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The Pocahontas Exception: The Exemption of American Indian Ancestry from Racial Purity Law

Kevin Noble Maillard
Syracuse University College of Law

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THE POCAHONTAS EXCEPTION: 
THE EXEMPTION OF AMERICAN INDIAN ANCESTRY FROM RACIAL PURITY LAW

Kevin Noble Maillard

"The Pocahontas Exception" confronts the legal existence and cultural fascination with the eponymous "Indian Grandmother." Laws existed in many states that prohibited marriage between Whites and non-Whites to prevent the "quagmire of mongrelization." Yet, this racial protectionism, as ingrained in law, blatantly exempted Indian blood from the threat to White racial purity. In Virginia, the Racial Integrity Act of 1924 made exceptions for Whites of mixed descent who proudly claimed Native American ancestry from Pocahontas. This Paper questions the juridical exceptions made for Native American ancestry in antimiscegenation statutes, and analyzes the concomitant exemptions in contemporary social practice. With increasing numbers of Americans freely and lately claiming Native ancestry, this openness escapes the triumvirate of resistance, shame, and secrecy that regularly accompanies findings of partial African ancestry. I contend that antimiscegenation laws such as the Racial Integrity Act relegate Indians to existence only in a distant past, creating a temporal disjuncture to free Indians from a contemporary discourse of racial politics. I argue that such exemptions assess Indians as abstractions rather than practicalities, which facilitates the miscegenistic exceptionalism as demonstrated in Virginia's antimiscegenation statute.

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* Kevin Noble Maillard, Assistant Professor, Syracuse University College of Law. B.A. Duke University; J.D. University of Pennsylvania Law School; Ph.D. University of Michigan. A number of good friends and colleagues helped with drafts of this Article. I am grateful for the reads and comments provided by Joe Singer, Taunya Lovell Banks, Carrie Garrow, Kerry Abrams, Rennard Strickland, Keith Sealing, Janis McDonald, Don Herzog, Anita Allen, and the Junior Faculty Colloquium at Syracuse University College of Law. Additional thanks to Elizabeth Moeller for her efficient research assistance.
INTRODUCTION

In 1924, Atha Sorrels and Robert Painter applied for a marriage license in the state of Virginia and were denied.¹ The local official refused to issue a license because the two applicants came from different racial groups. Painter identified himself as “White,” while Sorrels hailed from the Irish Creek² mixed-race community, and was known to have a grandmother who was classified as “colored.”³ Their would-be nuptials conflicted with Virginia’s newly enacted Racial Integrity Act, which made it unlawful for any White person “to marry any save a white person.”⁴ Creators of this statute aimed to “suppress the shameful intermixture of the races which [had] been going on practically unchecked.”⁵ Those who disobeyed the law or falsely reported their race faced up to one year of imprisonment.⁶

But the Integrity Act had a curious loophole. As defendants, Sorrels and Painter argued that “colored” did not necessarily mean “Black.” “Colored,”⁷ according to local custom, referred to all non-White persons, including American Indians. Had her grandmother been part-Indian rather than part-Black, Sorrels could have evaded the state’s antimiscegenation statute, which counted as White “persons who have one-sixteenth

¹.  JOHN POWELL, THE BREACh IN THE DIKE: AN ANALYSIS OF THE SORRELS CASE SHOWING THE DANGER TO RACIAL INTEGRITY FROM INTERMARRIAGE OF WHITES AND SO-CALLED INDIANS 7 (Anglo-Saxon Clubs of America) (1920) (Draft version available in The John Powell Collection (#7284) Manuscript Department, University of Virginia Library).


⁵.  BUREAU OF VITAL STATISTICS, VIRGINIA STATE BOARD OF HEALTH, EUGENICS IN RELATION TO THE NEW FAMILY AND THE LAW ON RACIAL INTEGRITY 9 (2d. ed. 1924) [hereinafter THE NEW FAMILY].

⁶.  The statute reads: “It shall be a felony for any person willfully or knowingly to make a registration certificate false as to color or race. The willful making of a false registration or birth certificate shall be punished by confinement in the penitentiary for one year.” An Act to Preserve Racial Integrity, ch. 371, § 5099a, 1924 Va. Acts 534 (repealed 1975).

⁷.  POWELL, supra note 1, at 9.
or less of the blood of the American Indian and have no other non-Caucasic blood." The court ruled that substantial evidence did not exist to prove that Sorrel's grandmother was of African descent, and thus declared her to be "White" and legally permitted to marry Painter. "White," in this juridical context of racial integrity, accommodated the limited spoilage of Indian blood.

Racial ambiguity favored those persons who could legally present themselves as Indian. As early as 1772, a woman known as Sybill brought suit for her freedom on grounds that she was American Indian rather than Black. Her grandchildren brought suit on similar grounds that they "always understood they were descended from [I]nIndians." In another case a century later, Rowena McPherson appealed to Virginia's high court to defend her marriage to George Stewart, a White man. Arguing that they were not "living in illicit intercourse," McPherson reasoned that she was not a negro because her grandmother was a "brown skin woman . . . a half-Indian—a fact which is confirmed by the color of her skin." By declaring partial ancestry as "Indian" instead of "Black," "mulatto," or "negro," a litigant of mixed race attempted to secure the legal rights and privileges of a White person.

Virginia's statutory conception of "White" codifies what I call miscegenistic exceptionalism, where the intent of White racial purity exempts and protects certain non-White ancestries from the threat of taint. Racial groups normally considered non-White may receive honorary status as "White," underscoring the argument of race as a social construct.

10. Lombardo, supra note 3, at 442.
12. Id.
17. A number of scholars have pointed out that miscegenation has no meaning aside from social constructions of race. Keith E. Sealing, Blood Will Tell: Scientific Racism and the Legal Prohibitions Against Miscegenation, 5 Mich. J. Race & L. 559 (2000) (questioning eight different commonly accepted American racial norms); James Davis, Who is Black? 18 (1997) (arguing that social constructions of race do not reflect actual racial realities); Kwame Anthony Appiah, In My Father's House: Africa in the Philosophy of Culture 45 (1992) (Writing that "the truth is there are no races . . . Talk of 'race' is particularly distressing for those of us who take culture seriously"); Gunnar Myrdal, An American
rather than a biological truth. The 1924 Integrity Act defined "White" as "one-sixteenth or less of the blood of the American Indian and hav[ing] no other non-Caucasic blood." This allowance permitted Indian blood to override the doctrine of hypodescent—its presence alongside European ancestry did not categorically invoke racial hybridity. Despite the eugenic polemics which contended that infusions of Indian ancestry into the White race would "in a measure lower the creative intelligence of the White man," the Racial Integrity Act exempted the impeccability of integrity by including Indian blood as a veritable component of White racial identity.

In its accommodation of one-sixteenth Indian blood, Virginia law venerated the "Pocahontas Exception." Acknowledging the interracial marriage of Pocahontas, the famous "Indian Princess" and the Englishman John Rolfe, the Pocahontas Exception ensured that their descendants could be legally White. Here, a notable irony surfaces: the campaign for racial purity seeks the "right of our children's children to be white men in a white man's country" while revering the Pocahontas-Rolfe match as a

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Dilemma 114, 115 (1944) (noting that social and legal definitions of Black may differ from a scientific definition).

18. At one point in American history, immigrants from Ireland and Southern Europe were not considered White persons. This sharply contrasts with contemporary racial politics, which generally considers these groups as White. See Noël Ignatiev, How the Irish Became White 41 (1995). See generally Ian F. Haney López, White by Law: The Legal Construction of Race (1996); Michael Omi, Racial Identities and the State: The Dilemmas of Classification, 15 Law & Ineq. 7 (1997); Howard Winant, Race and Race Theory, 26 Ann. Rev. Soc. 169 (2000).


20. Membership in Indian tribes is political, rather than racial. In addition to people who identify as Indian, tribes have members who securely see themselves as White, Black, or Hispanic. Likewise, many tribes have a majority of members of hybrid ancestry. This distinction accounts for a greater diversity within the population of Indian nations. It places more emphasis on ancestry alone rather than a concentration of blood. In the Cherokee Nation, which has no minimum blood requirement for membership, quantums range from "full blood" to 1/2048. As of 1996, only 21 percent of the 175,326 members had more than one-quarter Cherokee blood. Circe Sturm, Blood Politics, Racial Classification, and Cherokee National Identity: The Trials and Tribulations of the Cherokee Freedmen, 22 Am. Indian Q. 240 (Winter/Spring 1998).


22. This term, "Pocahontas exception" has been used by a number of legal scholars. See Peter Wallenstein, Personal Liberty and Private Law: Race, Marriage, and the Law of Freedom: Alabama and Virginia, 1860s–1960s, 70 Chi.-Kent L. Rev. 371, 409 (1994).

23. Ironically, the event triggering the legal exception itself would have been illegal under the contemporary scheme. Randall Kennedy, Interracial Intimacies: Sex, Marriage, Identity, and Adoption 483 (2003).

"peculiarity of descent ... subject of just and honorable pride." For elite Virginians to demand this accommodation demonstrates a malleable and shifting concept of racial purity. In conceptualizing the damning influence and palpable threat of "taint" to White racial identity, strains of Indian blood assume a different, more exotic and arguably desirable meaning. At the same time, no adjustments existed to protect Black ancestry. This sentiment endures today in social practice, where open declarations of "Cherokee Princess Grandmother" and similar Indian forebears sprinkle the ancestries of contemporary Americans.

This Article confronts the origins and outcomes of Virginia's "Pocahontas Exception." In particular, scholarship discussing Loving v. Virginia regularly mentions the state's accommodation, but few of these works raise the issue outside of a footnote. Moreover, not enough attention has been paid to the relative absence of antimiscegenation statutes prohibiting marriage between Whites and Indians. Likewise, this disparity calls for a critical inquiry of the miscegenistic exceptionalism accorded to American Indians. This exceptionalism is periodic—at different points in American history, Indians have been reviled, extirpated, and even imitated, depending on the region, time, and predicament of the individual or group. This Article neither attempts to chronicle the long history of discrimination against American Indians, nor does it hypothesize an explanation for changes in Native American law. What it does do is question the reasoning of state antimiscegenation laws, with a focus on Virginia, which did not consider American Indian ancestry to be a threat to White racial purity. This statutory liberality surfaces in contemporary social practice. With increasing numbers of Americans freely and lately claiming Native ancestry, we may ask why such affirmations do not meet


26. Brian Dippie declares: "Tell the average American that he is descended from Pocahontas, that his blood may be traced to Confucius, or that his daughter has secretly married one of Madame Blavatsky's mythical Indian Mahatmas, and the chances are that he will be flattered and gratified." BRIAN DIPPIE, THE VANISHING AMERICAN: WHITE ATTITUDES AND U.S. INDIAN POLICY 250 (1982).


the triumvirate of resistance,\textsuperscript{30} shame,\textsuperscript{31} and secrecy\textsuperscript{32} that regularly accompanies findings of partial African ancestry. In other words, what is the exceptional legal and social status of the Indian Grandmother that allows her to escape the reach of antimiscegenation law?

This inquiry may be interpreted in a number of ways. First, a skeptic may view this analysis as an imposition of racial boundaries that attempts to pigeonhole American Indian identities\textsuperscript{33} into a racial binary restricted to Black and White. From this angle, miscegenation discourse features a normative standard that places African American issues at its center, and others at its margins. Also, the relative absence of antimiscegenation laws affecting American Indians may be viewed as a form of racial reconciliation, and the Pocahontas Exception a progressive example of legally sanctioned amalgamation.

Second, questioning this miscegenistic exceptionalism can also underplay the negative and destructive legacy of colonialism. A commentator may contend that five centuries of conquest, death, and theft more realistically portray Indian-White interaction than the legal concessions made for remote strains of Indian blood. Thus, permeable color lines and sought heritages do not overcome a longstanding history fraught with racial tension and community destruction.

Lastly, this inquiry may be viewed as a follow-up to the late Vine Deloria, Jr.'s criticism of the "Indian Grandmother Complex,"\textsuperscript{34} which questions the motivations of quick and open admissions of remote American Indian ancestry. This final angle most closely represents the goal of this Article: Why is there an exception for Pocahontas, or other Indian Princesses? What prevents a similar loophole for Irish Nell,\textsuperscript{35} Venus\textsuperscript{36} or

\textsuperscript{30} A number of cases refer to misapplied racial classification as grounds for legal action. In \textit{Collins v. Oklahoma State Hospital}, the Oklahoma Supreme Court held that "In this state it is libelous per se to write of or concerning a White person that he is colored." 76 Okla. 229 (1916). Likewise in \textit{Bagwell v. Rice & Hutchins Atlanta Co.}, the plaintiff, claiming to be a "white lady of good standing," recovered damages from the defendant, who called her a "negro," and seated her "amongst negroes while she was in defendant's store to make purchase." 38 Ga. App. 87, 87 (1928).

\textsuperscript{31} \textit{SHIRLEE TAYLOR HAIZLIP, SWEETER THE JUICE} (1994).


\textsuperscript{33} Sturm, \textit{supra} note 20.

\textsuperscript{34} VINE DELORIA, \textit{CUSTER DIED FOR YOUR SINS} 3–4 (1988).

\textsuperscript{35} Irish Nell, an indentured servant in Maryland in the 17th century, asked her master, Lord Baltimore, for permission to marry the slave "Negro Charles." Baltimore warned her that such a marriage would condemn her and her children to a life of slavery. Reportedly, Nell replied that she would rather marry Charles than Lord Baltimore himself. Rachel F. Moran, \textit{Love with a Proper Stranger: What Anti-Miscegenation Laws Can Tell Us About the Meaning of Race, Sex and Marriage}, 32 \textit{Hofstra L. Rev.} 1663, 1665–66 (2004).

\textsuperscript{36} Venus, a slave on Bushfield Plantation, owned by George Washington's nephew, was rumored to give birth to a child fathered by George Washington. \textit{HENRY WIENCEK, AN IMPERFECT GOD: GEORGE WASHINGTON, HIS SLAVES, AND THE CREATION OF AMERICA} 223.
Sally Hemings? What enduring legacy of American collective memory categorically resists the embrace of a "Slave Grandmother Complex?"

I confront the miscegenistic exceptionalism of the Indian Princess Grandmother in four parts. First, I examine the concerted efforts of political actors to encourage Indian-White intermixture. Such treatment, located within its historical context, demonstrated an open willingness to absorb the American Indian population into the larger bloodstream. These proposals were singular in their intent, as acceptance of intermixture was not accorded to other racial groups. Second, I consider the statutory contention in Loving v. Virginia, which is The Racial Integrity Act of 1924. This Act illustrates Virginia's legal deference to the Pocahontas legend, which classified "Whites" with Indian blood as racially pure, and allowed such persons to marry people who were entirely White. This practice establishes the concept of miscegenistic exceptionalism. Third, I review the archetypal Indian Princess/Pocahontas legend. Much of this Indian Princess Grandmother (and not Grandfather) myth is based upon colonial romance and appeased guilt. Lastly, I argue that such laws relegate Indians to existence only in a distant past, creating a temporal disjuncture to free Indians from a contemporary discourse of racial politics. I argue that such exemptions assess Indians as abstractions rather than practicalities, or as fictive temporalities characterized by romantic ideals. These practices bifurcate treatments of Indian blood, either essentializing a pre-modern and ahistorical culture, or trivializing this ancestry as inconsequential ethnicity. I conclude by arguing that exceptionalism accorded to Native ancestry in antimiscegenation law carries over into contemporary social practice.


39. "For the purpose of this act, the term 'white person' shall apply only to the person who has no trace whatsoever of any blood other than Caucasian; but persons who have one-sixteenth or less of the blood of the American Indian and have no other non-Caucasian blood shall be deemed to be white persons." Id.
I. ADVOCATING INDIAN-WHITE INTERRMIXTURE

In seven states,\(^{40}\) laws existed that prohibited Indian-White intermarriage\(^ {41}\): Arizona, Louisiana, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Oregon, South Carolina, and Virginia.\(^ {42}\) A 1691 Virginia antimiscegenation law (subject to change after the 1924 Integrity Act) aimed to prevent "abominable mixture and spurious issue," prohibiting marriages between Whites and "negroes," "mulattoes," and Indians.\(^ {43}\) This law endured until 1753, when the state exempted Indians from the intermarriage law.\(^ {44}\) North Carolina specifically placed marital limitations on Cherokees from Robeson County.\(^ {45}\) States were not uniform in prohibiting such marriages, leaving some states with substantial indigenous populations (South Dakota, Wyoming, and Utah) to focus instead on the threat that Asians posed to White racial integrity.\(^ {46}\) Oklahoma posed a cruder delineation of a racial binary by classifying all persons as either "of African ancestry" or

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40. This number sharply contrasts with the thirty-eight states that banned Black-White intermarriage. While numbers alone do not conclusively prove that state governments found Indians less threatening than Blacks in regards to marriage, they demonstrate a collective avoidance to proscribe the legitimacy of Indian-White sexual activity. Sickels, supra note 15, at 64.


42. See Kennedy, supra note 23, at 483. See also Phyl Newbeck, Virginia Hasn't Always Been for Lovers, Interracial Marriage Bans and the Case of Richard and Mildred Loving 227-31 (2004).

43. Laws regarding Indian-White intermarriage and classification of "White" in Virginia changed over time. Most notably, legal classifications of race reflected differential approaches to Indian-White and Black-White intermixtures. A 1705 statute banned mulattoes, Blacks, Indians, and criminals from holding public office. However, the state defined mulatto as "the child of an Indian, or the child, grandchild, or great grandchild of a Negro." This would have made a person with one-quarter Indian ancestry legally White under the statute. Eighty years later, this definition changed again. A 1785 law titled, "An Act declaring what persons shall be deemed mulattoes" made no mention of Indian ancestry. A. Leon Higginbotham, Jr. & Barbara K. Kopytoff, Racial Purity and Interracial Sex in the Law of Colonial and Antebellum Virginia, 77 GEO. L.J. 1967, 1977-78 (1989). See also Kennedy, supra note 23.

44. Woods, supra note 41, at 56.

45. Newbeck, supra note 42.

“not of African ancestry.” Fullblood Indians, “Mongolians,” “Malays,” and Hindus were each lumped into the category of “White.” Effectively, these classification differentials made American Indians legally White for purposes of marriage, because statutory language did not enumerate Indians as party to miscegenation.

The curious absence of Indian-White intermarriage bans (except for the states listed above) did not necessarily engender open acceptance of Indians by Whites, but it does demonstrate the sharp contrast in treatment of Blacks and Indians. In states where Indians faced no marriage restrictions, legal allowances often contradicted social practice. Such antipathy surfaced in Connecticut in 1825, when the Reverand Cornelius B. Everest condemned the “wicked and mischievous connection” of his sister-in-law Harriet Gold and the Cherokee journalist Elias Boudinot. In popular culture, parodies of the folk song “Little Red Wing” sung of the lewd counterpart of the beautiful Indian princess who “lays on her back in a cowboy shack, and lets cowboys poke her in the crack,” resulting in offspring looking like a “brat in a cowboy hat with his asshole between his eyes.” In Virginia, the state legislature had banned Indians, Blacks, and criminals from holding office. This same law also defined mulatto as “the child of an Indian, or the child, grandchild, or great grandchild of a Negro.” These different stages of “wash[ing] out the taint,” as Higginbotham and Kopytoff point out, demonstrate how Europeans tended to see Indians as higher on the scale of creation than Negroes, though still lower than themselves. Perhaps this sentiment tempered the potentially controversial statements that proposed to accept and assimilate Indian, rather than African, blood into the White majority.

A. Support from the Founding Fathers

Advocacy of Indian-White intermarriage received considerable support from noted Founding Fathers. The encouragement of red-White amalgamation began slowly after the Virginia legislature’s 1753 omission

47. 43 Okla. St. Ann. § 12 (repealed 1969). “Colored” defined anyone of African descent in any degree. “White” included all other persons. See, e.g., Peter Wallenstein, Tell the Court I Love My Wife: Race, Marriage, and Law—An American History 143, Fig. 11 (2002).
48. Wallenstein, supra note 47, at 143; see also Newbeck, supra note 42.
49. Woods, supra note 41, at 37 (citing letter from Rev. Cornelius B. Everest to Stephen Gold (July 2, 1825)) (on file with the Cornwell Historical Society).
52. Id.
53. Id.
of Indian-White marriage from state antimiscegenation laws. Thomas Jefferson, a "Great Father" of the Indian, welcomed this mixture in his treatise Notes on the State of Virginia (1781): "Are not the fine mixtures of red and White, the expressions of every passion by greater or less suffusions of color in the one, preferable to that eternal monotony, which reigns in the countenances, that immovable veil of Black which covers the emotions of the other race?" Jefferson saw this specific crossing of Red and White as the genesis of a unique national identity. "We shall all be Americans," he wrote in a separate letter in 1808, "you will mix with us by marriage, your blood will run in our veins, and will spread over this great island." Through this encouragement, he condoned the practice of racial intermixture, despite its criminality for Black-White mixes. This endorsement had its limits, however. Jefferson's encouragement attempted to hasten the ultimate disappearance of the Indian—his noble and paternalistic goal of incorporation in no way intended to retain or celebrate Indian culture. Most notably, Jefferson did not publicly encourage or endorse the open incorporation of African ancestry in this American

54. Woods, supra note 41, at 56.
57. "Virginia was also one of the first colonies to formulate a legal definition of race and to enact prohibitions against interracial marriage and interracial sex." See Act XII, 2 Laws of Va. 170, 170 (Hening 1823) (enacted 1662) (fine for interracial sex twice that for fornication); Act XVI, 3 Laws of Va. 86, 86-87 (Hening 1823) (enacted 1691) (interracial marriage punished by banishment from Virginia within three months). Higginbotham & Kopytoff, supra note 43.
58. See generally DIPPIE, supra note 26.
60. "Add to these, flowing hair, a more elegant symmetry of form, their own judgment in favour of the whites, declared by their preference of them, as uniformly as is the preference of the Oran-oootan for the black woman over those of his own species." Jefferson, supra note 55, at 238.
Clandestine intermixtures of Black and White, however, persisted without such encouragement. Other Virginia statesmen echoed Jefferson's sentiments, with similar political ends. In 1784, Patrick Henry offered legislation “for the encouragement of marriages with the Indians,” providing financial rewards and free education for the mixedblood offspring. The Henry bill placed mixedbloods on the same footing as White citizens, making them “entitled, in all respects, to the same rights and privileges, under the laws of this commonwealth, as if they had proceeded from intermarriages among free White inhabitants thereof.” Henry succeeded in pushing the bill through the Virginia legislature, but it soon failed after he became governor. Another statesman publicly encouraged intermixture despite its criminality before the 1753 amendment. In 1705, Robert Beverley, author of The History and Present State of Virginia, asserted that

Intermarriage had been indeed the Method proposed very often by the Indians in the Beginning, urging it frequently as a certain Rule, that the English were not their Friends, if they refused it. And I can’t but think it would have been happy for that Country, had they embraced that Proposal.

Edmund Atkins, Superintendent for Indian Affairs for the Southern colonies, echoed these sentiments in a report on Indian affairs in 1755, where

61. "Deep-rooted prejudices entertained by the whites; ten thousand recollections, by the blacks, of the injuries they have sustained; new provocations; the real distinctions which nature has made; and many other circumstances, will divide us into parties, and produce convulsions, which will probably never end but in the extermination of one or the other race." Id.


63. WILLIAM WIRT, THE LIFE OF PATRICK HENRY 258-59 (1831).

64. Id. at 259.

he advocated marriages between soldiers on the frontier and Indian women. Presumably, Atkins embraced the inevitability of amalgamation, and legitimation of these liaisons appealed to a moral and religious concern. More likely, however, he also viewed these combinations as political maneuvering on a local level, "by which means our Interest among the Indians will be strengthened."  

B. Assimilation Schemes and the Dawes Allotment Act

Such ends-oriented approaches to intermixture reveal an underlying belief in assimilation as an effective solution to the "Indian problem." White reformers such as Theodora Jenness viewed "the harmonious blending of the two races" as "the great solution of the Indian question as regards the five civilized tribes." Reformers did not view miscegenation as an equal blending of two cultures, but rather as a deliverance of indigenous peoples from what they viewed as irreparable savagery. In addition to intermarriage, reformers advocated private property ownership as an alternative assimilationist tactic. Land allotment schemes such as the Dawes Act of 1887 instituted not only the allotment of land in severalty, but also, as argued by Carl Schurz, an "immense step in the direction of the 'white man's way.'" The Dawes Act aimed to disperse Indians amongst "civilized" American citizens, and this displacement would hasten the erosion and disappearance of tribal cohesion. Francis Paul Prucha comments, "There was no longer to be a group 'out there,' some different sort of people who lived across a line. The otherness was to be destroyed and a homogenous mass was to be formed, of which the Indians would be an indistinguishable part." Private property, then, sought to instill a White Protestant ethic

67. Id.
68. Dippie, supra note 26, at 248 (quoting Theodora R. Jenness, The Indian Territory, ATLANTIC Monthly, XLIII, April 1879, at 444–52).
74. Schurz, supra note 71, at 3.
throughout the Indian population. Marriage, however, aimed to perpetuate this ethos and its possessions for successive generations.

These marriages, often involving Indian women rather than White women, reflected the political and economic motivations of individual White men and groups of advocates. Reformers viewed the legally sanctioned union of matrimony as a highly honorable method of assimilation. Secretary of War William H. Crawford argued in 1816 that, "When every effort to introduce among them ideas of separate property, as well in things real as personal, shall fail, let intermarriages between them and the Whites be encouraged by the Government." Intermarriage was an easy road to assimilation, and a time-tested method for securing property for those White men who married local Indian women. At the time of the Allotment Acts, the Taylor-Trotwood Magazine published an article, The Newest American State, that extolled the virtues of Oklahoma, joking that the Indian woman was "a thing of beauty and a joy for ever, and she and each of her sisters has a great big farm." Many American Indian communities, particularly the Five Civilized Tribes, had substantial interracial elements that gave truth to this statement. Particularly in Indian territory (now Oklahoma), Whites and their offspring existed as more than small factions. In the Cherokee Nation, Whites had intermingled with Indian women to such an extent that of 28,000 Cherokees enrolled,

76. PERDUE, supra note 66, at 72.
77. Far less often, white women married Indian men, and these transculturations were represented in popular literature as the captivity narrative. These works, according to Rebecca Faery, insist on the desirability of whiteness by making it the source and sign of both the captive women's being cherished by their Indian husbands and white culture's grief over their loss. REBECCA BLEVINS FAERY, CARTOGRAPHIES OF DESIRE: CAPTIVITY, RACE, & SEX IN THE SHAPING OF AN AMERICAN NATION 172 (1999).
78. DIPPIE, supra note 26, at 248 (quoting Baxter Taylor, The Newest American State, TAYLOR-TROTWOOD MAGAZINE VI, 500 (Feb. 1908)).
79. The Five Tribes include the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, and Seminoles. These tribes quickly adopted aspects of European culture, and intermarriage was common. See DEBO, supra note 29; GRANT FOREMAN, THE FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES (1934).
80. See STURM, supra note 20; JOHN G. MENCZE, MULATTOES AND RACE MIXTURE (1979) (discussions on blood). Such enumeration portended a growing obsession with race and blood fractionation that previously did not exist. A further example of this can be seen in the procedure necessary to prove that one is a member of the Cherokee nation. "To obtain a CDIB, you must formally apply for one and provide acceptable legal documents which connect you to an ancestor, who is listed with a roll number and a blood degree from the FINAL ROLLS OF CITIZENS AND FREEDMEN OF THE FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES, Cherokee Nation, (commonly called the Dawes Commission of Final Rolls). These rolls were compiled between the years of 1899–1906. Quantum of Indian Blood is computed from the nearest paternal and/or maternal direct ancestor(s) of Indian blood listed on the Final Rolls." DAWES COMMISSION OF FINAL ROLLS, (available at http://www.accessgenealogy.com/native/finalrolls/).
21,000 of them were of mixed blood.\(^8\) These pairings allowed frontiersmen to formalize alliances in unfamiliar territory—a practice which tautologically led to the formalization of their property interests.

It must be noted here that this school of incorporation sharply contrasts with the systematic efforts by the federal government to eradicate the human obstruction of Native Americans from the steamroller of American progress. Of course, the seemingly benevolent policies of assimilation coexisted alongside the segregationist policies of removal—a dynamic vacillation of ideologies that Francis Paul Prucha has described as "a movement between two extremes."\(^8\) Advocates of removal justified their policies by identifying the negative consequences of Indian–White proximity. Andrew Jackson, the presidential architect and arbiter of Indian removal, wrote to James Gadsen in 1829:

You may rest assured that I shall adhere to the just and humane policy towards the Indians which I have commenced. In this spirit I have recommended them to quit their possessions on this side of the Mississippi, and go to a country to the west where there is every probability that they will always be free from the mercenary influence of White men, and undisturbed by the local authority of the states.\(^8\)

Such humanitarian concern stretched to both policies, which sweetened the resolute and unabashed hunger for land.\(^4\) Both policies predated the idea of a pluralistic society\(^5\)—Indians would either become land-owning, English-speaking Christians, or isolated, ahistorical beings transported beyond the realm of White society.

Twentieth century approaches to the Indian problem sharply differed from the assimilationist policies of the 1800s. In this earlier period, reformers aimed to disperse Indians amongst White populations, pitting their previous savagery and heathenness against the supremacy of American values. Believing that Indians had potential to become civilized

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81. This number does not include intermarried persons: white men married to Cherokee women who were counted as Cherokee citizens during enrollment. In *U.S. v. Rogers*, the Court ruled that such men were "non-Indians" for the purpose of criminal jurisdiction. See *U.S. v. Rogers*, 45 U.S. 567, 573 (1864); See also *Dippie*, *supra* note 26, at 249.


83. *Id.* at 199.

84. *Id.* at 283–84.

85. *Id.*
people, 86 "Friends of the Indian" 87 executed assimilation programs that had destructive effects on previously intact Native communities. The final goal was complete integration into mainstream society, at the expense of the loss of Indian culture. In comparison, twentieth century racial policies sought a complete purge of non-White elements from mainstream society. Paternalistic benevolence was replaced by segregationist discontent. Support of intermarriage and amalgamation, as previously exhibited by Thomas Jefferson and Patrick Henry, 88 would have ensured a political death for its advocates.

II. Eugenics and the Racial Integrity Act of 1924

The nineteenth century dialectic of assimilation and abhorrence of American Indians paralleled the growth of dubious scholarship on racial outcomes at the turn of the century. While not constant, federal Indian policy had shifted from the removalist tactics of the mid-1800's to the incorporationist prosthetizations of the late nineteenth century. Most notable in this ideological change from Lamarckian 89 thought was the emergence of scientific racism, which promoted the inherent inferiority of non-Whites. 90 At the forefront of this political scholarship was Francis Galton, an Englishman and half-cousin of Charles Darwin, who coined the term "eugenics" in 1883 91 as the "science of improvement of the human germ plasm through better breeding." 92 Eugenicists vociferously argued that the White race, as a superior group, remained strong only when pure. Racially inferior groups such as Blacks, Indians, and Asians 93

86. Some "Friends of the Indian" firmly believed that racial difference entirely depended on environment. These groups firmly believed that Indian men could be "positively influenced to move toward 'civilization.'" Margaret D. Jacobs, The Eastmans and the Luhans: Interracial Marriage Between White Women and Native American Men, 1875–1935, 23 FRONTIERS: J. WOMEN STUD. 29, 34 (2002).

87. PRUCHA supra note 29, at 609.

88. Jefferson, supra note 55; WIRT, supra note 63.

89. Jean-Baptiste Lamarck was a French naturalist (1744–1829) who believed that environmental changes incited organic changes. In other words, traits acquired during one's lifetime can be passed on to their offspring. See MAROUF ARIF HASIAN, JR., THE RHETORIC OF EUGENICS IN ANGLO-AMERICAN THOUGHT 18 (1996).

90. Sherman, supra note 27, at 71.

91. The term "eugenics" is derived from the Greek eu, meaning good and genus, meaning race. See Derryn E. Moten, Racial Integrity or 'Race Suicide': Virginia's Eugenic Movement, W.E.B. Du Bois, and the Work of Walter A. Plecker, 62 NEGRO HIST. BULL. 16 (April, 1999).


93. While the "science" of eugenics is commonly paired with racial prejudice, its origins lie in xenophobia. Southern and Eastern European immigrants, according to eugenicists,
carried destructive taints in their blood, which proponents viewed as a serious threat to the integrity of the White race. These scholars, aiming to create a panic amongst Whites, gained authority by rooting racial prejudice in scientific "fact."

A. The Growth of the Eugenics Movement

The popularity of eugenics in the United States grew alongside the governmental expansion of allotment, which lasted until 1934. At the same time that reformers purported interest in transforming savage Indians to civilized Christians, Madison Grant's immensely popular book *The Passing of the Great Race* preached for the unyielding separation of the races. In fact, he predicted a racial apocalypse. His writings, among others, initiated a campaign of fear that led readers to believe that "inferior" beings, namely the insane, mentally defective, foreign, or non-White populations, imperiled the genetic sanctity of superior peoples. Grant warned:

Whether we like to admit it or not, the result of the mixture of two races, in the long run, gives us a race reverting to the more ancient, generalized and lower type. The cross between a white man and an Indian is an Indian; the cross between a white man and a Negro is a Negro; the cross between a white man and a Hindu is a Hindu; and the cross between any of three European races and a Jew is a Jew.

threatened the development of an Anglo-Saxon America. HASIAN, supra note 89, at 49-50. See also Reginald Horsman, *Race and Manifest Destiny*, in CRITICAL WHITE STUDIES 139, 143 (Richard Delgado & Jean Stefancic eds., 1997). (explaining the collective belief that America is an Anglo-Saxon country, but distinctly American, and drawn from "the very best stocks of western and northern Europe.").

94. The Dawes Act was enacted February 8, 1887, amended in 1891 and 1906 by the Burke Act. This was followed by the Curtis Act (1908) which abolished the tribal jurisdiction of Indian land. Termination of allotment came through the Indian Reorganization Act in 1934. See generally DOCUMENTS OF THE UNITED STATES INDIAN POLICY, supra note 75.

95. MADISON GRANT, THE PASSING OF THE GREAT RACE 18 (Charles Scribner's Sons 1921) (1916) [hereinafter GRANT].

96. Grant's book reached such popularity that F Scott Fitzgerald referenced it in *The Great Gatsby*. Using a combination of Madison Grant and fellow eugenicist Eugene Stoddard, Fitzgerald conjured the character "this man Goddard" who predicted that "if we don't look out the white race will be—will be utterly submerged." F SCOTT FITZGERALD, THE GREAT GATSBY 17 (Scribner 1995) (1925).

97. Sherman, supra note 27, at 71.

98. GRANT, supra note 95, at 18.
Presented as academic truth to the general public, the eugenical arguments of *Passing* combined science and ideology, forming a rhetorical structure that "enjoyed a considerable vogue." Although Grant focused on European populations, his statements created considerable alarm (and provided a battalion of quotations) in American and European racial policy. Arguing that racial intermixture "gives us a race reverting to the more ancient, generalized and lower type," Grant's pseudoscience eventually became destructive public policy.

The eugenics movement hit a racist goldmine in Nazi ideology, placing "social failures" as the primary targets for political ire, as well as scapegoats for the ills of society. Adolf Hitler expressed his awe of *Passing*, praising it as "my Bible." "A people that fails to preserve the purity of its racial blood," he wrote in *Mein Kampf*, "thereby destroys the unity of the soul of the nation in all its manifestations." This portentous statement, written in 1925, echoes Grant's derision of "undesirable," "worthless race types" who clogged a social system that would benefit from a "rigid system of selection through the elimination of those who are weak or unfit." This view of racial mixture as a disease led to the Holocaust, which targeted Jews, homosexuals, Gentile Poles, Roma, Sinti, the disabled, and Jehovah's Witnesses. Hitler characterized these groups...
as a "poison which has invaded the racial body" which needed to be "eliminated so long as there still remains a fundamental stock of pure racial elements."\textsuperscript{111}

\textbf{B. Fear Ingrained in Law: The Racial Integrity Act}

Virginia's history of antimiscegenation laws\textsuperscript{112} exhibits a remarkable conflation of law, public administration, and private prejudice.\textsuperscript{113} The ideological correlation of eugenics and Nazism did not deter its political growth in the United States.\textsuperscript{114} Eugenist thought, veiled as hard science, found an ideological heir in Virginia's antimiscegenation statutes. Three amateur scientists, Walter Plecker,\textsuperscript{115} Earnest Sevier Cox,\textsuperscript{116} and John Powell,\textsuperscript{117} led a campaign of racial politics in the state which classified miscegenation as a "breach in the dike [to be] stopped."\textsuperscript{118} By insisting on the legitimacy of eugenics,\textsuperscript{119} which they defined as "the science of improving stock whether human or animal,"\textsuperscript{120} the trio presented a racial apocalypse attributed to imprudent choices of sexual partners. Eugenics-minded propaganda published by the Virginia Bureau of Vital Statistics ed., New York: Macmillan, 1990) (estimating between 5.59 and 5.86 million Jewish victims).

\textsuperscript{111.} Hitler, supra note 106, at 225.
\textsuperscript{112.} See generally Higginbotham & Kopytoff, supra note 43, at 1967. See also Rothman, supra note 62.
\textsuperscript{113.} Lombardo, supra note 3, at 427.
\textsuperscript{114.} As Vice President, Calvin Coolidge accepted eugenic arguments as scientific fact. In an opinion statement on which groups should be allowed to immigrate to America, he wrote, "Biological laws tell us that certain divergent people will not mix or blend." Scales-Trent, supra note 16, at 290 n.175 (quoting Allan Chase, The Legacy of Malthus: The Social Costs of the New Scientific Racism 175 (1977)).
\textsuperscript{115.} Walter Ashby Plecker, a physician, served as Virginia's registrar of the Bureau of Vital Statistics from 1912 to 1945. See Lombardo, supra note 3, at 425.
\textsuperscript{116.} Ernest Cox was an amateur ethnologist who based many of his theories upon youthful travels throughout the African continent. See generally Earnest Sevier Cox, The South's Part in Mongrelizing the Nation (1926). As Joel Williamson has written, Cox firmly believed that blood "was the carrier of civilization, and to mix the blood and recognize the mixture was to destroy civilization." Williamson, supra note 62, at 106.
\textsuperscript{117.} John Powell was a concert pianist who published a series of articles, The Last Stand, for the Richmond Times-Dispatch. These columns ran during the period that the Virginia legislature reviewed the Racial Integrity Act in 1926. Lisa Lindquist Dorr, Arm in Arm: Gender, Eugenics, and Virginia's Racial Integrity Acts of the 1920s, 11 J. Women's Hist. 143 (1999).
\textsuperscript{118.} See Sherman, supra note 27, at 81.
\textsuperscript{119.} See generally Cox, supra note 116, at 93; Grant, supra note 95; Walter Plecker, The New Family and Race Improvement, 17 Va. Health Bull., Extra No. 12 (New Family Series No. 5, 1925); The Founders of the Republic on Immigration, Naturalization and Aliens (Madison Grant & Charles Stewart Davidson eds., 1928); The New Family, supra note 5.
\textsuperscript{120.} The New Family, supra note 5, at 3.
warned young men and women "considering marriage, the greatest and most important of human relations" and also lawmakers, who were "responsible for the future of the State and welfare of the race." By presenting the future of the White race as dependent on personal choice, these Virginians attempted to ignite a race panic that would soon be ingrained in law.

In an effort to transform eugenics from propaganda to policy, the three men spearheaded the creation of the Anglo-Saxon Clubs of America. These clubs, which grew to as many as twenty-five chapters by 1923, lobbied for a bill in the Virginia State Assembly that would prevent the unfortunate contamination of the White race. Adhering to an absolutist dogma that held on to a seemingly rigid conception of racial purity, the proponents and their clubs aimed for nothing less than a complete expulsion of all impure elements from the White race. In a political victory for the Anglo-Saxon Clubs, state legislators passed the 1924 Racial Integrity Act, which prohibited all interracial marriages in the state between White and non-White persons.

The Integrity Act instituted structure, reliance, and rigidity in a social classification system viewed as insufferably ambiguous. With racial identity assuming a prominent legislative purpose, the Act necessitated the demarcation of racial lines that defined non-White persons as anyone with any ancestry other than Caucasian. As Richard Sherman observes in his artful study of the 1924 Integrity Act, three objectives stood out as hallmarks of Virginia's proposed race regime. First, the Act required all citizens within the state born after June 14, 1912 to register their racial composition with the Bureau of Vital Statistics, with

121. Id. at 4.
122. As John Mencke has depicted "One drop of black blood, carrying as it did these myriad undesirable characteristics, was enough to brand its possessor as a child of Africa, with all of the connotations of savagery and sensuality which such a designation inherently involved in the white mind." MENCKE, supra note 80, at 61.
125. The clubs had three written goals: "[F]irst, by the strengthening of Anglo-Saxon instincts, traditions and principles among representatives of our original American stock; second [the] intelligent selection and exclusion of immigrants; and, third, [the] fundamental and final solutions of our racial problems in general, most especially of the negro problem." Lombardo, supra note 3, at 429.
127. "Be it enacted by the general assembly of Virginia, That the State registrar of vital statistics may, as soon as practicable after the taking effect of this act, prepare a form wherein the racial composition of any individual, as Caucasian, Negro, Mongolian, American Indian, Asiatic Indian, Malay, or any mixture thereof, or any other non-Caucasian
Walter Plecker as director. Second, the race registration certificates determined a valid marriage, thus preventing any non-Whites from illegally marrying Whites. Third, and most notably, the Act defined a White person as one “whose blood is entirely white, having no known, demonstrable or ascertainable admixture of the blood of another race.” This wording of “no known” admixture underscored the traditional conception of White racial identity that disallowed a cognizant declaration of a hybrid past.

C. Accommodating the Elite: Redefining the Parameters of Whiteness

Despite popular and political discourse surrounding racial intermixture, the absolutism of the Racial Integrity Act threatened to undermine Virginia’s social definition of “White” which allowed for minimal traces of American Indian ancestry. The *Richmond News Leader* criticized this proposal as “an amazing ignorance of Virginia history and work[ing] the most cruel sort of injustice.” State legislators successfully amended the restriction to avoid the reclassification of White elites with remote traces of Indian blood. In this demonstration of racial instability, Judy Scales-Trent points out that the original measure could have “outed” no less than sixteen legislators who thought of themselves as White. The revised Act ensured the legal protection of prominent White Virginians who

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128. Praising Virginia’s system of racial registration, Plecker wrote that “Hitler’s genealogical study of the Jew is not more complete.” See Lombardo, *supra* note 3, at 449.

129. Walter Plecker developed a reputation for vindictiveness during his term as Registrar. For example, in 1924, Plecker rebuked Mrs. Robert Cheatham, a white woman, for falsely reporting her spouse’s race on the birth certificate of their child. The Lynchburg health department, Plecker revealed, listed her husband as black, although she had listed him as white. In a letter dated April 20, 1924, Plecker wrote “This is to give you warning that this is a mulatto child and you cannot pass it off as white.” He added, “You will have to do something about this matter and see that this child is not allowed to mix with white children. It cannot go to white schools and can never marry a white person in Virginia. It is an awful thing.” He also lambasted the midwife who performed the delivery, writing “it is a penitentiary offense to willfully state that a child is white when it is colored. You have made yourself liable to very serious trouble by doing this thing.” J. Douglas Smith, *The Campaign for Racial Purity and the Erosion of Paternalism in Virginia, 1922–1930: “Nominally White, Biologically Mixed, and Legally Negro”*, 81 J.S. Hist. 65, 68 (2002).


131. Racial passing required that one disavow nonwhite ancestry as a part of one’s racial identity. See Davis, *supra* note 17. See also Kennedy, *supra* note 32.


openly declared an ancestral link to the famed marriage of John Rolfe and the "Indian Princess" Pocahontas.\textsuperscript{134} In this effort, "White" was redefined as one "whose admixture does not include other than White and North American Indian blood, and their legal descendants, shall be deemed to be White persons."\textsuperscript{135}

This incorporation did not include all persons of mixed Indian-White ancestry, however. Bowing to opposition from more conservative quarters that portended the "death knell of the White man,"\textsuperscript{136} the legislature drafted a definition sufficient to appease the eugenicists and accommodate the nominal Indians. The Senate passed an amendment that "members of Indian tribes living on reservations allotted them by the Commonwealth of Virginia having 1/4 or more of Indian blood and less than 1/16 of Negro blood shall be deemed tribal Indians so long as they are domiciled on said reservations."\textsuperscript{137} Assimilated mixedbloods with minimal amounts of Native ancestry would register as "White," while other mixedbloods with strong ties to Indian communities would register as "Indian." The spirit of the original proposal did not vanish quietly, however. Powell predicted the downfall of White Virginia as a result of this relaxed standard: "If a solution be not found by the present generation, it will never be found, and our civilization and our race will be swallowed up in the quagmire of mongrelization. There is no minute to be lost . . . Virginians, awaken from your lethargy of pleasure and prosperity! The call has pealed forth for the last stand."\textsuperscript{138}

Within this racial police state, miscegenistic exceptionalism assumes a curious place. Hybridity within a context of racial panic seems spurious when paired with a frenzied campaign to police the purity of Whiteness itself. In this case, state law manifests the social practice of exempting "no other admixture of blood than White and American Indian."\textsuperscript{139} Similarly, such allowances appear to blatantly contradict the desired ideal of impeccable Whiteness, one that evokes Madison Grant's characterization of miscegenation as "a frightful disgrace to the dominant race."\textsuperscript{140}

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\textsuperscript{134} Randall Kennedy insightfully recognizes that the Rolfe-Pocahontas marriage—a fullblood Indian woman and an Englishman—would have constituted a felony. \textit{Kennedy, supra} note 23, at 276.


\textsuperscript{136} Sherman, \textit{supra} note 27, at 78.

\textsuperscript{137} \textit{Id.} at 90.

\textsuperscript{138} \textit{Id.} at 87 (quoting \textit{Richmond Times-Dispatch}, Feb. 16, 1926).

\textsuperscript{139} An Act to Preserve Racial Integrity, ch. 371, § 5099a, 1924 Va. Acts 534 (repealed 1975).

\textsuperscript{140} \textit{Grant, supra} note 95, at 82.
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The law's very limited tolerance of mixed blood reveals both the popular and juridical conceptions of Whiteness in Virginia. Contrary to the American doctrine of hypodescent which assigns racial identity according to the most disadvantaged race, the amended Virginia statute enveloped "tainted" blood as a valid genealogical ingredient. Thus, a person with 1/16th Indian ancestry and 15/16th White ancestry would not be categorically denied the privileges and protections of Whiteness, despite the damaging taint that would otherwise disqualify a clear assertion of racial purity. This exceptionalism extended to Native ancestry only—similar amounts of African ancestry would automatically reclassify the person as irreparably Black. The Racial Integrity Act proclaimed that any trace of African ancestry, regardless of how remote, unquestionably made a person Black.

Confusing and contradictory exceptions to racially based regimes arise in even the most oppressive circumstances. Virginia's unorthodox exception contrasts sharply with eugenical arguments that allegedly decried the slightest relaxation of racial boundaries. Unlike the "science" of eugenics, some state governments overlooked ancestry as a determinant of privileged citizenship and looked to reputation instead, thus rejecting hypodescent as the major determinant of racial identity. In South Carolina's high court in 1835, Justice William Harper abstained from the common practice of fractional genealogy for a more interpretive approach to racial classification. In his support of a more fluid conception of race rather than a mathematical alchemy, Harper secured the status of many a "White" citizen by overlooking their ancestry and turning to their reception in the community instead. In State v. Cantey he wrote that reputation based on public opinion, in addition to personal character and

141. The act of remembering and claiming Pocahontas as an ancestor comprises an entire subfield of genealogy. The book, Pocahontas' Descendants, lists thousands of living persons who can accurately trace ancestry to her child and grandchildren. This book, last updated in 1997, has been continually expanded and revised since its inception in 1887. See generally Stuart E. Brown et al., Pocahontas' Descendants (Geneological Pub. Co. 3d ed. 1997) (1994).

142. F. James Davis defines hypodescent as "meaning that a single drop of black blood makes a person black." Davis, supra note 17, at 5.

143. The idea of "whiteness as property" has become a much debated and analyzed issue in critical scholarship. Similar to real property, Cheryl Harris's form of racial property paralleled the main characteristics of real property. Imbuing race with property traits, exclusion and subjugation, Harris argues that the object of value (race or property) increases with exclusivity. Ownership of this construct "evolved for the very purpose of racial exclusion." Cheryl I. Harris, Whiteness as Property, 106 Harv. L. Rev. 1707, 1737 (1993).

144. See generally Gross, supra note 14.

145. Maillard, supra note 62, at 118.


conduct should be considered in deciding one’s reputation. Under this scheme, two people of similar racial compositions could be classified differently, according to their reception in the community. Thus, blood alone should not stand as the sole determinant, because it “may be well and proper, that a man of worth, honesty, industry, and respectability, should have the rank of a White man, while a vagabond of the same degree of blood should be confined to the inferior caste.”

Exceptional definitions of what it means to be White may shift to reflect community and temporal standards of inclusion and privilege. As Ian Haney Lopez has written, “Whiteness, or the state of being White, thus turns on where one is . . .” Preservation of a racially-based regime rested upon an absolute right of “superiors” to define the parameters of the White race. South Carolina’s interpretation allowed people with certifiable Black ancestry to be considered White because people in the community thought of them as White. Such a social definition of race accorded privilege to those who had proven worthy of inclusion. Similar exceptions were given to people of Japanese ancestry in Nazi Germany, who were exempted from their racial purity laws. Even though the ancestry of these citizens by definition thwarted a conception of a pure German race, the state amended its definition of Aryan to accommodate them. As Virginia’s selective attention to the meaning of “White”

148. Id.
150. HANEY LOPEZ, supra note 18, at xiii.
151. Cheryl Harris conceives of a relation between race and property interests where “possessors of whiteness were granted the legal right to exclude others from the privileges inhering in whiteness.” Harris, supra note 143, at 1736.
152. Scales-Trent, supra note 16, at 269.
153. Id.
demonstrates, the quest for racial purity, even in the most extreme of racial regimes, permits exceptions to the dogmatic rules that define them.

III. THE LEGEND OF POCAHONTAS

The legend of Pocahontas claims the rarefied status of glorious and desirable miscegenation. Over two million living Virginians, remarkably "White" in all respects, very proudly "trace their ancestry back to the Indian girl." 154 Included in this massive population are descendants of the noted First Families of Virginia 155 ("F.F.V."), an exalted superstrata of American citizenry characterized by exceptional wealth and social influence in the colonial era. 156 Mark Twain lampooned the reputation of the F.F.V's in the novel Pudd’nhead Wilson. Satirizing the aristocratic clannishness of Old Virginia, he writes:

In their eyes it was a nobility. It had its unwritten laws, and they were as clearly defined and as strict as any that could be found among the printed statutes of the land. The F.F.V. was born a gentleman; his highest duty in life was to watch over that great inheritance and keep it unsmirched. He must keep his honor spotless. Those laws were his chart; his course was marked out of it; if he swerved from it by so much as half a point of the compass it meant shipwreck to his honor; that is to say, degradation from his rank as a gentleman. 157

A mocking truth emerges from Twain's comedy. By invoking birth and inheritance, he underscores the importance placed on genealogy while lambasting their obsession with their ancestral past. Within this stratum are noted families whose surnames evoke the colonial past of Virginia and the nation itself: Jefferson, Lee, Randolph, and Marshall. 158

Many of these sentries of lineage cabined the desire to "keep it unsmirched" by celebrating Pocahontas as a cooperative and forward-thinking Indian Princess who willingly embraced European culture. With this kind of exaltation, Pocahontas, the "Indian Princess," stands as the first American aristocrat. 159 Although this group as a whole was tacitly limited

155. The William and Mary Quarterly published a short piece that asked the question, "Who Were the F.F.V's?" which noted that the term "obviously had no reference to the early settlers, but to those families who in colonial times were socially prominent and wealthy." The F.F.V's of Virginia, 23.4 WM. & MARY Q. 227 (April 1915).
158. Young, supra note 154, at 394.
159. Green, supra note 50, at 15.
by race and explicitly characterized by power, open assertions of non-White ancestry left no taint on their cherished reputation. In 1811, Augustus John Foster remembered her as "Our Indian Queen Pocahontas," echoing John Dales' 1614 characterization of "Matoa the daughter of Powhatan." Pocahontas, who John Rolfe initially chafed for her "rude education, manners barbarious and cursed generation," is proudly claimed by many Americans as a legitimate ancestor. Uniformly, these descendants continue to identify as White Americans.

Like many family legends, the story of Pocahontas exists somewhere between practical truth and romanticized fiction. Much of her legend has been recreated in art and literature, a problematic representation that perpetuates fiction as authoritative fact. It is widely agreed that she was the daughter of the Indian leader Powhatan, who headed a confederation of tribes in the southeast portion of what is now known as Virginia. She is famously believed to have saved the English explorer John Smith from death, and to have alerted the colonists to her father's future attacks. As eulogized in James Nelson Barker's drama, La Belle Savauge,

Oh, do not, warriors do not!
Father, incline your heart to mercy;
he will win your battles, he will vanquish your enemies.
Brother, speak! save your brother!

162. Id. at 393.
164. In literature, art, and drama, Pocahontas as history developed into Pocahontas as legend. In these artistic representations, history becomes entertainment, and these lessons learned take on additional goals compounded with the transmission of mere facts of the past. Barker's physical descriptions of La Belle Savauge recreate her as an indigenized Helen of Troy, John Rolfe describes Pocahontas' beauty, declaring, "This is the lovely princess you have heard of; Our infant colony's best patroness; Nay, sir, its foster-mother." JAMES NELSON BARKER, THE INDIAN PRINCESS, OR LA BELLE SAVAUGE, AN OPERATIC MELO-DRA ME IN THREE ACTS 67 (1972) [hereinafter BARKER]. Flowing from such representations, contemporary culture and scholarship routinely describe Pocahontas as beautiful.
166. JOSEPHY, supra note 165, at 194.
Barker's dramatization portrays a sympathetic Indian girl who bravely stood for cooperation between natives and colonists. As she pleads for her father's mercy upon the White man, she places herself in the midst of an interracial conflict characterized by violence and death. In declaring "I will die with thee," Barker canonizes Pocahontas as a tribal mediator and potential martyr who readily offers her life for the cause of intercultural peace. John Smith's own account of the rescue, written in 1624, offers a firsthand account of Pocahontas' bravery:

... two great stones were brought before Powhatan: then as many as could layd hands on him, dragged him to them, and thereon laid his head, and being ready with their clubs, to beate out his braines, Pocahontas the Kings dearest daughter, when no intreaty could prevaile, got his head in her armes, and laid her owne upon his to save him from death: whereat the Emperour was contented he should live to make him hatchets, and her bells, beads, and copper.\(^{169}\)

Like Barker's fictionalization, Smith's rendition celebrates her affinity for intercultural cooperation. Rebecca Blevins Faery observes that viewing Pocahontas's relationship with the colonists as one built on love and sacrifice reveals a need by White Americans to "tolerate our history."\(^{170}\) This rendition of her sacrifice appeals to a humanistic approach to racial difference by asserting the common humanity of Indian and White.

Pocahontas' cooperation with Whites would extend to her relationship with the Englishman John Rolfe, to whom she reportedly bore a son.\(^{171}\) Rolfe justified their match as "for the good of this plantation, for the honour of our countrie, for the glory of God, for my owne salvation, 

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170. Faery, supra note 77, at 118.
171. In Barker's drama, La Belle Savauge (1808), Pocahontas expresses her exogamous love for the Englishman Rolfe:

I know not what a beggar is; but oh! I would I were a beggar's daughter, so thou wouldst call me love. Ah! Do not any longer call me king's daughter. If thou feelest the name as I do, call me as I call thee; thou shalt be my lover, I will be thy lover.

Barker, supra note 164, at 38.
and for converting to the true knowledge of God and Jesus Christ, an unbeleeving creature, namely Pokahuntas." Faery notes that Rolfe asked the governor of the colony for permission to marry Pocahontas, emphasizing her "savagey" by saying that he will "'gyve [her] breade,' and 'cover'" her. This presentation of his interracial desire highlights Rolfe's religious paternalism rather than sexual longing—he appeals to conversion and insists that he is not driven by the "unbridled desire of Carnall affection." With this plea for exceptionalism, Rolfe distanced himself from the social practices which viewed interracial marriage as a "hungry appetite to gorge my selfe with incontinency." Observers of this colonial interracialism did not hesitate to extend their praise onto the felicitous match. Robert Beverley wrote of Pocahontas's son Thomas Rolfe, "from whom are descended several families of note in Virginia." Such renditions fuel the epitomic myth of the "Indian Princess" as the foremother of a multiethnic nation. Henry Adams asserted that "No American needs to learn that Pocahontas is the most romantic character in the history of his country." This aptly describes a tale originating in Virginia, the Old Dominion State, which George Willison has described as a "fertile field for romancers". As an arbiter of colonial diplomacy, Pocahontas may be viewed as the patron saint of harmonious race relations. This interpretation distinguishes her from others of her community and time; her legendary sense of adventure and worldliness becomes fertile ground in which the ambitious seeds of nationhood take root and grow. In a 1962 issue of the Kenyon Review, Phillip Young magnified her name as "one of our few, true native myths, for with our poets she has successfully attained the status of goddess, has been beatified, made holy, and offered as a magical and moving explanation of our national origins."

172. Woods, supra note 41, at 50–51.
173. Faery, supra note 77, at 118–19.
174. Id. at 119.
175. Id.
176. John Davis, Life and Surprising Adventures of the Celebrated John Smith, First Settler of Virginia; Interspersed with Interesting Anecdotes of Pocahontas, An Indian Princess 55 (1813).
178. This characterization is an apt one, seeing that Virginia is the birthplace to a substantial number of iconic American events and personages, and this locale has stood as representative of not only the gentility of the Old South, but also as emblematic of American patriotism.
180. Young, supra note 154, at 392.
Pocahontas survives as the eternally willing colonial subject, a lyrical and national ideal for cooperative colonialism. Two episodes of her life: her rescue of Smith and her interracial romance, persist in American collective memory, memorializing her as a pliant Indian maiden willing to sacrifice her community and family to the delight of European colonists. Like the ancient Greeks who turned to venerable myths to explain the origin of Athenian citizens, Americans look to Pocahontas to provide an autochthonous origin. The poet Vachel Lindsay nearly deified Our Mother Pocahontas in 1917: "John Rolfe is not our ancestor/ We rise from out the soul of her." This thespian hymn of the sanctity of the original Indian Princess portrays the original union as an American/Immaculate conception; the symbolic womb of Pocahontas, "The Mother of Our Nation" becomes the birthplace of America. From the body of the Indian woman and the ideals of the European man is born a Native citizen to face and conquer the New World. This view of Indians

181. Barker's La Belle Savage (1808) encapsulates the hope of the ethical colonialist in the ideal solution for the Indian problem, in that it portrays Pocahontas as a willing subject in the transformation from savage to civil. His play exemplifies a revived memory of Pocahontas, for as a form of entertainment, it conveys to audiences some 200 years after her death the imagined particulars of her life. In art, then, we see not only the author's particular rendition of the legend, but also the version of it that contributed to the reimaginations of its viewers. This reading fuels the spectator's vision of Pocahontas as a privileged daughter of a powerful Native confederation—a historical and mythical figure that accepted the marked difference and cultural disparity between her own land and that of "Virginia." She tells her suitor:

Thou'st ta'en me from the path of savage error,
Blood stain'd and rude, where rove my countrymen,
And taught me heavenly truths, and fill'd my heart
With sentiments sublime, and sweet, and social.

This depiction of her awakening, that "path of savage error," and the perceived consent to its rapid transformation are the very force of romantic imaginations because they forward and archetypal image of the participating and submissive colonial subject. This popular story, circulated as folklore and history, provides the ultimate image of inconsequential conquest: the culmination of white hopes for an idealized, nonviolent, and beautiful past.

182. Paula G. Allen has written an alternative biography of Pocahontas that tells her story from within an American Indian Oral Tradition, thus honoring the "myths, the spirits, the supernaturals, and the worldview that informed her actions and character." Contra Paula Gunn Allen, Pocahontas: Medicine Woman, Spy, Entrepreneur, Diplomat 2 (2003) (offering a biography from an American Indian perspective).

183. See generally ABRAMS, supra note 167, at 8.

184. Vachel Lindsay, Our Mother Pocahontas, in COLLECTED POEMS 105 (1925).

185. Id. at 106.

as America’s version of "Gauls and Goths"\textsuperscript{187} roots the concept of the "melting pot"\textsuperscript{188} in the ancient foundation of a mystical Indian blood. European and minimally native, the new and unique American creature comprises a new nationality that fuses the best elements of Europe while borrowing the symbolic gene of the American Indian Princess.\textsuperscript{187}

IV. THE VANISHING INDIAN

Contemporary social practice approximates Virginia’s 1924 ratification of Indian exceptionalism. Claiming Native ancestry has acquired a certain vogue amongst non-Indians, in stark contrast to claiming African ancestry. The American Indian population has grown from 524,000 in 1960 to 2,726,000 at the time of the 2000 Census.\textsuperscript{190} This increase may have occurred due to a number of factors: changing American attitudes toward Native Americans, growing fascination with Indian spirituality,\textsuperscript{191}

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{187} This formulation led William Gilmore Simms to envision a perfect subject for the establishment of America as a nation with an independent cultural past. Susan Scheckel, \textit{The Insistence of the Indian: Race and Nationalism in Nineteenth-Century American Culture} 8 (1998).
\item \textsuperscript{188} This argument may raise concerns about the meaning of ethnic blending in America, but I raise this issue only to reexamine the inclusion of Native ancestry as a method of achieving an independent, American nationality without succumbing to the calculations of hypodescent. Israel Zangwill, author of \textit{The Melting Pot}, famously wrote:

\begin{quote}
Europe are melting and re-forming! Here you stand, good folk, think I, when I see them at Ellis Island, here you stand ... in your fifty groups, with your fifty languages and histories, and your fifty blood hatreds and rivalries. But you won't be long like that, brothers, for these are the fires of God you've come to—these are the fires of God. A fig for your feuds and vendettas! Germans and Frenchmen, Irishmen and Englishmen, Jews and Russians—into the Crucible with you all! God is making the American.
\end{quote}

\begin{flushright}
\textit{Israel Zangwill, The Melting-Pot: Drama in Four Acts} 33 (Macmillan, 1923) (characterizing America as a divinely mandated "crucible" to melt the "fifty" barbarian tribes of Europe into a metal from which He can cast Americans).
\end{flushright}
\item \textsuperscript{189} Faery, supra note 77, at 152 ("That mythohistory offered a crucial ideological foundation for the nation's future").
\end{itemize}
and financial incentives of tribal membership. Commentators have also noted this striking increase in the Native population. Each of these factors points to Indian blood as the new frontier of mixed race, with a healthy suspicion placed on those Indian "wannabes" who have recently discovered their Native ancestry. While multiraciality is and should be a question of personal autonomy in defining oneself, attenuated strains of blood in "new Indians" who assert tribal connections and seek indigenous culture are individual matters. What separates these recent declarations of identity (and concomitant cultural shift) from others is the extent of identification engendered by blood quantum. To announce a connection to a "Cherokee Indian Princess," may indeed be a valid, yet unquestionably fleeting, assertion of ancestry, but associating, identifying, and commiserating with a specific Indian community goes beyond symbolic and historic declaration to mark a dynamic shift in racial epistemology.

A. The Indian Grandmother Complex: A Different Kind of Birth for the Nation

Vine Deloria, Jr. has famously critiqued this "Indian Grandmother Complex." In Custer Died for Your Sins, he laments the countless times that well-intentioned Whites "visit my office and proudly proclaim that he or she was of Indian descent." But rather than merely criticizing these fantastic anecdotes, he questions the "need to identify as partially

192. At a congressional hearing on Indian gaming, James Martin, executive director of United South and Eastern Tribes, Inc., said that casino proceeds have funded a range of social programs, including "home ownership initiatives, tuition assistance for everything from private schools to post-doctorate work, national health insurance for tribal members, and access to top-notch health clinics." See Draft Legislation to Amend the Indian Gaming Regulatory Act to Restrict Off-Reservation Gaming: Oversight Hearing before the H. Comm. on Resources, 109th Cong. 74 (2005) (statement of James T. Martin, Executive Director, United South and Eastern Tribes).


194. Regarding the opinions of tribal members on "new Indians," Jack Hitt of the New York Times writes, "This joke—about the white person claiming a Cherokee princess—is heard pretty often these days from any Indian, coast to coast. In the same way that blacks poke fun at white men who can't jump or Jews mock goyim mispronunciations of Yiddish words, it is not meant as much to put down others as to enunciate the authenticity and insider status of the person telling the joke. It is a way to assuage a new kind of ethnic unease that can be felt throughout Indian Country." Jack Hitt, The Newest Indians, N.Y. TIMES, Aug. 21, 2005, § 6 (Magazine) at 38.

Indian. He acknowledges that most often, claimants avoid the genealogical perils and familial horrors of a male Indian ancestor, which he interprets as an avoidance of the fearful progenitor who "has too much of the aura of the savage warrior, the unknown primitive, the instinctive animal, to make him a respectable member of the family tree." To crown the grandmother a princess, however, aggrandizes genealogical prestige by centralizing a romantic story of the chief's daughter and the rugged frontiersman. This parallels the story of Pocahontas, who deserted the House of Powhatan and fled to England, thus renouncing her "barbarous" culture of origin to convert to the civilized world of her Christian hero.

These romantic ideals of Indian-White intermarriage politely forget the dark side of Indian conquest in efforts to imagine a cooperative colonial past. Landmarks of conquest: Indian Removal, King Phillip's War, Wounded Knee, and smallpox blankets, often remain unmentioned, alongside the resultant spoils of social injustice, incursions to sovereignty, and dishonoring of property interests. Thus, invoking the "Indian Princess Grandmother" does not assert a commonality of interests with a pan-Native community. Rather, it announces a connection to an ambiguity of indigenousness that is more historic than personal. For nominal Indians, what remains is a nostalgia and reverence for mythical pasts—pre-historic figures that align the ancestry of the European immigrant in the preexisting continuum of natural origin and national

196. Id. at 3.
197. Id.
198. FAERY, supra note 77, at 17.
199. See generally DEBO, supra note 29; PRUCHA, supra note 29.
200. Lasting for approximately one year, from 1675–1676, King Philip's War, or the Second Puritan Conquest, brought immense destruction and population loss to both colonists and tribes, though the tribes suffered most of the casualties. New England tribes experienced great hits, with the Narragansett, Wampanoag, Pocumtuck, and Nipmuck tribes suffering the greatest number of casualties. ROGER L. NICHOLS, INDIANS IN THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA: A COMPARATIVE HISTORY 84–87 (1998).
201. The Wounded Knee Massacre was the final large-scale bloody conflict between the Sioux Nation and the United States. See SUSAN FORSYTH, REPRESENTING THE MASSACRE OF AMERICAN INDIANS AT WOUNDED KNEE, 1890–2000 (2003); AFTER WOUNDED KNEE: CORRESPONDENCE OF MAJOR AND SURGEON JOHN VANCE LAUDERDALE WHILE SERVING WITH THE ARMY OCCUPYING THE PINE RIDGE INDIAN RESERVATION, 1890–1891 (Jerry Green, ed., 1996).
202. Gloria Valencia-Weber has described the blankets as emblematic of the betrayal of Indian nations by the United States: "Normal 'uninfected' blankets enabled the political, commercial, and personal relationships pursued between the indigenous peoples and the outsiders . . . For the Native Americans, the blankets were objects to bind the parties in explicit understandings as well as friendship to transcend discrete events. This indigenous value of blankets, which continues today, made the infested blankets especially destructive of trust and good-will." Gloria Valencia-Weber, The Supreme Court's Indian Law Decisions: Deviations from Constitutional Principles and the Crafting of Judicial Smallpox Blankets, 5 U. PA. J. CONST. L. 405, 406 (2003).
203. See Nagel supra note 195, at 950.
progress. Susan Sheckel characterizes this as a "liminal space" that provides reflection for the meaning of national identity. The grandmother serves as the "other"—an eminent and organic legend that carries out the historical expectations and hopes of positive initial encounters of Native and European.

B. To the Margins of Society: The Non-Threat of Indian Blood

This way of thinking about the history of Indian-White interactions stands as the most significant factor in miscegenistic exceptionalism. Pocahontas and her Grandmotherly counterparts exist as historical figures rather than present identities. Safely ensconced in a distant racial past, racial impurity normally inherited from non-White blood disappears. Through successive generations of intermixture, the Indian, once "vanished," is allowed to become White, saving the descendant from the pitfalls of miscegenation that disqualify one from membership in a privileged caste. Contrary to the teachings of eugenics that insisted on ancestry as the decisive element of Whiteness, phenotype and community affiliation materialize as critical hallmarks of race. This divorce of racial composition and community identity surfaced as a legal construct in Virginia, which differentiated tribal Indians from assimilated Whites. Persons of mixed Indian-White ancestry could either live in tribal communities and retain a Native identity, or, with minimal blood quantums, they could disperse amongst majority communities and be counted as White.

This differential articulation of Indian blood may stem from theoretical and historical disjuncture, and also racial essentialism. Roy Harvey Pearce has argued that the American majority limits its view of "The Indian" to a socially and morally significant part of the past. In American collective memory, Indians disappeared, and Whites

204. SHECKEL, supra note 189, at 3.
205. "It shall hereafter be unlawful for any white person in this State to marry any save a white person, or a person with no other admixture of blood than white and American Indian. For the purpose of this act, the term 'white person' shall apply only to the person who has no trace whatsoever of any blood other than Caucasian; but persons who have one-sixteenth or less of the blood of the American Indian and have no other non-Caucasian blood shall be deemed to be white persons. All laws heretofore passed and now in effect regarding the intermarriage of white and colored persons shall apply to marriages prohibited by this act." An Act to Preserve Racial Integrity, ch. 371, § 5099a, 1924 Va. Acts 534 (repealed 1975).
206. Id.
multiplied.\textsuperscript{209} Whether by death, famine, or acculturation, the Native population was vanquished in the wake of historical and cultural progress to survive only as a museum exhibit that merits preservation in its purest form.\textsuperscript{210} Problematically, this prehistorical vision of the Noble Savage\textsuperscript{211} fails to incorporate “The Indian”\textsuperscript{212} as a member of contemporary society. Removed from temporal specificity, “The Indian” is reclassified as a rhetorical luminary that does not share or participate in historical advancement or social change. As Phillip Deloria has noted, “[i]n order to be authentic, Indians had to be located outside modern American societal boundaries.”\textsuperscript{213}

This collective view of Native culture may discount unfamiliar manifestations of Indianness. Unremarkable representations, such as urban mixedbloods, fail to approximate an exotic standard of indigenousness. Robert Berkhofer has written that “White Europeans and Americans expect even at present to see an Indian out of the forest of a Wild West show rather than on a farm or in a city.”\textsuperscript{214} The late Vine Deloria, Jr. takes a more indignant view, asserting that “Indians in store-bought clothes have

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\item \textsuperscript{210} Edward Curtis, a photographer, distinguished his career by composing nostalgic black and white portraits depicting the vanishing Indian. See generally EDWARD S. CURTIS, IN A SACRED MANNER WE LIVE: PHOTOGRAPHS OF THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN (1972); EDWARD S. CURTIS, HIDDEN FACES (1996). See also BERKHOFER, supra note 210, at Fig. 10

Robert Berkhofer, in The White Man’s Indian, includes in his book a Curtis portrait of Navajos on horses, taken in 1930. The picture, titled, “The Vanishing Race—Navaho” depicts a group of persons on horses, backs to the camera, riding away in a solemn procession. Berkhofer states that Curtis asked the “subjects” to dress up in traditional clothes and wear braided ponytail wigs to instill a sense of authenticity and romance in the portrait.\textsuperscript{211} The “raw Indian,” adept with the land and strengthened by its fruits, assumes the stoic yet gentle position as the racially and genetically empowered minister of nature. American collective memory posits Indians as nature’s people imbued with an ancestral connection to the land. See generally JEAN-JACQUES ROUSSEAU, SECOND DISCOURSE ON INEQUALITY (1755).

\item \textsuperscript{212} This pithy term (“The Indian”) belies the complexity of its semantics. Instead of being individual members of a larger community (i.e., “Indians”), the totality of this cultural group is expressed as a historical phenomenon (i.e. “The Indian”).
\item \textsuperscript{213} DELORIA, supra note 193, at 115.
\item \textsuperscript{214} WILLIAM S. PENN, AS WE ARE NOW: MIXBLOOD ESSAYS ON RACE AND IDENTITY 1 (1997) (quoting BERKHOFER, supra note 210, at 29). 
\end{itemize}
no romantic value whatsoever[.]"\textsuperscript{215} This is the root of exceptionalism—to see Indians as “The Indians.” If fullblood Indians exist on reservations, and mixedbloods in the elective purgatory of racial identity, the miscegenistic threat is removed\textsuperscript{216}. These cultural conceptions of Indian habitats and surroundings engender a cognitive dissonance that emancipates assimilated mixedbloods from the perilous realm of racial impurity.\textsuperscript{217}

**CONCLUSION**

Miscegenistic exceptionalism encapsulates an underhanded truth about eugenicist regimes: racialist norms must accommodate variants.\textsuperscript{218} Virginia’s Integrity Act, in its efforts of genealogical fortification, could not insist on the vestal definition of White that would have turned its most prominent citizens into savage ineligibles. Most notably, this statutory subversion and the social practices that reify it gaze at a mythical creature who supplies the exotic blood from an indigenous womb of nebulous origin. Selective attention is paid to the Indian princess, who is passively born without the parentage of the Indian chief. From this Madonna of Nativity spawns the anomalous coterie of Virginia’s First Families. The legacy of Powhatan, her father and the “Emperor,” finds no mention in the aural declarant whose casual relationship triggers the question of hybridity. It is the Indian female who enters our national collective memory, as demonstrated in Virginia law, who stands as the cultural meeting ground for European conquerors to impose Lockean sensibilities on the open property of indigenous women’s bodies.\textsuperscript{219}


\textsuperscript{216} Thomas Jefferson’s solution for the “Negro problem” in America was to “remove [them] beyond the reach of mixture.” Jefferson, supra note 55, at 243.

\textsuperscript{217} As statistical evidence and social concession demonstrate, the majority of American Indians are mixedbloods in urban areas. William S. Penn estimates mixedbloods to comprise over half of the entire Indian population in the United States. Penn, supra note 216, at 2. But it is the traditional minority of reserve-based fullbloods that claims primacy in imagery and memory. Because this visuality is so strongly ingrained in a definitive collective memory, deviations from this aesthetic narrative fail to fulfill an idealized (and perhaps unrealistic) vision of Indianness. As Shari Huhndorf has said, the constricted view of Indianness “render[s] many Native lives unrecognizable as ‘Indian,’ even at times to Native people themselves.” Shari Huhndorf, *From the Turn of the Century to the New Age: Playing Indian, Past and Present*, in *AS WE ARE NOW: MIXBLOOD ESSAYS ON RACE AND IDENTITY* 181, 184 (William S. Penn, ed., 1997).

\textsuperscript{218} See Scales-Trent, supra note 16.

\textsuperscript{219} John Locke, in his Second Treatise on Government, wrote of the labor theory of property and ownership: “Whosoever then he removes out of the state that nature hath provided and left it in, he hath mixed his labour with, and joined to it something that is
The ideology of miscegenistic exceptionalism does not transfer neatly into a social practice that openly favors racial amalgamation. The Circuit Court judge that banned Richard and Mildred Loving from the state of Virginia for 25 years invoked religious beliefs in his opinion that races should remain separate. "Almighty God created the races white, black, yellow, malay and red, and he placed them on separate continents. And but for the interference with his arrangement there would be no cause for such marriages. The fact that he separated the races shows that he did not intend for the races to mix."\textsuperscript{220} Even though the law allowed for "Red" and "White" to mix according to certain limitations, this jurisprudence demonstrates the perception, belief, and reliance on racial integrity. Much earlier, in \textit{Kinney v. Virginia} (1878), the court held that

The purity of public morals, the moral and physical development of both races, and the highest advancement of our cherished southern civilization, under which two distinct races are to work out and accomplish the destiny to which the Almighty has assigned them on this continent—all require that they be kept distinct and separate, and that connections and alliances so unnatural that God and nature seem to forbid them, should be prohibited by positive law and be subject to no evasion.\textsuperscript{221}

The language in these opinions strongly opposes hybridity, but it does allow for marriage and mixture in cases characterized by unsolvable ambiguity or inconsequential threat. For Native Americans that "vanished" with the closing of the frontier, fears of savage warriors and wanton squaws capture less prominent roles in the suspicions of racial purists. This is especially true in those communities that view Indians as Pocahontan maidens laying prostrate at the feet of Englishmen rather than contemporary and viable citizens and communities of the world.

Critics may argue that the "Vanishing Indian" falls behind the present reality of politically vibrant Indian communities that disprove the cultural fallacy of a fading culture. Moreover, a handful of Indian nations have achieved a reputation as financially independent, economically savvy institutions that explode the notion of disappearance.\textsuperscript{222} Such cultural

\textsuperscript{220} Geographic originations of different racial groups, for this judge, stood as justification for racial separation. Loving v. Virginia, 388 U.S. 1, 3 (1967).

\textsuperscript{221} Higginbotham & Kopytoff, supra note 43, at 1982.

fortitude would entice the strengthening of weakened cultural ties and invite people to identify as Indian. It may also be contended that these desired associations reveal progressive and liberal policies that transcend racial boundaries in the interest of equality. In this sense, claiming a relation to the Indian Grandmother enriches an American cartography of race that is fundamentally rooted in boundary crossings. Assertions of this sort demonstrate a compelling reversal of identity: a formerly reviled and historically conquered segment of the population witnesses the return of the cultural prodigals who once suppressed their connection. It is a temporary and aural homecoming of long-lost tribal relatives who flash a neglected yet convenient connection that may have few social consequences. This says nothing of the myriad problems that plague Indian country—poverty, education, health, and exploitation fail to burden the mind of the claimant as a potential community member. As legalized by the Integrity Act and performed in social practice, partial and limited identification as American Indian remarkably fails to have meaningful impact upon the declarant. Until this type of social and legal freedom is accorded to similar declarations of remote African ancestry, the exceptional arguments of pride and progressiveness merely underscore the perception of a lack of racial threat.

Foxwoods Casino, and the Mississippi Choctaw's business success as reasons to overhaul Indian Affairs).

223. Limits should and certainly cannot be imposed on the perennial appearance of the Indian Princess Grandmother—elections of identity belong in the realm of their producers. Yet when compared to an absolute revulsion and prohibition of African blood in that very statute, the arguments of pride and multiraciality seem fatuous and perfunctory. See An Act to Preserve Racial Integrity, ch. 371, § 5099a, 1924 Va. Acts 534 (repealed 1975).