INVESTIGATION OF FORTIFICATIONS ON ROME'S EASTERN FRONTIER

By: Jesse Casana, David D Goodman, and Carolin Ferwerda.

From the Cambridge University Press at https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/antiquity/article/wall-or-a-road-a-remote-sensingbased-investigation-of-fortifications-on-romes-eastern-frontier/8FE59FB0D5476EA329614EEC6DC414FD

During a pioneering aerial survey of the Near East in the 1920s, Father Antoine Poidebard recorded hundreds of fortified military buildings that traced the eastern frontier of the Roman Empire. Based on their distribution, Poidebard proposed that these forts represented a line of defence against incursions from the east. Utilising declassified images from the CORONA and HEXAGON spy satellite programmes, the authors report on the identification of a further 396 forts widely distributed across the northern Fertile Crescent. The

addition of these forts questions Poidebard's defensive frontier thesis and suggests instead that the structures played a role in facilitating the movement of people and goods across the Syrian steppe.

Introduction

In the 1920s, at the beginning of the 'age of aviation', the Jesuit French priest Father Antoine Poidebard undertook one of the world's first aerial archaeological surveys, using a biplane and a camera to document hundreds of ancient forts and other sites throughout what today is Syria, Iraq and Jordan (Poidebard Reference Poidebard1934). Having piloted a biplane during the First World War, Poidebard later became a priest at Université Saint-Joseph in Beirut and joined the 39th Aviation Regiment of the French Levant forces, through which he began his expansive aerial survey of desert regions. Although today Poidebard is remembered primarily for his technological innovation in using aerial photography as an archaeological survey tool (Griswold Reference Griswold2019), an achievement that also fascinated his contemporaries (e.g. Dussaud Reference Dussaud1934; Jones Reference Jones1934; Hopkins Reference Hopkins1935), the substance of his investigation was based on mapping Roman-period forts and defensive installations along the eastern periphery of the empire. In his magisterial monograph, La Trace de Rome dans le desert de Syrie (Reference Poidebard1934), Poidebard presents hundreds of previously unknown forts and other sites over an area that stretches more than 1000km along the Roman frontier or limes (Figure 1).

Since the 1930s, historians and archaeologists have debated the strategic or political purpose of this system of fortifications (e.g. Graf Reference Graf1978; Liebeschuetz Reference Liebeschuetz and de Blois2007; de Jong & Palermo Reference De Jong, Palermo, Düring and Stek2018), but few scholars have questioned Poidebard's basic observation that there was a line of forts defining the eastern Roman frontier. This article presents the results of a regional-scale remote sensing-based survey utilising declassified CORONA and HEXAGON spy satellite imagery from the 1960s and 1970s (Casana Reference Casana2020a & Reference Casana, Lawrence, Altaweel and Philipb), which demonstrate there are far more forts than previously recognised, extending over a much larger region. As part of a systematic programme to map archaeological sites and features across a study area in the northern Fertile Crescent, stretching from western Syria to north-western Iraq, we found 396 previously undocumented forts or fort-like buildings, compared with the 116 forts recorded by Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934) in the same area. Significantly, the spatial distribution of the forts we have mapped no longer supports Poidebard's central thesis that they constituted a broadly north-south line along the eastern boundary of the empire. Instead, we show that the forts form a roughly east-west line following the margins of the inland desert, connecting Mosul on the Tigris River in the east with Aleppo in western Syria. While many questions remain, our results fundamentally challenge understandings of the number, distribution and function of these distinctive elements of the ancient Near Eastern landscape.

Background

In his aerial survey, Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934) set out to search for evidence of Roman-period fortifications along the eastern frontier of the empire. He focused on a route stretching from Borsa on the Jordanian border, north through Palmyra and Raqqa, south-east along the Euphrates River to its confluence with the Khabur, then north again to Nisibis on the modern-day Turkish border, ending at the Tigris River (Figure 2). During the reigns of Septimius Severus (AD 145–211) and Diocletian (AD 284–305), the Roman Empire made massive investments in military and transport infrastructure along its eastern border (Oates Reference Oates1968), and Poidebard's survey followed a road built under Diocletian, the strata Diocletiana. Poidebard recorded hundreds of fortified military buildings, including some of the best-known Roman forts in the region (Figure 3). He photographed all of these forts from the air and investigated many on the ground as well, conducting soundings at several of them and larger-scale excavations at the castellum at Tell Brak, Syria (Figure 4). Based on this evidence, Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934) argued that the forts were mostly constructed during the second and third centuries AD, essentially functioning as a wall to fortify the eastern Roman provinces against incursions by Arab nomads or Persian armies.

Poidebard was praised by his contemporaries for his technical achievement and his wide-ranging discoveries (Dussaud Reference Dussaud1934; Jones Reference Jones1934; Hopkins Reference Hopkins1935), and his findings helped inspire a long history of scholarship that explored dimensions of Roman military, economic and political policies along its eastern periphery (e.g. Isaac Reference Isaac1990; Kennedy & Braund Reference Kennedy and Braund1996; Fisher Reference Fisher2011; de Jong & Palermo Reference De Jong, Palermo, Düring and Stek2018). Nonetheless, many scholars have argued that the forts could not have functioned as a wall because they were located too far apart from one another to prevent passage into the province. Instead, it has been argued the forts typically guarded strategic oases, presumably to provide protection for the movement of military and commercial caravans (Graf Reference Graf1978; Liebeschuetz Reference Liebeschuetz and de Blois2007: 421–38). Others have argued that the forts functioned primarily to defend sedentary populations against raids by nomadic groups, who commonly moved throughout the region (Mayerson Reference Mayerson1986; Parker Reference Parker1987), perhaps specifically to guard against the perennial threat of captive-taking and slave-raiding (Lenski Reference Lenski2011: 256–60). These issues may have been particularly acute as increasing numbers of formerly nomadic peoples began to settle in Roman territory after the third century AD (Mango Reference Mango, Borrut, Debié and Sodini2011), at the same time that more policing operations were delegated to local allied tribal groups (Liebeschuetz Reference Liebeschuetz2015).

Despite long-standing interest among historians, there has been only limited archaeological research on the fortifications of the eastern Roman limes. David and Joan Oates (Reference Oates and Oates1959) excavated the large fortress at Ain Sinu, located just east of the Jebel Sinjar in northern Iraq, uncovering a second- to fourth-century castellum and barracks (Figure 3C). A German project in the 1990s focused on the area between Palmyra and Raqqa, excavating at the major fortress of Sura on the Euphrates (Figure 3A), the castella of Tetrapyrgium and Resafa (Figure 3B) and the small fort of Cholle (Konrad Reference Konrad2001; Figure 5A). A survey project in the Jebel Bishri region, south of the Euphrates, likewise investigated several Roman and late Roman forts and discovered a previously undocumented military encampment (Lönnqvist et al. Reference Lönnqvist, Aro-Valjus and Lönnqvist2011). To the south, in modern-day Jordan, the long-running Limes Arabicus project intensively explored Roman fortifications in the area east of the Dead Sea, excavating four sites, including the large legionary fortress at el-Lejjūn, and undertaking a regional survey that located hundreds of other sites, including numerous forts dating from the Iron Age to the medieval period (Clark et al. Reference Clark, Koucky, Parker and Parker2006; Parker Reference Parker2006). But few of the forts identified by Poidebard in eastern Syria and north-western Iraq have been investigated archaeologically, and only a small number of additional forts have been located since his initial publication.

Methods

The analyses described below are based on the results of a long-running project that employs declassified, Cold War-era CORONA and HEXAGON satellite imagery for archaeological investigations. These images formed part of the world's first spy satellite programmes, with CORONA imagery collected from 1960 to 1972 and its successor, HEXAGON imagery, collected from 1970 to 1986 (Casana et al. Reference Casana, Cothren and Kalayci2012; Hammer et al. Reference Hammer, Fitzpatrick and Ur2022). Because these images preserve a high-resolution, stereo perspective on a landscape that has been severely impacted by modern-day land-use changes, including urban expansion, agricultural intensification and reservoir construction, they constitute a unique resource for archaeological research (e.g. Philip et al. Reference Philip, Donoghue, Beck and Galiatsatos2002; Casana et al. Reference Casana, Cothren and Kalayci2012; Ur Reference Ur2013). However, the imagery was captured on elongate black-and-white film using an unusual cross-path panoramic camera system that imparted extreme, non-linear spatial distortions in the imagery, complicating the incorporation of these images in contemporary GIS-based analyses (Casana & Cothren Reference Casana and Cothren2008). Our research as part of the CORONA Atlas Project has developed more efficient and accurate methods for the orthorectification of CORONA imagery, as well as creating an online, open-access distribution platform for corrected data (Casana et al. Reference Casana, Cothren and Kalayci2012; Casana Reference Casana2020a).

Utilising corrected CORONA imagery, we undertook a regional-scale analysis of archaeological landscapes in the northern Fertile Crescent, seeking to document archaeological sites and features across a much larger region than had previously been practical (Casana Reference Casana2020a & Reference Casana, Lawrence, Altaweel and Philipb). Focusing on a 300 000km2 region extending from western Syria to northern Iraq, we first mapped all previously published archaeological sites in this study area, creating a database of approximately 4500 sites. We then began a systematic effort to identify undocumented sites and site-like features, dividing the study area into 5 × 5km survey grids and manually investigating each grid square, ultimately locating more than 10 000 potential new examples. To allow for uncertainty across members of the project team, each new potential site was also given a confidence rating, allowing these observations to be subsequently evaluated by project leaders. Each site was then classified according to morphological criteria, such as shape, the presence of mounding, patterns of erosion and the visibility of architectural features (Casana Reference Casana, Lawrence, Altaweel and Philip2020b). This large dataset has facilitated a range of research initiatives including the mapping of radial route systems (Casana Reference Casana2013), investigations into the sustainability of third-millennium BC settlement (Kalayci Reference Kalayci2016), possible identification of historically known ancient cities (Casana Reference Casana, Ullmann and Weeden2017) and the documentation of war-related looting and site destruction (Casana & Laugier Reference Casana and Laugier2017).

One of the morphological classes in our original analysis was modelled directly on Poidebard's forts, described in our database as a square architectural feature measuring 50–100m per side. In mapping known sites, we attempted to find all the forts originally recorded by Poidebard in our study area; however, this proved to be a difficult task as most forts in his 1934 publication feature only on small-scale maps without any names or designations. Additionally, many sites were damaged by intensified land use in the decades following the 1920s, rendering them less visible or completely absent in the 1960s satellite imagery. Thus, on the CORONA imagery, we were only able confidently to identify extant architectural remains at 38 of Poidebard's 116 forts. Nonetheless, these relocated sites provide a representative sample to demonstrate the expected appearance of such forts, and thus aid significantly in our identification of similar features elsewhere (Figure 5).

We then analysed the results of our larger site prospection effort, identifying all sites and site-like features that had been classified as probable forts. The imagery of each of these potential sites was reinspected to confirm initial assessments by team members and to reduce inter-observer error, ensuring that the identified features were indeed archaeological and that morphological assessments were consistent. Finally, we selected a smaller study area in the Khabur and western Jazireh to conduct a more intensive analysis using multiple forms of imagery, in an effort to locate further potential sites. We selected this intensive study area in part due to the availability of multiple, high-quality CORONA and HEXAGON images covering the region, but also as a result of our observation, during quality assessments, that numerous unrecorded forts were present in this area.

Our initial study (Casana Reference Casana, Lawrence, Altaweel and Philip2020b) relied exclusively on CORONA imagery as the only high-resolution (6 feet/1.83m), declassified imagery available at the time. Our analysts generally utilised a single, high-quality scene to search for potential sites. In our intensive study area, we also took advantage of the 2019 declassification of HEXAGON imagery, a successor programme to CORONA that provides higher resolution data (2 feet/0.61m) collected between 1970 and 1986 (Hammer et al. Reference Hammer, Fitzpatrick and Ur2022). Our intensive study made use of the CORONA 1102 mission (dated 11 December 1967) and 1105 mission (4–5 November 1968), the HEXAGON 1204 mission (17 November 1974), and modern high-resolution colour imagery acquired between 2011 and 2019 (Figure 4). CORONA and HEXAGON imagery were selected for the highest potential site visibility, which in this region is typically in the late autumn or early winter when the fields are clear of most crops and the ground is moistened by winter rains. As is the case with most aerial and satellite imagery, however, localised ground conditions can profoundly impact site visibility in ways that can be hard to predict (Wilson Reference Wilson1982). In our study area, for example, architectural features at fort sites are often clearest on the 1105 mission of the CORONA imagery, despite being of lower spatial resolution than the HEXAGON imagery; although other CORONA and HEXAGON imagery series often reveal other aspects of sites or related features of interest.

Results

Our research successfully identified 396 archaeological features that appear very similar to the forts first documented by Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934). These probable forts include 290 across the entire 300 000km2 survey region, and 106 probable forts within the smaller, intensive study area of the Syrian western Jazireh (see online supplementary material). Archaeological features that we classified as probable forts are easily distinguished from modern buildings due to the distinctive shadows cast by the latter, compared with the lower, eroded walls that are visible at archaeological sites. The most common form that we interpret as a probable fort is a classic square shape, typically 50–80m per side (Figure 5). These buildings are often isolated, far from other obvious archaeological features, and frequently located in marginal environments with little other evidence of ancient or modern settlement. In his original aerial survey, Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934) distinguished among large fortresses, modestly sized castella and small towers. The small square features we have documented (Figure 5F–L) closely parallel the size, shape and location of many of the castella or towers documented by Poidebard (Figure 5A–E).

Larger forts recorded by Poidebard include many of the best-known sites within his survey, such as Sura, Resafa and Ain Sinu (Figure 3), as well as a range of other major fortified sites, a few of which, including Meskene and Dibsi Faraj, have been excavated (Figure 6). These ‘fortresses’ are square or rectangular in shape, usually have substantial fortifications, measuring 100–200m per side, and often have evidence of nearby and, presumably, associated architectural features. In our analysis, we documented many previously unrecorded examples that are of similar size to Poidebard's fortresses (Figure 7), some with evidence of interior architectural features (Figure 7C) and several that are intentionally built around a mounded citadel (Figure 7B). We also found evidence of numerous, previously undocumented major fortresses with massive square or rectangular fortification walls similar to Poidebard's fortresses, some more than 200m per side (Figure 8). Many of these larger sites include extensive remains of outlying architectural features surrounding or within the fortifications (Figure 8A–D), multiple fortified buildings (Figure 8C) or large citadels (Figure 8E). These large sites often have evidence of modern occupation on, or adjacent to, the fortifications, possibly because they are located in more strategic or more agriculturally productive areas.

Discussion

Spatial distribution of forts

One of the most striking aspects of the forts and fort-like features identified in our study is their spatial distribution. As discussed above, forts recorded by Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934) are concentrated in a rough line along the route of what he understood to be the eastern frontier of the Roman Empire, essentially following Diocletian's military road (Figure 9). Our new findings, however, demonstrate that the distribution of Poidebard's forts is a product of discovery bias. As Poidebard describes in his 1934 publication, he flew his biplane over areas where he believed forts would most likely be located, and found many of them, seemingly confirming his theory of their function in fortifying the Roman limes.

The new distribution of forts documented by our research shows that, contrary to Poidebard's interpretation, they are spread over an enormous, east-west trending region (Figure 9). The forts form a rough line extending from Mosul, on the Tigris River in Iraq, through Ninawa province, across the Khabur and the Balikh valleys, continuing to the semi-arid plains west of the Euphrates River, leading to western Syria and the Mediterranean. There is a remarkably dense concentration of forts in the western Jazireh between the Khabur and Balikh rivers, an area that is agriculturally marginal with few perennial sources of surface water (Wilkinson Reference Wilkinson2003). The largest sites in the area, such as the third-millennium BC mound of Tell Chuera, typically date to earlier phases of the Holocene when a wetter climate prevailed in the region (Lawrence et al. Reference Lawrence, Philip, Hunt, Snape-Kennedy and Wilkinson2016). Thus, the very high concentration of forts and fort-like features in this region stands in contrast to the paucity of other sites, especially when compared with adjacent areas of the Khabur Basin, the Balikh Valley or the Harran Plain.

Our results also largely confirm Poidebard's belief that a line of forts followed the strata Diocletiana between Raqqa and Palmyra. We have identified several new forts along this route; however, our survey also reveals previously undetected lines of forts extending west-southwest from the Euphrates Valley, towards Apamea and western Syria, as well as connecting the Tigris and the Khabur Rivers. These results reinforce the interpretation of the role of the forts in supporting the movement of troops, supplies or trade goods across the region (Graf Reference Graf1978; Liebeschuetz Reference Liebeschuetz and de Blois2007: 421–38).

It is possible that the density of forts in some areas, and the overall distribution we have mapped, is in part a product of preservation bias, as forts in more verdant areas to the north may have been destroyed or obscured by more recent settlement and land-use practices. Certainly, the fact that many forts documented by Poidebard are not visible in the satellite imagery of the 1960s and 1970s suggests that attrition of the archaeological record has been substantial, and these processes are unlikely to have slowed over the intervening decades. Additionally, our intensive survey using multiple forms of imagery in a sub-region of our study area recorded 106 fort-like features that had been overlooked by our initial survey, suggesting that supplementary investigations incorporating higher resolution or older imagery will likely discover many additional forts.

None of this is intended to diminish Poidebard's achievements as a pioneer of aerial archaeological survey, nor the important discoveries he made. His research was conducted before the first formal archaeological surveys in the Near East, and long before there had been any theoretical or methodological consideration of survey design within archaeology. Nonetheless, our results offer a completely new perspective on the distribution of forts across the region and reopen discussions regarding their military, political and economic functions.

Dating the forts

Any historical or cultural interpretation of the significance of the forts documented in this study depends on our assumptions surrounding the dates of these sites. Poidebard's (Reference Poidebard1934) belief that the forts were primarily built in the second and third centuries AD has always been contentious. Oates (Reference Oates1968), for example, notes the proliferation of settlement in north-western Iraq during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries AD, and argues that Poidebard's "map is in places a palimpsest of earlier and later material" (Oates Reference Oates1968: 67). Excavations at four sites between Palmyra and Raqqa do show that they were all constructed in the later third century AD under Diocletian, but also that they had much longer histories of occupation (Konrad Reference Konrad2001). In the Umayyad period (AD 661–750) for example, Qusair as-Saila continued to be used as a monastery while several palaces were constructed at Resafa. Excavations at the fortress of Dibsi Faraj on the Syrian Euphrates, to the west, also suggest an initial construction during the third century AD with a long history of reuse and rebuilding throughout the medieval period (Leone & Sarantis Reference Leone and Sarantis2020). In contrast, all the documented forts in the Jebel Bishri region south of the Euphrates are securely dated to the Roman and late Roman periods, with seemingly little later occupation (Lönnqvist et al. Reference Lönnqvist, Aro-Valjus and Lönnqvist2011).

The most comprehensive dating evidence for forts in the Levant comes from the Limes Arabicus project in Jordan, where results suggest that 10–12 forts were constructed in the region as early as the Iron Age (1000–750 BC), with some continued use and expansion of these sites in the Nabataean or early Roman period (100 BC–AD 100). As in Syria, however, most of the large fortifications in the region were constructed in the third century AD, presumably under Diocletian. The regional survey reports 72 square forts or towers dating to the late Roman/Byzantine period (AD 284–500), nearly all of which were abandoned sometime during the sixth century (Fisher Reference Fisher2004; Clark et al. Reference Clark, Koucky, Parker and Parker2006: 46–49). Unlike in north-western Iraq, the region east of the Dead Sea hosted very little medieval occupation, with only scant evidence for reuse of the forts in the post-Roman period.

In summary, the dating evidence we have from recent excavations and surveys suggests that most fort sites were constructed and used between the second and sixth centuries AD. A small percentage of the forts appear to have been constructed in earlier or later periods, and many forts, especially larger ones, continued to be occupied in

subsequent centuries. Thus, we hypothesise that most of the distinctive square forts documented in this study were likewise constructed and occupied during the Roman and late Roman periods. It is important to remember, however, that, like any archaeological phase map, the distribution we map herein is undoubtedly a palimpsest of earlier and later features.

Some archaeologists may be instinctively sceptical of an approach to dating sites based on morphological characteristics observable in remote-sensing data (Casana Reference Casana, Lawrence, Altaweel and Philip2020b). But while dating based on excavated evidence is undoubtedly more precise, this is unfeasible with the hundreds of sites in question here. Even if a surface survey were possible in a post-war future, surface artefact collection is unlikely to resolve the dates with much greater precision. Excavations at numerous Roman-period fort sites have recovered few diagnostic artefacts (e.g. Oates & Oates Reference Oates and Oates1959) and it is often challenging to produce enough material through surface collections to provide secure dating evidence (e.g. Clark et al. Reference Clark, Koucky, Parker and Parker2006). Our own experience in surveying fortress and castle sites in both western Syria and northern Iraq is similar, as we have often struggled to locate surface artefacts. The paucity of surface artefactual material at fort sites is likely related to their distinctive military function, with processes of ceramic use and discard that are distinct from those at residential sites. Even if we were to find abundant surface material at a fort site, as is reportedly the case at the Tell Brak castellum (Jason Ur, pers. comm.), these materials may derive from a later occupation or reuse of the site, rather than from its initial phase of construction or military use. Thus, a surface survey may not yield reliable dating information, and an imagery-based interpretation remains a useful approach.

Conclusions: a wall or a road?

This article has presented the results of a remote sensing-based research project that has mapped and described 396 previously unidentified forts or fort-like archaeological sites throughout the desert margins of eastern Syria and north-western Iraq. Poidebard's (Reference Poidebard1934) pioneering aerial archaeological survey in this same region initially documented 116 forts, which he argued had mostly been constructed during the second or third century AD. Like these previously identified sites, the newly discovered forts documented here are most frequently square fortifications measuring 50–80m per side, but we have also found numerous larger, more complex fortresses comprised of multiple buildings and larger enclosure walls up to 200m per side. Poidebard's dating of the forts, based on excavations at the castellum at Tell Brak and soundings at several other sites, appears to be largely confirmed by more recent excavations in eastern Syria, northern Iraq and eastern Jordan. We argue that most—but certainly not all—of the fort sites documented in this study are likely to be Roman and late Roman in date. Comparative evidence also suggests widespread abandonment of forts by the sixth century AD, although many of the larger fortifications have long histories of later occupation into the medieval period.

Perhaps the most significant realisation from our work concerns the spatial distribution of the forts across the landscape, as this has major implications for our understanding of their intended purpose as well as for the administration of the eastern Roman frontier more generally. Poidebard (Reference Poidebard1934) believed that the forts ran along a rough north-south line that he understood to be the eastern frontier of the Roman Empire, an idea accepted in most subsequent scholarship. Our findings show, however, that the distribution of Poidebard's forts is a product of discovery bias and that hundreds of similar forts extend in an east-west trending line through the semi-arid steppe, connecting the Tigris River in Iraq with western Syria. The distribution of these forts suggests that they did not function as a border wall, with a series of towers and fortified encampments designed to block westward incursions by Persian armies or to prevent raids on agricultural villages by nomadic tribes. Instead, our findings strengthen an alternative hypothesis that such forts supported a system of caravan-based interregional trade, communication and military transport (Graf Reference Graf1978; Liebeschuetz Reference Liebeschuetz and de Blois2007: 421–38, Reference Liebeschuetz2015: 66). As recent scholarship reimagines Roman frontiers as sites of cultural exchange rather than barriers (e.g. Jones Reference Jones2021), we can similarly view the forts of the Syrian steppe as enabling safe and secure transit across the landscape, offering water to camels and livestock, and providing a place for weary travellers to eat, drink and sleep, thereby playing a critical role in bringing east and west together.

Finally, the discovery of such a large number of previously undocumented ancient forts in this well-studied region of the Near East is a testament to the power of remote-sensing technologies as transformative tools in contemporary archaeological research (Opitz & Herrmann Reference Opitz and Herrmann2018; Casana Reference Casana2021). As more declassified and historical imagery becomes available, including still underutilised resources such as HEXAGON imagery (Hammer et al. Reference Hammer, Fitzpatrick and Ur2022), U2 spy plane imagery (Hammer & Ur Reference Hammer and Ur2019), and other forms of early twentieth century aerial photography (e.g. McLeester & Casana Reference McLeester and Casana2021), careful analysis of these powerful data holds enormous potential for future discoveries in the Near East and beyond.

Note: For Figures and References, please go to the URL at the beginning of this article.

FRANCE IN THE NEW WORLD PART VII:
SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA
By John F. Furey
SOUTH AMERICAN COLONIES

The discovery of the New World by Christopher Columbus in 1492 immediately set off a series of religious problems for Rome to prevent a major war between Catholic Spain and Portugal over this new land. To preempt the territorial disputes that were bound to happen, in 1493 Pope Alexander VI issued a Papal Bull, or decree, “inter Caetera” authorizing Spain and Portugal to colonize the Americas. Three additional bulls were issued and all four were replaced by the Treaty of Tordesillas in May 1493. The treaty guaranteed Spain the exclusive right to develop and colonize the lands discovered by Columbus.

Columbus inadvertently created the whole dispute himself by stopping off in Lisbon on his way home to Spain. Columbus met with King John II who had refused to finance his exploration to prove that there were more islands southwest of the Canary Islands. King John II (Joao) Immediately claimed that all land south of the Canaries belonged to Portugal and would assemble an armada to take control of them. The first and subsequent Papal Bulls were negotiated and negotiations between Spain and Portugal continued for many years. The geography of the New World was not known at this time and the creation of The Papal Line was established to keep the peace. It was nebulous enough, and later was projected to go around the world with the Treaty of Zaragoza in 1524 when Spain and Portugal made additional agreements regarding the placement of the line and what it encompassed. With the discovery of the New World, France, Britain, and Holland, the other European world powers, were not content to let the Catholic Pope divide the world in half between Spain and Portugal and had no intention of abiding by the Papal Bulls, the Papal Line, and Spanish and Portuguese treaties.

Huguenot Colony of Henriville in Brazil 1555-1567
With the continuation of the religious wars in France between the Catholics and the Protestant Huguenots, French Vice Admiral Nicolas Durand de Villegaignon (1510-1575) led a small fleet of two ships and 600 soldiers to find a refuge for the Huguenots. He took possession of a small island in 1555 named Serigipe in Guanabara Bay across from modern day Rio de Janeiro, Brazil and built a small fort he named Fort Coligny. This was despite the Papal Line and possible retaliation by Portugal. On the undeveloped mainland he built a village he named Henriville after King Henri II and made an alliance with the local natives who had been fighting the Portuguese, the Tamoio and Tupinamba Indians. The colony became a haven for the Huguenots and additional colonists arrived in 1557.

As in France, Religious differences in faith and practice, followed the new arrivals and soon found their way to disrupt the colony between the newly arrived Calvinists and the Huguenots and in 1557, the Calvinists that were

newly arrived, were banished from the island colony onto the mainland to Henriville. Some lived among the Tupinamba Indians while others returned to France. Meanwhile, the Portuguese had learned of the French Colony, and in 1560, Mem de Sa, the new Governor General of Brazil, was ordered to expel the French. With a fleet of 26 warships and 2,000 soldiers, he attacked and destroyed Fort Coligny in three days but many escaped to the mainland where they were aided by the natives. Admiral Villegaignon, disgusted with the religious infighting, had returned to France in 1558 before the attack by the Portuguese. The French conducted a guerilla type war on the mainland against the Portuguese with the assistance of the Indians that lasted another two years but, after 12 years of conflict, the French colony was finished and the city of Rio de Janeiro on the inside of the bay was founded by the Portuguese.

French Colony in Maranhao 1612-1616
In 1612 a French expedition with 500 colonists left Cancale, Brittany, France to start a new colony in what is now the northern coast of Brazil, in the Brazillian state of Maranhao. Seigneur de la Ravardiere had explored the region in 1604 but the passing of the king had delayed his plans to begin a new colony. The colonists built a village that they named Saint Louis in honor of the French king Louis IX. Unlike many of the other efforts at colonization, this was to be a commercial colony not a religious community like the Huguenot colonies escaping religious persecution. Four years after the founding of Saint Louis, the colony was attacked in 1616 by an army formed by Captain Pernambuco and led by Alexandre de Moura and defeated. In 1620 Portuguese colonists arrived at the site and founded the future state capitol of Sao Louis, the only Brazilian state capitol named by the French.

French Colony in Guiana 1604/1626/1635/1643/1645/1674
Another French colony was first started in 1604 north of the failed colony of Maranhao, Brazil, in what is today French Guiana. The original 1604 settlement was abandoned due to opposition by the indigenous population. Colonization was again attempted in 1626 and again in 1635 but, due to mismanagement and misfortune, both attempts were failures. In 1643 and 1645 the settlement of Cayenne was started and restarted but it too was abandoned. In 1674 the private colony came under the control of the French Crown and a competent Governor assumed the management of the colony, and only then, did it become a successful colony. From 1851-1951 Guiana established the infamous Devil's Island Prison (Ile du Diable) off the coast made famous by the 1974 movie Papillon. Today French Guiana is the only successful French South American colony and since 1946 it has been an Overseas Department of France.

The Kingdoms of Araucania, Chile and Patagonia, Argentina
In 1860, The kingdoms of Araucania and Patagonia were declared for France, and also called New France, by French lawyer and adventurer Antione de Tounens who declared himself king. Tounens landed in Coquimbo, Chile and met with some Mapuche Indians who he offered to arm and help them in their struggle against Chilean government. They elected him their supreme leader thinking that a European leading them would help their cause. In 1862 the Chilean army arrested him, imprisoned him, and later declared him insane. He was shipped back to France and for years tried to gain recognition for his kingdom. He died in 1878.

The Falkland Islands/les Malouines 1764-1765
In 1764 the islands were being used by French sailors as a stopover point in the transit to Argentina and the Pacific Ocean. The French claim to the islands was cut short when English Captain John Byron explored a natural harbor on West Falkland and claimed the islands for Britain in 1756. Unaware of the French settlement on East Falkland, from 1757-1770 the British established a permanent settlement at Port Egmont. The Spanish pushed the British out in 1770 and inhabited the islands until 1811 when they left. In 1833 the British returned and the islands remain British to this day. On 2 April 1982 Argentina reasserted its claim to the islands with an amphibious invasion and quickly overran the 83 British military personnel stationed there. Britain invaded and on 14 June 1982, the Argentines surrendered and the Falklands were British again.

CENTRAL AMERICA

New Spain: Background

France attempted no colonies or conquests in Central America with the exception of Mexico. New Spain/Mexico had been controlled by Spain and a Spanish appointed Viceroy since the conquistadors under Hernan Cortes in 1518 had invaded Mexico and conquered the land. Since then, The Catholic Church and the peninsulares, those born in Spain and their descendants, had controlled the country by large land grants called encomiendas and special privileges granted by the Spanish Crown for the entrada, the invasion into Mexico. These large landowners had oppressed the peons and especially los indios, the indigenous people. Over time many of the people were restless under the yoke of Spain, the very wealthy Catholic Church, and the wealthy landowners, and in 1742 and 1792 riots erupted in several areas of the country. These uprisings lacked leadership, were not connected and in 1808, and again in 1809, food shortages created widespread unrest and more uprisings. Behind the scenes, the Church and the wealthy landowners were looking to impose a monarchy in place of the Spanish Viceroy and were actively searching for a royal person to offer the crown to.

Meanwhile, events happening in Spain had weakened the Spanish monarchy. In 1805 the Spanish fleet had been destroyed at the Battle of Trafalgar. Spanish troops were in Italy and in northern Europe with Napoleons' armies and not in Spain. Napoleon went to war with Portugal and his army transited through Spain to attack the country. Britain had joined with Portugal to resist the French and the war dragged on. With his army in Spain, Napoleon decided to take the country. He deposed the Spanish king Charles IV, and installed his brother Joseph on the combined Spanish-Portuguese thrones. Spain and Portugal both rebelled, and with the aid of Britain began the 7-year Peninsula War with France that would last until 1814. With all of this unrest Spain was weak and, in Mexico, the moment appeared right for rebellion against the longstanding Spanish yoke.

In September 1808 Spanish Viceroy to Mexico, Jose de Hurrigaray was overthrown, an uprising in favor of independence began, and Mexico was declared a Catholic Monarchy. By 1810 an armed uprising began that was led by Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, a priest that led an army of indigenous and mixed-race men. They called for an end to Spanish rule, land reform, racial equality, and were against the royalists. Hidalgo was captured and executed in 1811. Battles and conflicts like this took place all over Mexico until settled by the Treaty of Cordoba in 1821. In 1824 a new constitution was written and in 1836 Spain recognized Mexico as an independent country. The new constitution severely restricted the power of the church, the wealthy landowners, and the Mexican army and the conservatives declared the new constitution null and void.

French Intervention in Mexico 1862

For 38 years Mexico had been a free but poor country run by the Catholic Conservatives, the wealthy, and the Mexican Army which were the three bastions of conservatism in the country. The Mexican-American War of 1846-1848 had destabilized the country and the bloody battles in the 1850's between the conservatives and liberals had further divided the country and had been costly. The Catholic Conservative administration had borrowed money at exorbitant rates and with extraordinary poor terms and conditions from the major European powers to finance the Mexican government. After the Reform Wars (1857-1861) were won by the Liberals under Benito Juarez, and after taking power, Juarez found that the treasury was empty and the country bankrupt. To keep the government afloat and provide the necessary internal services for the people, as an emergency measure Juarez proposed a two-year moratorium of payment of all foreign debt, not a repudiation of the Mexican foreign debt incurred by the conservatives, but a two-year moratorium on payments. This would stabilize the Mexican economy and after two years payments would resume.

Britain, France, and Spain were owed the largest amount of the Mexican debt and were not pleased with this decision by Juarez. They were unwilling to accept a two-year delay in payments and met in London in late 1861 and signed the Convention of London. In December of 1861 all three nations sent their fleets to Vera Cruz, Mexico. This was a disregard of the Monroe Doctrine but, mired in the US Civil War, the US was powerless to oppose them. In December, Spanish forces captured the Fortress of San Juan de Ulua and in January 1862, an

additional 6,000 Spanish, 3,000 French, and 700 British troops were landed. The British and Spanish met with the Mexican Foreign Minister and agreed not to advance further into the country while talks were underway. The next month all the British and Spanish troops departed from Mexico. France, it appears, was more interested in conquest rather than debt repayment, and using that as an excuse, moved its troops inland and sought to topple the Juarez government and to install a government favorable to the French. Additional troops came ashore on 5 March 1862 to further bolster the French troops already ashore.

The conservatives, who lost the Reform Wars to Juarez, had secretly invited the French to intervene and hoped to return Mexico to a monarchy and resume their power, land, and special privileges. They had met with Napoleon III Emperor of France at the urging of the then president General Santa Anna and were hoping to return Mexico to a monarchy. With its troops ashore and the departure of the British and Spanish soldiers and fleets, France was unconstrained and continued to take territory planning on turning Mexico into a vassal state.

As the French army advanced, Napoleon III began to look for a new royal monarch to rule Mexico and the name of Archduke Maximillian of Austria was put forward. He was asked and declined the offer several times but, after he was forced to renounce all claims to the Austrian throne, he accepted Napoleon's offer. The new emperor of Mexico arrived at Veracruz on 29 May 1864, proceeded to the capitol, and Maximillian and his wife Carlotta were crowned Emperor and Empress at the Cathedral of Mexico City and moved into the Chapultepec Castle. Maximillian immediately offered an amnesty and many liberals accepted, and he began reorganizing the Mexican government bureaucracy and the Imperial Mexican Army establishing French control. He enacted many new liberal laws establishing equality of the law, freedom of speech, the rights of the workers, and a law guaranteeing the native indios a living wage. Laws were published in Spanish, Nahuatl, and the Aztec languages and many other liberal policies were enacted. All of this angered the conservatives who began plotting against him.

In 1865 the American Civil War ended and, while the US was not willing to impose the Monroe Doctrine against France who had invaded the country during the Mexican revolutionary war, it refused to recognize the new regime and secretly provided Benito Juarez a thirty-million-dollar loan. The US refused to enter militarily in Mexico but put pressure on France to quit Mexico. The régime of Maximillian was fighting both in the north and south of Mexico and Napoleon III saw that the conquest of Mexico as unwinnable. In January 1866 Napoleon III announced that he was withdrawing the French army and in October Maximillian notified his cabinet that he was going to abdicate. The cabinet voted against abdication. As the liberal and republican armies surrounded Mexico City in May, Maximillian attempted to flee through enemy lines and was captured. On 12 June he was tried and sentenced to death. On 19 June 1867 Maximillian was executed with his generals by a firing squad. This ended the French intervention in Mexico.

Fort Saint Louis, Texas1685-1689

There was another small, little known, French colony from 1865-1869 that was founded near present day Inez, Texas. French explorer Robert Cavelier de la Salle was searching for the mouth of the Mississippi River but was 400 miles (644 km) off due to navigational errors and inaccurate maps. He landed in Matagorda Bay in early 1685 and established a temporary camp while a site for a permanent settlement could be found. A site was found 50 miles (80 km) inland and all of the equipment and material would have to be carried that distance overland. Once the settlement and the fort was constructed, La Salle began exploring the area around the fort, still looking for the Mississippi River. The French encountered the Caddo Indians and had good relations with them and also encountered Jumano buffalo hunters and traders who reported the French presence to the Spanish.

For many reasons the colony floundered and without help from France or its island colonies, the colony was doomed and by January of 1867, only 45 of the original 180 colonists were all that was left. Meanwhile, the Spanish had been combing the coast looking for the colony to destroy it. It was not until they located a deserter named Jean Gery living with the Coahuiltecans who they used as an interpreter and guide to find the site of the

colony. In late April 1689 the Spanish found the colony but the few remaining colonists had been killed by the Karankawa Indians. They buried the eight cannon that were left behind and these were found by archaeologists in 1966 by the Texas Historical Commission (THC) along with the site. The three-year-search search for the French colony was a boon to Spain as the search along the Gulf of Mexico yielded them accurate maps of the Gulf coast.

France abandoned its claim to Texas on 3 November 1762 when it ceded all of the territory west of the Mississippi River to Spain in the Treaty of Fontainebleau after losing the seven-years-war. In 1803, three years after Spain returned Louisiana back to France, Napoleon sold the Louisiana Purchase to the U.S.A. In 1819 the ownership of Texas was resolved in the Adams-Onis Treaty when the U.S. relinquished its claim to Texas to Spain and Spain ceded Florida to the U.S. The borders of Texas were established along the Sabine, Red, and Arkansas Rivers as the western border of the Louisiana Purchase.

SWFAS OFFICERS AND BOARD OF DIRECTORS FOR THE 2024 CALENDAR YEAR

Officers
President: John Furey
Treasurer: Charlie Strader
Secretary: Susan Harrington
Editor: John Furey
Craighead Lab Director:
Susan Harrington

Directors
First of 3-year term:
Theresa Schober (Chapter Rep.)
Mary Southall
Second of 3-year term:
Open
Third of 3-year term:
Open

Find us on Facebook at Southwest Florida Archaeological Society!

Check out our website at http://swflarchaeology.org/

SWFAS AND FAS MEMBERSHIP APPLICATIONS

We encourage those interested in Florida archaeology to become members of The Florida Anthropological Society (FAS) and The Southwest Florida Archaeological Society (SWFAS). Annual dues are due in January and membership applications to both organizations are attached. Membership in the FAS provides you with four annual volumes of *The Florida Anthropologist* and occasional newsletters on anthropological events in Florida in addition to the annual statewide meeting. More information on FAS can be found online at: www.fasweb.org. Membership in SWFAS offers you a local series of talks on archaeological and anthropological subjects that you can attend. The SWFAS monthly newsletter keeps you up to date on local events as well as other important archaeological topics. We urge you to support both with your membership. All of the SWFAS Lecture Series are open to the public at no charge.

JOIN US!

The Southwest Florida Archaeological Society

http://swflarchaeology.org/

The Southwest Florida Archaeological Society (SWFAS) was founded in 1980 as a not-for profit corporation to provide a meeting place for people interested in the area's past.

Our goals are to:

- Learn more of the area's history
- Create a place for sharing of this information
- Advocate for preservation of cultural resources

Its members include professional and amateur archaeologists and interested members of the general public. Members come from all walks of life and age groups. They share a lively curiosity, a respect for the people who preceded them here, and a feeling of responsibility for the conservation of the places and objects they left behind.

The Society holds monthly meetings between October and April, attracting speakers who are in the forefront of archaeological and historical research. Occasionally members join in trips to historical and archaeological sites.

A monthly newsletter, Facebook page, and website keep members abreast of our events and happenings.

The organization is a chapter of the Florida Anthropological Society, a statewide organization that publishes quarterly newsletters and a journal, *The Florida Anthropologist,* and holds an annual conference.

I want to help The Southwest Florida Archaeology Society preserve and interpret Florida's heritage!

Name (please print) _____

Address_____

City/Town_____ State _____ ZIP _____

Phone _____ Email _____

Check One:

Individual ($20) _____ Sustaining Individual ($50) _____ Family ($35) _____

Student ($5) _____ Life ($500) _____

Donation to Support SWFAS Speakers and Programs _____

Skills, training, interests: _____

I hereby agree to abide by the rules and bylaws of the Southwest Archaeological Society. I further release from any and all liability due to accident and injury to myself, dependents and any property owners cooperating with the society.

Signature: _____Date _____

Please make your check out to SWFAS and mail to:

Charlie Strader
SWFAS Treasurer
27655 Kent Road
Bonita Springs, FL 34135

REV. 12052017

FAS Membership Categories

Membership in the Society is open to all interested individuals who are willing to abide by the Florida Anthropological Society Statement of Ethical Responsibilities, which can be found on our website **fasweb.org.** *Membership is for one year.* SELECT LEVEL BELOW.

___Student*	$20	___Institutional	$50
___Regular	$40	___Sustaining	$100
___Family	$45		

*Student membership is open to graduate, undergraduate and high school students. A photocopy of your student ID must accompany payment. ****Add $25 for foreign addresses.**

Member Name:_____

Email:_____

Address:_____

City:_____State:_____ZIP:_____

Phone:_____ FAS Chapter:_____

Please choose how you wish to receive the quarterly journal, *The Florida Anthropologist*.

___Digital Only (via a password protected web link) Note: Student members only receive digital access.

___Both Digital and Printed

This is a Gift Membership from: _____

In addition to this Membership, I also wish to make a donation to:

$_____ Dot Moore/FAS Student Grant Fund $_____ Florida Archaeology Month Account

$_____ Florida Anthropologist Monograph Fund $ _____ Florida Anthropologist Endowment Fund

Total Enclosed: $_____

_____ I agree to abide by the Code of Ethics of the Florida Anthropological Society.

_____

Signature Date

Send Membership Form and Dues Payment to:

Florida Anthropological Society, P O Box 1561 Boynton Beach, FL 33425

You can join online or pay Membership dues renewals via PayPal on our website fasweb.org.

THE FLORIDA ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY, INC. IS A TAX-EXEMPT 501C3 ORGANIZATION. TAX ID#59-1084419.