CURA: Looking to the 1980s

Thomas M. Scott, director

As we set foot in a new decade, a decade that promises to be considerably different from the one in which CURA was established, it seems appropriate briefly to review our heritage, consider the changes in circumstances within which we function, and anticipate how we might best serve in the foreseeable future. CURA has always operated in an evolving environment, both inside and outside the University, and, appropriately, CURA has been an evolving organization. In the paragraphs to follow I will highlight the main features of this evolutionary process and suggest some of the implications for CURA's future.

In the mid-1960s, many of the nation's larger cities erupted in disorder and violence. For the first time, widespread attention was focused on urban America and the term urban crisis became popular. For many universities, one response to the urban crisis and the domestic turmoil of the era was the creation of an urban studies center. The University of Minnesota and its Center for Urban and Regional Affairs (CURA) created in 1968, is an example. CURA's mission, like that of many other university urban studies centers, was to "help make the University more responsive to the needs of the larger community, and to increase the constructive interaction between faculty and students on one hand, and those dealing with major public problems on the other hand." Most urban studies centers emphasized problem-solving, particularly in the inner cities, and their focus reflected the concerns of the times: poverty, race, educational opportunity, health, crime, urban housing, and transportation.

Urban studies centers across the country were structured and have evolved in many different ways. Some are primarily teaching units with courses and programs leading to degrees in urban affairs. Others have become largely research and service bureaus supported by contractual arrangements with governmental agencies. CURA established its own rather unique mode of operation. First, CURA has not been a teaching unit. Second, it coordinates resources across the University and the Minnesota community rather than competing with existing units or agencies. Third, it uses University resources for short-term, pilot, and experimental projects rather than developing permanent faculty or research staff or operating long-term programs. Finally, CURA has believed that the effort by many studies centers to focus exclusively on the resolution of the immediate urban crisis has been short-sighted. Such an emphasis obscures and overshadows their long-term role in developing basic understanding of the urbanizing process and its implications for all elements of society. Consequently, a significant part of CURA's program during the past twelve years has been directed towards understanding modern urbanism and its relationships to the organization of the economy, the character of our technology (of power, transportation, and communications), and the changes in the character and distribution of our populations. CURA's programs have emphasized the regional quality and interdependence of modern urbanism, recognizing that it is not simply something confined to the inner core of large cities, but rather affects us all—in the cities, in the suburbs, in outstate regional communities, small towns, and on the farm.

In essence, CURA's programs during these past twelve years have been directed towards activating and mobilizing resources across the University and coordinating these with community concerns in order to develop and disseminate knowledge and information about our modern urban system. In this sense, then, CURA's mission has been to do for urban and regional problems what the institutes of agri-
culture have done for agriculture, what health science units have done for health, and what the engineering schools have done for industry. CURA has been asked to forge, in substantially virgin territory, a research and outreach program that will encourage interaction between University faculty and students and those dealing directly with public problems; that will generate new knowledge appropriate to contemporary issues; that will facilitate the application of established knowledge to current problems; and that will assist in the training and service that can solve these problems.

Constraints
CURA encounters four basic constraints as it seeks to carry out this mandate. First, is a problem of semantics and meaning. When many people encounter a title like Center for Urban and Regional Affairs, they emphasize the term urban despite the fact that this term has been used so widely and applied so broadly that it no longer has much precise meaning. Certainly, when cities were erupting in the middle 1960s the term urban brought to mind endless blocks of 19th century blighted buildings in the core areas of our larger cities being burned, pillaged, fired upon, and otherwise disrupted. In calmer moments we have combined urban with sprawl to refer to the gradual inundation of the rural countryside by city dwellers and city ways of life. On other occasions urban has really meant industrial or post-industrial; terms which themselves refer to an entire society structured by national economic, political, and social institutions, and linked by systems of mass communication. In short, urban seems to describe the state of our society whether we find it in densely settled central cities, in the aging inner core suburbs, on the still growing fringes of our metropolitan regions, in middle-sized regional cities, in small towns or throughout the rural countryside. In other words, the term urban, rather than referring to a particular place or kind of place has come to refer to a wide range of issues and problems in the society regardless of their location. These include housing, education, transportation, welfare, race relations, health care, quality of life, crime, cultural amenities, energy, environment, and poverty. Taking this broader view, the Center for Urban and Regional Affairs has emphasized the full range of concerns that fall within the rubric of the term urban wherever in the state of Minnesota they may be found.

Secondly, unlike institutes of agriculture, health sciences units, and institutes of technology, CURA has no industrial or private sector advocates outside the University lending support and assistance. There is no urban industry as there is an agriculture industry, a manufacturing and commercial industry, or a health-care industry. There are many separate interests, in both the private and public sectors, that have a stake in urban problems and the urbanizing process but there is no natural and definable urban constituency outside the University to define problems and to provide support.

Third, research, education, and service in urban problems can be extraordinarily controversial. Urban related issues often touch the tenderest sensitivities of society—race relations, income distribution, economic development, and environmental concerns, to name a few. Not only are such issues divisive in society generally, but they are often linked closely to partisan divisions in legislative and executive bodies, at all levels of government. When one is dealing with urban matters, the odds are very high that controversy will be generated.

Finally, urban concerns are relatively new on the public agenda. Consequently, their theoretical and methodological bases are embryonic and much that is produced is frustratingly tentative to the faculty and to the community. Furthermore, when it comes to urban problems and issues, the faculty and students who constitute the University's major resource, are not as accustomed to thinking about or working with the community as are faculty and students in other parts of the University. They don't have shared appointments with outreach units as do many faculty in the Institute of Agriculture. They don't have research appointments as do some faculty in the Institute of Technology. They don't have clinical practices as do faculty in the medical fields. Consulting in the private sector is the exception rather than the rule. Many faculty interested in urban problems come from the social sciences where the incentive system for tenure, promotion, and salary increases have not rewarded research and teaching that stresses interaction with the community. Nor do the reward systems encourage cross-disciplinary research and teaching among social science and "hard science" faculty despite the fact that such cross-fertilization is likely to produce important and valuable new knowledge as we respond to urban concerns.

CURA's long term role is to develop "basic understanding of the urbanizing process and its implications for all elements of society."

In summary, because the term urban refers to many and often very different aspects of modern society, because there is no identifiable urban industry or urban interest sup-
port group outside the University, because urban issues are often controversial, and because the intellectual underpinnings for urban research are still in their embryonic stages, the task of building a high quality University capacity to develop new knowledge about urban affairs and disseminating that knowledge to the community outside the University will not be simple. Nor, because of the problems described above, should the structure and organization of this effort necessarily be similar to other University units that regularly interact with the community like the Institute of Agriculture, Continuing Education and Extension, the Health Sciences, or the Institute of Technology.

Changing Circumstances
CURA was created in a time of crisis and turmoil. Its purpose was to make University resources available to address the pressing needs of the community as expeditiously as possible. It brought University and community people with diverse backgrounds together. It developed pilot and experimental projects; some persisted, others were terminated when they had outlived their utility. CURA was responsive. And CURA reached out to the community.

By the early 1970s the pressures generated by the urban crisis were reduced. Issues like transportation, environment, governmental structures, and information systems were added to the urban public agenda created in the mid-1960s when race, poverty, housing, crime, education and jobs were stressed. CURA began to work more closely (and in a few instances quite extensively) with government agencies, helping them develop their capacity to deal with the problems of an urbanizing Minnesota.

Now, at the beginning of the new decade it has become clear that the environment within which CURA operates has changed again. Inquiries and requests from the community have diminished from what they were ten years ago, in large part because many public and private agencies with specialized skills and operating programs have been established to respond to such needs.

Relationships with government have also changed. On the one hand, federal and state funding for new projects and programs is diminished and much urban related research, rather than being supported in universities, is now conducted by agency staff personnel or by private sector professional research organizations in response to requests for proposals. On the other hand there is interest in Congress in a U.S. Urban Grant University Program, although final approval and funding are still pending. What the role of universities and centers like CURA will be in such a program remains unclear.
Circumstances within the University of Minnesota itself are much different from what they have been in the past twelve years. In general, the era of rapid expansion and program growth is over. Many parts of the University, including the College of Liberal Arts, are being significantly entrenched while some units with high vocational appeal (such as business, journalism, and technology) are having their resources increased. In addition, and more directly related to CURA's program, there has been the development of the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs. The long-term organizational and administrative implications of all these developments remain to be seen.

"The issues of the early 1980s are different from and more confused than the issues of the preceding fifteen years."

Finally, urban-related concerns are always associated with, and in part a consequence of, the more general concerns of the society. There is no doubt that the issues of the early 1980s are different from and more confused than the issues of the preceding fifteen years. Concerns over the environment are now complicated by our very real energy needs. Issues related to jobs, poverty, housing, and welfare are seriously confounded by our inability to deal effectively, nationally or internationally, with inflation and economic malaise. We have had enough experience with citizen participation to know that it is not a simple matter and that it can vastly complicate the processes of public decision-making. The rapid growth during the late 1960s of the role of the federal government in domestic problems has left us with an enormously complex and perhaps unworkable intergovernmental system. Our naive faith in the capacity of money to solve social problems has been replaced with a cynical pessimism about the ability of government to accomplish anything. And, more recently, international events have once again begun to dominate and frustrate our attention.

Ironically, the reduction in the pressures and forces that spawned CURA initially and have shaped its programs since the late 1960s now provides the opportunity for CURA to clarify its goals and adjust its objectives. Rather than having to respond to the crises of the moment CURA can now, in a more deliberate and systematic fashion, help the community assess its needs on the one hand and organize and activate the resources of the University on the other hand to deal in the most effective ways possible with the implications of urbanization for Minnesota.

As we assess CURA's brief history in the context of changes in circumstances, both inside and outside the University, and try to anticipate the foreseeable future, it seems clear that CURA has evolved appropriately in the past and that the following goals should improve its capacity to conduct its mission in the future:

1. Strengthen its agenda setting function—by helping the agencies and the organizations of Minnesota identify and clarify those urban-related concerns where the University of Minnesota can assist and by helping University faculty and students apply their expertise and energies to such concerns.

2. Facilitate the interaction between University people and community people—as they work together to discover and establish new knowledge relevant to the problems associated with urbanization.

3. Improve throughout the state the dissemination of new ideas and approaches—to those who can use them as they confront the processes of urbanization.

To help accomplish these goals CURA will make some adjustments in its organization and structure.

CURA will establish an Outreach Office under the leadership of CURA Associate Director, Thomas Anding. Initially, the office will include CURA's current full-time staff coordinators who will continue with their major efforts in minority programs and housing. The primary objective of the Outreach Office will be to expand contacts in the Minnesota community and to increase interactions between the community and University faculty and students. In addition, this office should increase CURA's capacity to cooperate effectively with existing University outreach units, such as Agricultural Extension, Continuing Education and Extension, and the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs.

CURA will establish a competitive research support program for faculty and graduate students to encourage research on projects of importance in understanding the urbanizing process in Minnesota.

CURA will make greater use of contractual relationships with faculty and students to accomplish specific projects developed through increased interaction with the community.

CURA will consolidate its research facilities, services, and functions in a new office under the leadership of CURA Assistant Director, William Craig.

Although each of these efforts will require advanced planning and timely resource allocation, CURA will continue to maintain sufficient reserves so that it can respond quickly and appropriately to concerns that arise throughout the year. This is essential because many of the important issues coming to CURA from the community do not fit neatly into academic calendars and pre-planned schedules. CURA's objective is to maintain a balance between longer-term planning, in order to make maximum use of faculty and student time and expertise, and resource flexibility, in order to respond rapidly when the need arises.

If nothing else, the urban turmoil of the middle 1960s and the almost frantic array of social experiments in the 1970s have caught our attention. For the first time as a nation we realized that we are a modern urban society; that problems and issues are different from what they have been; and that "tried and true" solutions and responses don't always work the way they are supposed to. The fact that the sense of crisis seems to have passed and our attentions are now diverted elsewhere does not mean that the problems and issues have gone away. What is needed now is careful and thoughtful attention to these issues, free from the pressures of crisis. What is needed now is to attract and equip the very best resources available at the University, to turn their attention to the most persistent of these nagging problems and issues, and to make the results of their work as widely available as possible.

CURA, like other urban studies centers, lacks the long history and traditions as well as the financial and political support of other University units whose development of knowledge and dissemination activities interact closely with the community. Nevertheless, CURA can, with the resources available, begin to make a dent in our ignorance and in a small way, do for the urbanizing Minnesota community what these other, more established University units, have done for their constituencies.
Windows to the Past: Minnesota County Atlases
by Mai Treude

Mai Treude is the librarian in charge of the map library at the University of Minnesota. In response to the many requests for county atlases that she has received over the years, she devoted her sabbatical time in 1978 to surveying Minnesota libraries so that a comprehensive list of Minnesota county atlases might be prepared. Her survey yielded some surprising information including the discovery of a number of relatively unknown atlases. Her completed listing of these atlases and their locations (Windows to the Past: A Bibliography of Minnesota County Atlases) has just been published by CURA.

Ms. Treude's book is the first of its kind—a comprehensive listing of our state's county atlases. Until now, the only available lists of county atlases were limited to holdings in the Library of Congress. Half of Ms. Treude's listings are new, citing atlases held by public libraries, historical societies, colleges, and universities across the state. Her book should prove to be a valuable tool to those who are already aware of the treasure of information that these atlases contain. For those unfamiliar with these unique records of rural America, we present here some excerpts adapted from the introduction to Windows to the Past along with a few samples taken from the atlases themselves.

Many people seek out Minnesota county atlases. Some are scholars and students pursuing research; others are tracing their own family histories; still others are merely curious. Why county atlases? Because they represent a uniquely American storehouse of historical data on the lives of rural Americans.

The typical county atlas is a bound collection of cadastral township maps. Each township is given its own page, and land ownership is indicated on each map. Although this is a fairly standard format, it leaves room for a great deal of variation. During the 118 years of county atlas publishing, a number of different styles have emerged. For example, a county atlas may be a voluminous 150-page work measuring 18 inches tall and elaborately illustrated with lithographs, sketches, and photographs. It may include colored township maps, separate town plans, and abundant textual materials. One such county atlas bears the following impressive title: Standard Atlas of Otter Tail County, Minnesota: including a plat book of the villages, cities and townships of the county, map of the State, United States and world; patron directory, business reference directory and departments devoted to general information; analysis of the system of U.S. Land Surveys; digest of the system of civil government, etc., etc. Compiled and published by Geo. A. Ogles & Co., Chicago, 1912.

Or, a county atlas may be a slim, 72-page paperbound publication consisting mainly of township maps and advertisements. In this type of atlas, an index to advertisers may take the place of a rural directory, and the entire intent of the publication may appear to be the promotion of local business.

In spite of the seeming variety of atlases which have been published, they all have one main feature in common—the documentation of individual land ownership (figure 1). Other regular features include descriptions of roads, railroads, property lines, buildings, government lots, ditches, rivers, and other physical phenomena (with the exception of land elevation). Table 1 lists the types of information found in current county atlases.
Table 1. TYPES OF INFORMATION FOUND IN COUNTY ATLASES PUBLISHED DURING THE LAST DECADE

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<td>Buildings: public, churches</td>
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<td>SPECIAL FEATURES</td>
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<td>County history</td>
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<td>Land descriptions: important facts</td>
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<td>Genealogy forms (&quot;Things to remember&quot;)</td>
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The early atlases present delightful examples of nineteenth century rural America. Many provide detailed information on the lives of rural citizens of the time (figure 2).

Historians, genealogists, geologists, geographers, surveyors, lawyers, tax officials, and realtors are already well aware of the research value of county atlases. Frequently, these atlases reveal family relationships and histories which are essential to the historical reconstruction of cultural landscapes. In cases where a number of atlases have been published over the years for the same county, these may be used in comparative studies of townships.

County atlases are more useful than county maps for a number of reasons. First, atlases simply contain more supplementary and detailed information than maps alone. Second, it is generally believed that fewer county maps have been preserved intact. And, finally, county atlases are found in many places across the state, including libraries and county historical societies. As such, they are readily accessible to the general public who frequently consult them as cartographic reference tools.

Atlases are not immune to criticism, however. Many contain inaccuracies in reported boundaries as well as in their business and personal directories. Some were put together quickly rather than carefully. A number—especially those which have been recently published—employ such a small scale that the study of finely subdivided land is nearly impossible. And some researchers balk at the seeming overemphasis on advertising. Most people, however, feel that this latter point simply makes for more interesting reading.

How County Atlas Publishing Developed in the United States

In 1879, a man named Bates Harrington published a book entitled How 'Tis Done. A Thorough Ventilation of the Numerous Schemes Conducted by Wandering Canvassers Together With the Various Advertising Dodges for the Swindling of the Public. Obviously, it was intended as a warning to those who might fall victim to the wiles of those involved in the county atlas business. In his own words:

It is the purpose of this volume to treat of that fairly numberless class of canvassers with whom the farmer, and townspeople most especially are almost daily thrown into contact, and who, roaming from town to town and house to house, have some article to

Most authors writing about county atlases have done so with enthusiasm and fondness, praising them for their many entertaining and useful features. As one said, the geographical atlases...represent a distinctive phase of American cartographic development. They are typical of American enterprise and have no counterpart in other countries, where cadastral surveys are issued by governmental organizations rather than by commercial publishers. That these atlases have satisfied a cultural need is apparent from their great popularity and the wide distribution they have attained.

The generous support which the atlas publishers received from land owners in the more prosperous sections of the country contributed toward the growth of a far reaching industry. The Nation is indebted to the ingenious businessmen who produced these works which now have considerable historical significance.
ELBA.

Ableidner, Fred. Farmer. St. Charles 34
Brosg, Christ. Farmer. Elba 1
Burger, A. Farmer. Elba 11
Churchill, E. D. Dealer in Heavy and Shelf Hardware, Stoves, Tinware, Paints, Oils, etc. Elba 10
Churchill, F. Farmer. Elba 2
Clausen, H. Proprietor of Elba House; also Dealer in all kinds of Fresh and Salt Meats. Elba 10
Denio, H. F. Retired. Elba 10
Demuth, F. R. Farmer. Elba 20
Ellis, E. C. Proprietor of Fairwater Roller Mill. Flour, Feed, Graham, Corn Meal, etc. Pure Buckwheat Flour a Specialty. Awarded World's Columbian Exposition Premium on Silk Finish Flour. Fairwater 5
Fay, C. A. Farmer. St. Charles 30
Feigert, Sophia Proprietor of Anatauk Stock Farm. Farming St. Charles 33
Gainey, M. W. Farmer. Elba 10
Gainey, Mrs. M. W. The Greatest Complexion Beautifier ever known is her famous White Lily Wash. Used by leading society ladies, belles and mistresses of the land. One trial will convince any gentleman or lady of its merits. One month's use will make the worst complexion one of beauty. Call on your druggist for it. This is to certify that we, Goltz & Gerkich, chemists of Winona, Minn., have analyzed Mrs. M. W. Gainey's Famous White Lily Wash, and find it to contain nothing poisonous or injurious to the skin. Elba 10
Gainey, Mike. Farmer. St. Charles 35
Gainey, W. Dealer in Hardware, Stoves, Crockery, Glassware, Paints, Oils and Farm Implements. Elba 10
Heim, A. Proprietor of Lyndale Stock and Dairy Farm, Walnut Grove Stock and Grain Farm, Heim's Kelly Farm and Cockrell Stock Farm in Town 100, R. 11. St. Charles 27

Figure 2. A sample of the directory information given in the Patron's Directory for the township of Elba. From Plat Book of Winona County by Charles M. Foote, 1894.

Durrell, J. G., Proprietor The Fergus Hide, Fur and Wool Co., Fergus Falls. 1900. Mr. J. G. Durrell was born in Embden, Somerset County, Maine, May 18, 1848. He is a veteran of the Civil War, serving in Co. C, 3rd Wisconsin Vol. He was married to Dorothy Smorthet Nov. 20, 1867, in Pilot Mound, Webster County, Iowa. Has had an active life as a farmer, mill man and editor. Has always taken interest in public affairs. Moved to Fergus Falls, July 4, 1900, where he owns some valuable property. He is proud of his home city and is doing his best to make it a model city for a home. Mr. and Mrs. Durrell are the parents of eight children, five of whom are living and three are buried in Iowa. The sons are Wm. B., who is a farmer in Colorado; Joseph H., who is a banker in Havana, Cuba; Sumner G., who is a railroad man in Oklahoma. The daughters are Mary F., the wife of C. W. Whitney, a teacher in Durant, Oklahoma, and Edith B., who is the wife of Geo. B. Sailor, a lawyer and whose home is in Oklahoma.

Figure 3. A typical biographical entry from the Standard Atlas of Otter Tail County, Minnesota, published by George A. Ogle and Co. in Chicago, 1912. Space for biographies and family histories was sold to patrons living in the county.

dispose of which they will offer for sale at what may appear to be prices far below current rates. These wares are generally novel in design, attractive in appearance, or seemingly valuable in application to the advertised end. Most of them cannot be purchased through the ordinary channels of trade, being made for the sole purpose of sale by authorized agents, who place them upon the market and reap the financial harvest. It is hardly necessary for us to say, in this connection, that the wares of these peripatetic salesmen are, for the major part, frauds, or, at least, possessed of such trifling merits as to be of no practical use. There is not, probably, a resident of the rural regions who has not been approached by these traveling agents, and knows by bitter experience and dear cost how true are the assertions we have above made.

Harrington was one of the most outspoken critics of atlas publishing. He felt that the whole affair was a scam and that the canvassers, high-pressure salesmen, and subscription agents were no better than the sellers of lightning rods and patent medicines (whom he also lambasted). His delightful book is far more than mere muckraking, however. It includes some of the most informative chapters available on nineteenth century map and atlas production, along with descriptions of the information-gathering methods used.

Harrington described the birth of the atlas business as follows:

ALL GO INTO THE ATLAS BUSINESS. The Atlas fever seemed to strike the map man alike; for in a short space of time they were all publishing atlases. Those in the East continued on the odometer plan of making surveys. They did nothing in the picture, portrait, or biography line, but confined themselves to making accurate maps. Their sales were not large, and the only advantage the atlas had over the maps was the change it gave their canvassers. A man having a county map ten years old would not buy another; but, if the same map was cut up in sections and bound in an atlas, they would be carried into new fields by the canvasser, and (the man would) subscribe.

His account was not far from the truth. As it turned out, county atlases were more or less "invented" by publishers looking for more profitable business ventures. They began by binding maps between covers (which could then sell for more than plain maps) and moved quickly into issuing them as atlases. Few county atlas users today are aware of the fact that these valuable records of the past exist primarily because of the profitmindedness of certain nineteenth-century businessmen.

The introduction of lithography into the United States during the late 1840s made it possible to reproduce maps and atlases at
moderate cost. County atlas publishing grew out of county map publishing, which had its beginnings in the late 1830s and saw a period of rapid growth between 1851 and 1860. The earliest known county atlas is the Map of Berks County Pennsylvania from Actual Surveys by L. Fagan, published in 1861 by H.F. Bridgens of Philadelphia. This segmented and bound version of an earlier wall map was followed by a more substantial 1862 edition.

Once the prosperous and populous counties of the Ohio Valley and the Great Lakes states had been mapped, the cartographers moved beyond the Mississippi. Atlas publishers have always been attracted by areas having large numbers of well-off farmers and landowners. Bates Harrington may have summarized this preference best:

A great many counties in Iowa have never had a map or history; but when those fellows skip a county, it is one with very few people living in it.

Philadelphia was the first center of American atlas publishing. In fact, it was unrivaled during the 1870s. In subsequent years, New York, Chicago, and Minneapolis entered the field, with Rockford, Illinois joining in much later. From 1865 through 1890, an estimated 750 county atlases were published in the United States, with the peak production period occurring between 1872 and 1877. Chicago took over the lead after 1890, and Minneapolis/St. Paul assumed third place. Around 1910, the Minnesota cities had moved to second place.

At various times, the atlas publishing business has been dominated by a small number of firms. Between 1892 and 1923, for example, George A. Ogle and Company of Chicago and the Northwest Publishing Company of Philadelphia were responsible for the majority of atlases printed in this country. The Ogle Company alone produced over 600 known county atlases during that period. It was not unusual, however, for some of the eastern publishers to collaborate with smaller houses in the Midwest. From time to time, a Midwestern publisher would contract its lithographic and printing work to a large firm in Philadelphia or New York. It was also common for a publisher to engage the services of a drafting or engraving firm located elsewhere, as did Webb Publishing in St. Paul when it employed the Kenyon Company of Des Moines.

County atlas publishing quickly became more than just the printing of cartographic records. Publishers soon realized that selling space for advertisements and biographical sketches (figure 3) provided a profitable sideline. Many atlases were illustrated with sketches of homes and businesses (figure 4) and portraits of individuals (figure 5). Sales were aided by local newspapers, who were encouraged to publish

Figure 4. Lithographic reproductions of homes and businesses were common in early county atlases. Photographs replaced lithographs in later editions. These samples are from An Illustrated Historical Atlas of the State of Minnesota by Alfred T. Andreas, published in Chicago in 1874.
articles about forthcoming atlases. Frequently, canvassers simply copied official survey maps obtained from General Land Offices, and publishers later embellished them with information on roads, buildings, farms, and other features.

Most early atlases published for Midwestern counties were elaborately illustrated. This is largely due to the efforts of Alfred T. Andreas, a Chicago publisher who is credited with originating both the illustrated county and state atlases. Although he never published county atlases for Minnesota, focusing instead on Ohio, Iowa, and Illinois, Minnesota was the subject of his first state atlas.

Regardless of the methods used by atlas publishers and their canvassers, maps and atlases became very popular in a relatively short period of time. Bates Harrington grudgingly acknowledged this fact when he reported that lowans spent $2.8 million on them within a ten-year span, a figure which he determined after analyzing 61 counties in the state with over 10,000 inhabitants. And, rather than waning, the popularity of county atlases has continued through the first three-quarters of the twentieth century. In Minnesota, the heaviest publishing effort has occurred during the last 30 years. A select group of publishers has continued to dominate the field. In fact, there are fewer firms engaged in the business today than there were at the turn of the century.

County Atlases in Minnesota

County atlas publishing in Minnesota had its beginnings, however modest, during the 1860s. The first known atlases compiled for the state were published in 1867 by Lyman G. Bennett of Chicago for Ramsey and Winona counties. Both publications are unassuming volumes lacking the familiar directories of land owners. However, they do contain lithographs of residences, businesses, and various institutions (figures 6 & 7).

It was not long before atlas publishing became a thriving enterprise. During the period from 1890 through 1910, 33 publishers produced a total of 127 county atlases for Minnesota. The most prolific of these included George A. Ogle Co of Chicago, Northwest Publishing Co. of Philadelphia, and Webb Publishing Co. of St. Paul, who together produced two-thirds of the atlases published at that time. And these had come a long way from the unadorned volumes put together by Lyman G. Bennett; most are elaborately illustrated and supplemented by various other information.

The steady growth that began during the 1890s was followed by a slow decline which started in the 1920s and continued through the 1940s—the period encompassing the Great Depression and the two World Wars. The large publishers who had dominated the field thus far gave way to smaller firms. The 96 county atlases on record as having been produced during this time were published by 60 individual firms scattered throughout the state, while the five largest firms—the Hudson Map Co. of Minneapolis, the Anderson Publishing Co. of Des Moines, the Central Atlas Co. of Chicago, and the Webb Publishing Co. and The Farmer of St. Paul—were responsible for only a third of the total, or about six atlases each.

Throughout the first half of the twentieth century, atlas production lay primarily in the hands of local and regional publishers, small presses, newspapers, farm bureaus, and county surveyors. These included the Security Surveying Co. of St. Paul, the Scott County Farm Bureau of Mankato, Perfection Press of Inver Grove Heights, the Livewire Printing Co. of Jackson, the Plaindealer Publishing Co. of St. James, and others, none of whom was really in business as an atlas publisher per se.

Between 1940 and 1960, a number of atlases were sponsored by local farm bureaus. These atlases tended to be modest, paperbound works of plat maps interspersed with advertisements. They were frequently distributed free to area farmers, although most indicated a price (averaging $12.50) on their covers.

In the meantime, the atlases themselves changed form. The era of sumptuously illustrated volumes passed, and voluminous and often high-priced atlases gave way to simple, inexpensive, and frequently paperbound collections of county maps. Fortunately, however, they still contained information on property ownership; most importantly, they were still produced and sold commercially.

All during the twentieth century, plat book and atlas coverage has tended to focus on the southeast, southwest, and northwest regions of the state. In other words, publishers still behave like those observed by Bates Harrington in the nineteenth century, zeroing in on counties having sizable populations and a relatively large number of farms.

The motive for county atlas publishing—profit—has not changed. Even though it may appear to be more difficult to reap large profits from small paperbound volumes than elaborate subscription issues, advertising revenues apparently remain lucrative enough to warrant continuing publication.

Another facet of atlas publishing has remained constant throughout the years: namely, the intent of the atlases themselves. In general, most are aimed at promoting local businesses and stressing the virtues of the counties represented. They serve as open invitations to tourists, home seekers, and business developers by lauding the community and its human and natural resources. As such, they rarely lack for sponsors and patrons. Frequent reminders
to support local advertisers "who have helped make this atlas possible" appear in many volumes. Typical are those found in atlases published during the 1920s:

A pair of glasses would help to study this map. Please notice the arrow, we are located on first floor of 420 So. Front St. between Smiths Jewelry Store and Kyser Meat Market. It its Optica we can make it or get if for you. H.C. Prey, D.O. Optical Specialist.

Blue Earth County Atlas, 1921.

Morrison County invites you for business, pleasure and health—This ATLAS presents opportunities to manufacturers for location of industries, to business, to farmers, to dairymen, to land seekers, to home builders, to pleasure seekers and lovers of nature offered by our beautiful lakes, rivers and woods.

Each township has wonderful opportunities. Read every page—study every map. Our resources are open to you. Accept our invitation and hospitality.

COME JOIN US.
Atlas of Morrison County, Minnesota, 1920, by Philip S. Randall.

The land of cattle, clover, corn and potatoes. In the heart of the famous Park Region of Northern Minnesota—The playground of the great prosperous Northwest.

Up-to-date Tourists' and Homeseekers' Guide of Hubbard County, Minnesota, 1923, by G.A. Todd.

Atlases and plat books continue to provide valuable insights into rural cultural history and geography. However, only a handful produced today include pictorial and biographical sections.

Modern county atlas publishing in Minnesota had its true beginnings during the 1950s, which saw an almost unbelievably high rate of production. From 1950 and continuing through 1978, 510 atlases were published by 44 individual firms. Not surprisingly, a small number of firms once again began to dominate the field. Three-quarters of all atlases published during this time were produced by a total of five publishers: Rockford Map Publishers, Inc. of Rockford, Ill.; Thomas O. Nelson Co. of Fergus Falls; Midland Atlas Co. of Milbank, South Dakota; Title Atlas Co. of Minneapolis; and Farm Plat Book Publishing Co. of Mankato.

Most publishers today adhere to a fairly uniform format. The typical modern plat book has a soft leatherette cover and spiral wire binding and measures 14 inches tall, on the average. It contains township maps, a rural directory, and advertisements. The maps appear on alternate pages, frequently numbered, while the supplementary and directory information following the maps appears on unnumbered pages. There are, of course, exceptions to this for-

Figure 6. Lithograph of a commercial building from one of the earliest county atlases in Minnesota: Map of Ramsey County, Minnesota published by Lyman G. Bennett of Chicago in 1867. Reproduced here courtesy of the Minnesota Historical Society.
counties. Although these volumes are very popular, they do not emphasize cultural and directory information. At the other end of the scale is the Title Atlas Co. and its voluminous pictorial supplements. Volumes published by this firm tend to contain relatively large amounts of personal information about county residents. Not uncommon are specifics about a family’s business, size, and religious affiliation. Individual memberships in organizations are also noted.

All publishers surveyed indicated that while they engage in other types of printing, county atlases make up the bulk of their business. Annual production ranges from 6 to 180 volumes. When asked to specify the determining factors which led to the publication of new or revised atlases, most publishers acknowledged that the frequency with which land changed hands and population fluctuated were both influential. One company was quite frank in admitting that it decided to publish a new atlas “whenever profitable.” Rockford Map Publishers, Inc. follows a standard policy of updating atlases after a three-year interval.

Publishers still derive most of the information they need from maps found at local county court houses. However, many supplement this with fieldwork, personal interviews with citizens, and contacts with city engineers and highway departments.

The most typical plat books being published today are put out by the American Atlas Co., the Midland Atlas Co., K.R. Thompson Co., and Title Atlas Co., all of which produce volumes containing traditional features including biographies of residents, rural directories, and the like. Rockford Map Publishers, Inc., covers the largest number of Minnesota counties and provides the most up-to-date atlases. Only the Carson Map Co. focuses on urban rather than rural counties; since its relocation from Watertown, South Dakota to Harlingen, Texas, it is no longer considered a midwestern publisher.

An average of eight atlases or plat books have been published per Minnesota county. In spite of the high rate of publishing during the last decade, there are still some counties—namely, Lake and Cook—which have not been represented at all. Others have received extensive coverage; for example, there are 25 atlases in existence for Watonwan county. In publishers’ eyes at least, Watonwan appears to be the ideal Minnesota county.

Figure 7. Illustrations of busy rural scenes were typical of early county atlases. This scene is from Bennett’s 1867 atlas, Map of Winona County, Minnesota. Reproduced here courtesy of the Minnesota Historical Society.
Two Energy Studies Supported by CURA

CURA resources are sometimes used to help sustain research projects ongoing in various parts of the University. Recently two such projects were completed in the Institute of Technology.

Residential Energy Use

An analysis of residential energy use, directed by Professor R. J. Goldstein, was undertaken in the Department of Mechanical Engineering. Three separate studies were made of single family residences in the Twin Cities. Data on energy use was obtained from local utility companies and compared with the physical characteristics of the homes as reported in government documents.

In the first study 225 homes in Ramsey County were studied. They were all similar in size, age, and construction. Large variations were found in consumption of both gas and electricity among these nearly identical homes.

The second study examined electric use of 1,664 homes in Ward 4 of Minneapolis. The homes displayed wide variation in physical characteristics. A number of physical variables (such as total living area, number of stories, and ground floor living area) were analyzed to see if this would explain the variations in electric consumption. Only 12 percent of the variation could be accounted for by the variables studied.

The third study, involving all 65,000 homes in Minneapolis, sought a correlation between gas consumption and physical characteristics of the home. Utility data was merged with city assessor records via computer tapes. Privacy rights were carefully maintained. A close relationship was found between gas consumption and housing floor area, however a large part of the variation in gas consumption could not be explained by the physical variables that were examined. No data was obtained on insulation or weatherstripping. Nevertheless one tentative conclusion is that differences in the life styles and habits of residents may be more important than housing structure characteristics in determining residential energy use.

For more details on this project contact R.J. Goldstein at the Department of Mechanical Engineering, University of Minnesota. A publication HTL TR No. 114: Analysis of Residential Energy Use, Goldstein, Schneider, and Clarke (Heat Transfer Laboratory, September 1979) was prepared and a few copies are available.

Thermal Storage for Solar Heating

A second energy related project within the Institute of Technology, directed by Professor William Garrard, examined the feasibility of using long-term thermal storage (approximately 30 days) for residential solar heating in Minnesota. Through computer simulation a number of storage systems were compared on the basis of operating and initial costs. The systems were also compared with costs of conventional heating with gas and electricity. Six systems were compared: one air system with a pebble bed and five hydronic systems. The hydronic systems used various numbers and sizes of storage tanks with or without a heat pump. Rather than specifying the best system, the project detailed the sensitivity of each configuration to various external and internal parameters, such as the rate of heat loss and the cost of interest rates for the initial investment in each system.

For further information on the project contact William L. Garrard in the Department of Aerospace Engineering and Mechanics. A report of the project titled "Evaluation of Long-term Thermal Energy Storage for Solar Heating in Minnesota" was prepared for the Minnesota Energy Agency.

More on Minnesota's Peaklands

Dear Mr. Anderson,

I was surprised to see the headline for your article "Minnesota's Peat: a Waiting Resource in our Northern Wastelands" in the recent CURA Reporter. I'm afraid it perpetuates and re-inforces a common public opinion that any land not used for commercial gain or for recreation is a wasteland, and that the State should put every effort into finding a way to exploit it.

Completely overlooked in your article is the concept that an undisturbed landscape has considerable scientific value for future ecologic and geologic study. The Red Lake peatland, for example, which is the target of the Minnesagos proposal for a gasification operation, contains the largest undisturbed area of wilderness in the country east of the Rocky Mountains, except for the BWCA, and in addition it is marked by a complex of vegetation patterns that is unique on this continent if not in the world. To neglect the scientific aspect of the peatlands as a significant resource is to ignore an important consideration in land planning. It also must be acknowledged that a substantial number of Minnesotans have appreciation for the wilderness value of Minnesota's undisturbed peatlands, even though these areas have little direct recreational value.

Sincerely yours,

H.E. Wright
Regents Professor
Limnological Research Center

Editor's note:
CURA agrees with Professor Wright that the wording in the title referred to leaves an unfortunate impression, not intended by CURA or author, Jeffrey Anderson. The areas in northern Minnesota discussed in the article should more appropriately have been described as "wetlands."
Professor Wright's letter is printed here because it mentions uses of the peatlands beyond those discussed in Anderson's article.
Community in Southdale

by David Cooperman and Lea Hagoel

David Cooperman is a long-time friend of CURA's having served as supervisor for our Community University Programs in the 1960s. He is a professor in the Department of Sociology and will become chair of that department in July. Studies related to the urban community are his special field of interest. Cooperman is also a member of the steering committee of the American Sociological Association's Committee on Housing. Lea Hagoel, a graduate student at the University, is finishing her doctoral degree in sociology. She comes from Israel where she completed her undergraduate work at Haifa University. Studies of community and friendship patterns are her specialty.

Metropolitan areas have increased in size and number since World War II. Within such habitats, migration patterns indicate continuing flight to suburban and exurban places despite the mass media focus on the return to the city. To what degree are basic community ties found among the increasing numbers of suburbanites? Some critics claim that there is no sense of community in the suburbs. A significant development in social science research suggests that community relationships persist in number and basic type, but that the patterns of contact, the networks of kinship, friendship and neighboring, have been transformed (Wellman 1979).

What about community relationships in the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area (TCMA)? To what degree and in what ways do suburbanites in growing centers relate to one another in kinship, friendship and as neighbors? And what does friendship mean in the light of high population mobility? The first ring suburbs in the Twin Cities, like those in other North American metropolitan areas, have become the site of most multi-family unit construction. Do apartment and condominium dwellers behave differently concerning their neighbors than those who live in single family homes and who may have resided in the neighborhood for a longer time? What differences are there concerning attitudes toward the neighborhood and identification with the area as a community? These and allied questions became the basis of a two-phased study of the people in the Southdale area.

The Southdale Habitat

Our study site is a high population density center in the TCMA located immediately to the west of the Southdale shopping center in Edina. The area is bounded by four major roadways: the Crosstown Highway (62) on the north, Interstate 494 to the south, Highway 100 on the west, and Xerxes Avenue to the east (see map). These major thoroughfares severely limit pedestrian traffic and seem to set the area apart from Edina proper and from the surrounding suburbs of Bloomington and Richfield. The habitat consists of an extremely varied mixture of residential, commercial, light industrial, and recreational structures. High-rise hotels and luxury condominiums, garden apartment complexes, an office park extending for a mile across the southern width of the area, traditional single family homes, and a large golf course, all contribute to the mixed land use character of the place and to its sense of autonomy. The commercial facilities, including Southdale Shopping Center, produce a daytime population of non-residents who pass through perimeter streets to reach their work or shopping sites. But also, at many points in the middle of the area, single family homes, apartment complexes, office buildings, and recreational areas adjoin one another.

The northern and largest segment of the area consists of single family dwellings laid out in the style of a standard garden suburb. Curving streets and cul-de-sacs follow the contours of Lake Cornelia. The settlement pattern reflects a plan prevalent in Great Britain and North America since the turn of the century. Up to the early 1950s this area and its population could easily be classified as a bedroom suburb. The development of the interstate freeway system (and in particular, the 100-494 interchange) and the building of the nation's first comprehensive enclosed shopping center at Southdale, imposed another and different layer of land use constraints and consequent interaction patterns. By the 1960s and 1970s the linear strip from Highway 100 east along Highway 494 became the spine of an intensive area of commercial development. "... 48 percent of the total suburban industrial park land value is concentrated in the western part of the Edina airport district—testimony to the pull of the market toward the Southwest." (Abler, Adams, Borcherth 1976, p. 60). While high density nodes exist in other first ring suburbs in the TCMA, this one is the most massive and it now comprises the northern section of a growing area of mixed land use which stretches several miles south to Burnsville. Combining buildings to house light-industrial activity with a variety of residential buildings without creating any systemic boundaries, represents the most typical kind of suburban development in North America today.

Research Methods.

In the fall of 1978 a pre-tested questionnaire was mailed to a representative sample of residents. A two-stage cluster sample
of households was used to choose 139 respondents. The questionnaire items were grouped so that composite measures of the following characteristics were possible: attitudes toward and knowledge of the neighborhood, patterns of interaction with neighbors, participation in neighborhood groups, use of neighborhood services, family and friendship relationships, and friendship values. Basic demographic information was also collected. The methods of information collection and analysis had built-in safeguards protecting the confidentiality of individual respondents.

After the questionnaires were scored, a subsample of 57 residents was interviewed in depth concerning their friendship values, expectations, and behavior. Specifically, we wanted to examine the pattern of beliefs and interaction people exhibit concerning such major components of friendship as basic trust, intimacy, similarity of interest and activity, and exchange of favors, help, and emotional support. The friends of these respondents were then interviewed, where possible, to determine the degree to which the values of named friends were similar to their own. Thus, we were able to study the meaningful interactions of residents of the Southdale area.

Findings.

The information assembled is sufficient to yield many different kinds of community and friendship analysis. Only the first major findings of our study will be reported here.

1. Demographic composition.

The people studied can be described in the aggregate as having high income, occupational status, and education levels. Average income was in the $30,000 to $39,000 range. Occupations generally were those of professionals, managers, or self-employed, but with significant numbers of clerical and sales workers. And the average educational level attained was a college degree. All of the respondents were white and most identified themselves as White Anglo-Saxon Protestants or as Scandinavian Americans.

Many of the demographic and social attributes of these residents are related to two characteristics: age groupings and housing styles, either multi-family or single family. The average age of all respondents is not as significant as the fact that 16 percent are in their mid-twenties to early thirties and a slightly larger number are in their late forties and fifties, with fewer in-between. Also, 20 percent of the sample are over 70 years of age. Fifty-six percent live in single family homes, while 38 percent live in apartments and 10 percent live in condominiums or townhouses. Of the latter two categories, 94 percent are in multi-family buildings. The population consists of families who, on the one hand have, for the most part, completed child-rearing but continue to reside in homes in which they have raised their families, and, on the other hand, single people, both in their twenties and those past their seventies living in apartment units and condominiums. Thirty-three percent of the households report single individuals occupying the unit, 10 percent report one child, 14 percent two children, and only 5 percent report that three or more children live at home. A total of 48 percent of the children were reported of these, very few were pre-school age. Out of our total of 139 respondents, 68 were male and 71 were female.

The residents seem to be overwhelmingly local by birth and upbringing. About 80 percent grew up in the upper Midwest. In general, most residents have moved into the area from immediately adjoining neighborhoods (see table 1), finding a familiar and convenient location for the next stage in their life cycle.

The hypothetical inferences that may be drawn from the demographic and background characteristics are that previously developed kinship and friendship patterns can be maintained at small travel cost and that racial-ethnic homogeneity and class-status similarity provide few obstacles to friendship and neighboring. Yet, one might suppose that the age distribution and housing variations result in different life-style characteristics. Are these presumptions valid and how are they related to community characteristics?

2. Community characteristics.

Recent sociological research suggests that community may be studied with several composite measures: first, social psychological attributes, such as attitudes toward the area, knowledge of the area, and identification with the neighborhood; second, networks of relationships; and third, group and institutional organization (Effrat 1974).

The overwhelming majority of Southdale respondents are most favorably disposed to their neighborhood. They identify strongly with it, they would be unhappy to move from it, and they feel quite secure living there. Seventy percent believe the neighborhood is either friendly or very friendly. Only 4 percent reported that it was somewhat unfriendly and 1 percent answered very unfriendly. Again, a large majority were able to identify major landmarks of the area, indicating knowledge of the large neighborhood tract. Yet, there is no consensus among the residents concerning a name for the neighborhood. Twenty-nine percent did not even use a name in referring to the area. Of those who did, 11 percent used the name Southdale while 53 percent referred to their area as Edina. The remainder referred to smaller block locations. It should be noted that research on how residential areas are identified in general indicates that residents of a single area often use multiple conceptions of the neighborhood, mental maps which vary in size and do not necessarily coincide with planners', officials', or media designations of neighborhoods. This seems to be the case here. After all, the geographic boundedness of this habitat should not be the principle which determines the contours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: PREVIOUS RESIDENCE</th>
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<tr>
<td>('Where did you live before moving to your present address?')</td>
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<tr>
<td>Location</td>
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<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within one mile of present address</td>
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<tr>
<td>Edina, but more than one mile distant</td>
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<td>Minneapolis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suburb other than Edina</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minnesota, outside of the Twin Cities</td>
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of the neighborhood. Rather the patterns of human use and interaction operating in a process of complex symbolization determine what an area is to its residents.

3. Primary relationships.

Three types of relationship comprise one dimension of community: neighboring, friendship, and kinship. The extent and degree to which people are involved in such ties offers a partial answer to the question, "How much community is there in the Southdale area?"

Neighbors—In general, our respondents, young or old, living in apartments or in single family dwellings, knew and visited their neighbors. Only seven people reported not knowing any neighbors. About two-thirds indicated that they visited their neighbors' homes and their neighbors visited them at least once in the last month and about 55 percent reported visits as frequent as once a week. People share a wide variety of activities with their neighbors, including exchanging favors and pursuing common interests. The extent of simply knowing the names of neighbors is quite large. Seventy-two percent report knowing five or more neighbors by name. This certainly belies any suggestion that the new suburbs are socially sterile. When respondents were asked about their three best friends, it was found that about 20 percent of those named were also neighbors, providing a double bond for basic community ties.

Family—About 40 percent of the respondents have parents and/or children living in the Southdale area, but this includes the children living in the household. Our findings in general contradict the stereotyped views that modern suburbanites are bereft of kinship support. Sixty-nine percent have one or more relatives other than parents or children living in the metropolitan area and 22 percent have relatives other than parents or children living in Southdale. Telephone contact as well as visits with family are regularly maintained by most respondents, as tables 2 and 3 show. Respondents in general also reported feeling close to family.

Friends—There is certainly no lack of friendship ties among our respondents. Only four reported having no friends. The others report having many friends, the range for the aggregate going from one to three friends (7 percent), to over 21 friends (33 percent). Eighty percent report that their friends live scattered throughout the metropolitan area. These findings corroborate those of sociologists' studies of Toronto suburbs, that the metropolitan area is the domain of basic community patterns if the focus of the analysis is on individual friendship ties. Four percent report that all their friends live in the Southdale area exclusively. Interestingly, none indicate that

| Table 2. FREQUENCY OF PHONE CONTACTS WITH RELATIVES |
| Percentages (Absolute numbers in parentheses) |
| Type of Kin | Once a week or more | Once a month or more (up to once a week) | Less than once a month | None* |
| Parent or child (N = 136) | 68 (92) | 21 (28) | 2 (3) | 10 (13) |
| Other relatives (N = 126) | 38 (48) | 34 (43) | 22 (28) | 6 (7) |

| Table 3. FREQUENCY OF VISITS WITH RELATIVES |
| Percentages (Absolute numbers in parentheses) |
| Type of Kin | Once a week or more | Once a month or more (up to once a week) | Less than once a month | None* |
| Parent or child (N = 127) | 31 (39) | 28 (35) | 29 (37) | 13 (16) |
| Other relatives (N = 118) | 17 (20) | 19 (22) | 57 (67) | 8 (9) |

*These responses include those who have no relatives in the Twin-Cities or whose relatives are not alive.
they have friends exclusively in St. Paul. This underscores the fact that very few respondents came to this neighborhood from St. Paul (See table 1). It also suggests that at least as far as friendship locations are concerned, St. Paul itself is sociologically distinct from the network of Southdale friendships.

Our respondents were asked a series of questions about their relationships with their three best friends. Selecting a few of the significant responses, we find that 56 percent indicate they visit with at least one best friend once a week or more. Telephone contact is more frequent. The structures of friendship networks also reveal the extent of the personal support system. For example, we found that slightly more than half of the total number of three best friends of all respondents were also kin or neighbors. Concerning the three best friends of respondents, 30 percent reported that they all knew one another, 34 percent reported that two of their friends knew each other, and 26 percent who did not have their friends knew one another. Eleven respondents had either none or one best friend. This kind of information shows the basic personal support systems which comprise the social fabric of everyday life in Southdale.

4. Housing characteristics and neighbors.

One of our interesting findings is that although respondents living in single family homes as compared with those in multiple family dwellings have resided in the area longer, intend to stay for a longer time, and believe more that the area constitutes a community, yet there are no significant differences between the two sets of people concerning the following: degree of identification with the neighborhood, judging it to be friendly (or unfriendly), and the degree of knowledge of the area. Moreover, no significant differences show up between the two sets with regard to neighborhood visits! Differences between people in frequency of neighboring are related to age and family composition factors, rather than to housing characteristics. Thus, some initial suppositions about neighboring differences based on housing characteristics were unfounded.

5. Friendship values.

The findings concerning behavior and networks presented above, do not reveal the meanings and values, nor the patterns of expectations people have about such relationships. The second stage of our study revealed that friendships were based mostly on one or more combinations of these factors: similarity of interest and background, reciprocity of expectations and of actual close or personal behavior, and a sense of intimacy and trust. Men and older people (45 and older) in general rely less on intimacy and more on reciprocity while women and young people (under 45) tend to stress intimacy as more basic to friendship.

Conclusions.

It is obvious that our respondents demonstrate no lack of community ties and commitments. In general, they find their neighborhood quite satisfactory on about every score. This may be due in part to the homogeneous social composition of the people, but certainly it is also related to the fact that the area serves to optimize different sets of choices. Proximity to work place, shopping and recreation as well as to neighborhood of origin, and hence to friends and family, are two major reasons for the high levels of satisfaction. When location of significant friends is considered, it appears that the metropolitan area comprises the community setting for such interaction. In effect, the Southdale area is not a complete or whole community in the sense that all significant relationships of inhabitants take place there. If we also notice that the physical limits of the area do not coincide with the mental maps of the residents and that the residents do not agree on the size or name of the neighborhood, we may be led to suppose that the sense of community is weak. However, this turns out not to be the case. Community characteristics are present in partially limited and multiple ways and this seems to enhance, rather than inhibit, the satisfaction Southdale residents with their neighborhood.

References


New CURA Publications


Studies involving the Chicano-Latino population in Minnesota have often been hard to locate and many valuable studies have never been published. This bibliography, originating in our Office of Intercultural Programs, lists both published and unpublished reports that are considered to be of merit. The research is presented in four basic groups: policy and issue oriented studies, immigrant affairs, data sources and descriptive studies, and specific program studies. A section on studies that are pending or in progress is also included. Every entry lists at least one verified location where the study is available. The bibliography was prepared for the Minnesota Spanish-Speaking Research and Data Collection Task Force and should be of assistance to those who are working with and for Chicanos in Minnesota.


During the past few years there has been increasingly intensive exploration for uranium ore in Minnesota. Considerable attention was focused on the appropriate state actions concerning uranium exploration during the 1980 legislative session. Were commercially significant quantities of uranium ore to be found in Minnesota, the state would have to confront a variety of radiation control issues associated with the mining and milling of uranium ore. These issues are not present, or present to a much lesser degree, with other existing or proposed mining activities in Minnesota.

Uranium in Minnesota presents a summary of these and other related issues. Written as a general survey of uranium mining and milling, it is not a technical report. References to the technical literature and to other sources of information are included at the end of the text.

Dean Abrahamson is co-chairman of the All-University Council on Environmental Quality and professor at the Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs. He has a long and distinguished record as an analyst of nuclear policy issues. Edward Zabinski is a graduate student at the Humphrey Institute.


See p. 4 of this REPORTER for a summary.

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