This handbook was developed to encourage more effective state citizenship through the teaching of state history. Attention is given to geographical factors, politics, government, social and economic changes, and cultural development. The student is introduced to the study of Indiana history with a discussion of the boundaries, topography, and geologic processes responsible for shaping the topography of the state. The handbook contains 16 chapters, each written by an expert in the field. The chapters are: (1) Indiana Geography; (2) Archaeology and Prehistory; (3) The Indians: Early Residents of Indiana, to 1679; (4) Indiana as Part of the French Colonial Domain, 1679-1765; (5) The Old Northwest under British Control, 1763-1783; (6) Indiana: A Part of the Old Northwest, 1783-1800; (7) The Old Northwest: Survey, Sale and Government; (8) Indiana Territory and Early Statehood, 1800-1825; (9) Indiana: The Nineteenth State, 1820-1877; (10) Indiana Society, 1865-1920; (11) Indiana Lifestyle, 1865-1920; (12) Indiana: 1920-1960; (13) Indiana since 1960; (14) Indiana Today--Manufacturing, Agriculture, and Recreation; (15) Indiana Government; and (16) Indiana: Economic Development Toward the 21st Century. The handbook is extensively illustrated with maps, graphs, and charts. Sources for instructional materials and a bibliography is included. (SM)
A Handbook for U.S. History Teachers
About the cover:

The cover design is by Brad Hill, Associate Professor, Ball State University, Muncie. The design is used through the courtesy of Hoosier Celebration '88.

The logo depicts the diverse silhouettes which celebrate both pride in our heritage and the bright potential of our future. The red, white, and blue colors tell everyone Indiana is the home of basic American values.

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HANDBOOK ON INDIANA HISTORY

Robert D. Orr, Governor
H. Dean Evans, Superintendent of Public Instruction

Edited and compiled
by
Evelyn M. Sayers

Indiana Department of Education
Indianapolis, 1987

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A Message From The Governor

Teaching is a rewarding career which affords one the opportunity to affect the lives of young people and thus to have an impact on the future. The balance of economic growth and development for Indiana's future is closely linked to the success that you have with these young students in your classroom.

To those who would question the importance of education in our everyday lives and argue that education is one of government's "ordinary" obligations, I would say, look around you and show me something that isn't directly related to education.

A prime example of the impact of education on everyday living is the key role education plays in the productivity and prosperity of this great nation and this great state. It is hard to imagine the free enterprise system as we know it without giving due credit to the American education system which constantly turns out the minds and the skills to make the marketplace work with such marvelous efficiency.

Education is critical to our state's future success.

Helping our young students learn about Indiana is making an investment in the future of this state. To do less is to make a mockery of the heritage given us by generations of dedicated educators. And even worse, to do less is to squander our future.

We must know our past if we are to discover our future.

The information, excitement, and sense of hope you inject into the classroom with the use of these materials will influence your students' decisions as to how they can best participate in shaping the economic and social future of Indiana.

Thank you for your dedication to the mission of teaching and I sincerely hope you find these materials to be of value.

ROBERT D. ORR, GOVERNOR
Indianapolis, 1987
Knowledge of local history, the past of one's town, county and state, as well as of our country, gives us roots, as it were, and helps us better to understand and evaluate the present. It makes all about us more interesting. The lives of the men and women who preceded us and the institutions which they developed are our heritage. The fine and good in our history should inspire us to better lives, while a knowledge of past errors may help us to avoid similar pitfalls.

It is interesting to know about the Indians who may have hunted on a nearby creek, the pioneers who cleared neighboring farms, the merchants, lawyers, doctors, industrialists, who built our town. It is a real life story more thrilling and more intimate and vital to us than any fiction. While we find enjoyment in such knowledge, we also gain from it an appreciation of who has gone before, a fuller understanding of the present and a wiser basis for meeting the future.

William E. Wilson  
State Superintendent of Public Instruction  
October, 1963
Foreword

In 1959, William E. Wilson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, appointed a committee to provide recommendations to make the teaching of Indiana History more effective in the schools. Partly as a result of his keen desire to make Indiana's school children aware of state history, and partly as a result of the coming sesquicentennial celebration of statehood, he commissioned the preparation of a "Handbook on Indiana History". Under the leadership of Dr. Donald F. Carmony, Professor of History at Indiana University, this handbook was prepared in 1961. The first printing was in 1963 and subsequently, it was revised and reprinted in 1966.

Now, in this year of the bicentennial celebration of the Northwest Ordinance and the Constitution of the United States, we reaffirm the values set forth some 200 years ago which established our Nation and our State. And now, as a part of that celebration, we again revise and update this handbook to focus attention on the value of studying the history of Indiana.

Past citizens of this State have embodied the best of the pioneer spirit and it is important for today's students to know of that past and respect it. This knowledge of Indiana's history can serve as a stabilizing force—a link to the past, to promote understanding of the present, and provide for the development of informed decisions about the future. To that purpose, we have included on page vi the "Foreword" written in 1963 for it expresses that idea of continuity between the past, present, and future.

Indiana is at an important crossroads. We are facing critical decisions about growth, progress and economic development to carry the State forward into the 21st Century. Education is at the forefront of these decisions, requiring that we examine the entire structure of what we teach, how we teach, and how we evaluate our progress.

Reprinting this handbook represents a form of closure to one generation of Indiana's students and marks the threshold to that generation of students whose adulthood will reach into the 21st Century. It is important that they carry forward knowledge of our past heritage.

H. Dean Evans
Superintendent of Public Instruction
Indianapolis, 1987
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Preface

Governor Robert D. Orr in his second inaugural address in January of 1985 affirmed that 1988 would be a year to celebrate the bright potential of Indiana's future. In the mission statement for Hoosier Celebration '88, he called for all communities in the State to develop a vision of the future, and in doing that to take stock of the past in reaffirmation of the courage shown by those who settled the community.

The social studies curriculum in Indiana is organized using the expanding horizons approach which stresses that students learn about home and community before studying American and world historical events. Because of this structure, students usually learn about local and state history in the 4th grade. Materials are available for local and state history at the elementary level, but little is prepared for the middle or high school years. Thus as a part of the celebration of the dual bicentennials—the Constitution of the United States and the Northwest Ordinance—Governor Orr commissioned the selection of a task force to prepare a brief history of Indiana suitable for secondary social studies teachers to use in celebrating Indiana.

"A Handbook on Indiana History" had been prepared by a task force in the early 60's. It had been very useful, but needed to be updated. The 1987 task force began with the 1966 or second edition and worked to update it as well as to add current materials. Where appropriate, we have attempted to continue the style used in the original text by beginning with GENERAL COMMENTS and giving several POINTS TO EMPHASIZE. In addition, materials have been added on geography, origin of government in Indiana, and future economic trends. In some cases, suggested activities are included.

We have eliminated the bibliography at the end of each chapter and have included an overall bibliography and resource section (see page 177). It is hoped that school librarians will use that bibliography to enhance the "Indiana" materials available in the schools. A series of companion materials and resources which are currently available or will be available in the near future are also listed. As in the previous editions, this manual is designed for use by the teacher and not the student.

The members of the 1987 task force gave voluntarily of their time and expertise without which this manual could not have been prepared. They deserve commendation for their hard work. A special thank you is extended to Dr. Donald F. Carmeny, the dean of Indiana historians, for his willingness to take time from his retirement to offer support and advice during the final stages of editing.

Evelyn M. Sayers
Director, Indiana History Task Force
Indiana Department of Education
An Introduction: The Study and Teaching of Indiana History

Dr. Donald F. Carmony  Professor Emeritus,
Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

My father, who taught in the elementary schools of Indiana for a third of a century, once asked students to write essays on topics of their choosing. A boy of German background, when asked to read his essay, stood before the class and unrolled a lengthy sheet of paper reaching toward the floor. In a droll manner, the boy announced his topic as "An Essay on How to Pop Corn." After a suitable pause, he slowly read his essay in these words: "Put the corn in the popper, and hold it over the fire!" I have overcome the temptation to imitate my father's student by condensing my essay on "The Study and Teaching of Indiana History" in these words: "Select only well-qualified teachers, pay them well, and turn them loose to do their best!"

In any event, I shall make my remarks short and emphasize only three basic points. Professor John C. Andressohn, under whom I took several rewarding graduate courses in Medieval and Early Modern European History, achieved some notoriety for his comment that in teaching undergraduates he never gave them more than three causes, three results, or three principal points about anything. When asked why only three items, Andy would smile and say: "Because that's as many items as undergraduates can remember!" Readers such as you could easily absorb three times three major items; however, stressing only three major points has two important advantages, (1) it shortens the time it takes for you to read this; (2) it shortened the time required for me to write this essay.

Point 1! At what grade level should Indiana History be taught in the schools of the state, and what should be the basic content of the course? For some time prior to the 1960s, Indiana History had been taught principally at the junior high level, and to a lesser extent to senior high students. But not long thereafter, Indiana History, for all practical purposes, was banished from the junior high level; it is seldom given at the senior high level. Ironically, the state superintendent of public instruction who wanted and encouraged publication of the Handbook on Indiana History—which I authored in 1961 while Chairman of the Indiana Sesquicentennial Commission—was the same superintendent during whose administration Indian History was banished from the niche it had deservedly occupied at the junior high level. Be that as it may, it remains my conviction that unless Indiana History can be offered at not less than the junior high level, there is quite limited value in offering it at all.

There is no desirable blueprint for determining the content of a course in Indiana History, but there are guidelines to be considered. First, such a course should describe and explain the general historical development of Indiana. Hence, it should not be a course in current trends and events, citizenship, or a course merely touting the achievements of Hoosiers in a non-critical manner. A
course in Indiana History should give substantial attention to geographical factors, to politics and government, to social and economic changes, and to cultural developments. For the most part, geographical information should be woven into the text at appropriate places. For instance, the manner in which rivers influenced pioneer settlement and trade should be explained in discussing trade and settlement. The study of Indiana government, for another example, needs to be related to the fiscal insolvency and burdensome state debt which resulted from the breakdown of the Internal Improvements System of 1836. This breakdown can be used to help explain why the framers of the Constitution of 1851 placed significant restrictions against state participation in economic development in favor of emphasis on individual enterprise. In a course on Indiana History, items about government, the economy, and geographical influences should not be segregated as separate and detached units.

Point 2! Why and how should a course in Indiana History be taught? There are three reasons in particular why I think Indiana History should be taught in the schools of the state, and especially at the junior high or senior high level. First, as citizens of the state, students need to become knowledgeable about the history of Indiana, just as to become responsible citizens of the United States they need to become knowledgeable about U. S. History. Second, there is perhaps no better way to introduce students to the study of history and to an understanding of how the past influences the present than by instruction in state and local history. The interest of students can be stimulated by relating their study to historical events and places, geographical features, governmental functions, and the economy of which they are a part. Three, if students are to be able to make appropriate comparisons and contrasts between American life and that of other countries it is indispensable that they know considerable about the history of their own state and country as a basis for their comparisons and contrasts. In the introduction to the original edition of the Handbook on Indiana History, I commented:

_The committee recognizes the need for increased study of the history of other countries, but it would emphasize that both children and adults need increased knowledge and understanding of the history of their own state and country. Persons who lack such information and understanding are inadequately informed citizens of their state and country, no matter how informed they may be about other areas of the world._

To be sure we need to know more than we do about the history of other countries, but this consideration also makes increased knowledge and understanding about our own history essential.

There is no one way to teach history. Individual teachers should use and adapt methods to obtain the best results in terms of their own preparation, the ability of students, the time available, and the resources at hand. What is best for one teacher may not be best for another, even within the same school system. But whenever and wherever history is taught—be it Indiana History or otherwise—it should be taught in a manner to encourage students to think for themselves. Thus, examinations which include essay questions are all-important. Some years ago, after his initial experience with an essay question in my course in Indiana History, Tony approached me with righteous indignation. He told me of his enthusiasm for history, his high grade in history in high school, and his desire to become a teacher of history. Tony explained that his high school teacher had told the class what it should know and remember, hence on examinations he was able to give correct answers to questions asked. But Tony, who had made about a C+ on my exam, complained that it had been different—I had never given the answers to some of the questions asked. Instead, I had asked him to defend or oppose a particular statement as best he could, and offer evidence to support his opinions. Tony said he knew what facts were, but what did I mean by opinions and evidence? We talked about the diferiments.
ference between facts, opinions, and evidence. And Tony found it hard to understand why I suggested that students who reached opposite conclusions might both merit the same high mark, provided they offered anything like reasonable evidence in support of their opinions. I recommended to Tony that he enroll in an individual reading course with one of my colleagues to obtain increased understanding about how to study history. Tony, taking only half of my recommendation, asked if I would give him such a course. We spent a semester reading and talking about the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811. My assignment asked Tony to read several secondary sources about the Battle of Tippecanoe, and let me know what he learned from them. (I, of course, had carefully explained to Tony the difference between secondary and primary sources!) A week later, when Tony was asked what he had learned about the Battle of Tippecanoe, he smiled as he said with emphasis: “About the only thing all the books agreed upon was that there was a battle.” Thereafter we read accounts from varying points of view, as we tried to decide what the facts were and reach opinions based on evidence. Neither Tony nor I learned for certain either the exact causes or particular results of the Battle of Tippecanoe. But Tony, I am confident, learned more about how to study history, and how to think for himself, than he had anticipated when he enrolled in my class in Indiana History. Incidentally, I have no idea who Tony’s high school teacher was; and I have never presumed that this teacher taught history in precisely the manner that Tony reported to me.

Point 3! How do we obtain and retain teachers well prepared to offer courses in Indiana History? Those who teach Indiana History should have successfully completed substantial and comprehensive courses in American History; European History, including English History; and related courses in geography, government, or economics. In short, the educational preparation appropriate for teachers of Indiana History is the same as that for teachers of American History. Interest in and enthusiasm for Indiana History, though desirable, is not adequate compensation for lack of such an educational background. Unfortunately, the existing system does not require as much preparation for teachers of history as is needed. And, unfortunately, the existing system does not adequately recognize and reward the best prepared and most competent teachers.

How, then, do we obtain and retain well-prepared teachers of Indiana History and other courses in history? It seems to me that much the same problems are involved as for the improvement of the teaching of literature, mathematics, science, foreign language, and various other courses. This leads me to the conclusion that significant changes are urgently needed to make for a general upgrading and improvement of education throughout the state.

What most concerns me, however, is my impression that citizens generally are less interested in and less well informed about their educational situation than they should be. Until Hoosiers become much more aware of and familiar with the urgent need to improve public education in Indiana, the prospect ahead looks far less promising than it should be. And that awareness must include a willingness—even an insistence—that taxes be levied to pay the costs required. Quality education is costly, but especially in the long run, it is almost certain to be less than the costs of inferior education. Quality education has its economic benefits, for both individuals and society; but more importantly, in a democratic republic such as ours, where citizens have the ultimate authority, quality education is essential for the preservation of self government.
Chapter 1: Indiana Geography
Dr. Edward E. Lyon, Professor, Department of Geography,
Ball State University, Muncie

To the teacher: Indiana geography can be included in the classroom discussions for World Geography, U.S. History, and U.S. Government.

Corollary to U.S. History
• Setting the stage for discovery and settlement of the New World
• Development of colonial empires in the New World
• The making of the nation 1754-1774

GENERAL COMMENTS

The boundaries of Indiana were drawn with the passage of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and finalized with the enabling acts when Kentucky, Ohio and Indiana entered the Union. In general, the then northwest shore of the Ohio River along the low-water mark of 1792 became the southern boundary. The eastern border of the state resulted from the enabling act for Ohio which drew that state’s western boundary as a line extending due north from the mouth of the Great Miami River. The Indiana Enabling Act provided that the western boundary would be a line extending along the middle of the Wabash River from its mouth to a point where a line drawn due north from the town of Vincennes (the Vincennes Meridian) would last meet the northwestern bank, and then run due north until its intersection with the northern boundary. Indiana’s northern border was described as an east-west line extending through a point ten miles north of the southern extremity of Lake Michigan. Indiana thus became a state of 36,291 square miles, located at about 40°N latitude and 86°W longitude in the eastern half of the 48 coterminus states. It is 38th in land area among the 50 states.

The early settlers who moved westward across the Appalachian Mountains into the Northwest Territory realized the problem of surveying the land. The old Metes and Bounds survey method of using local landmarks to determine boundaries for individual properties, towns, townships and other areas was not suitable for this purpose. New...
England had mountain ranges, large trees and boulders, and other prominent land features usable as survey boundaries, but the Middle West had few such landmarks. The Land Ordinance of 1785 solved the problem by setting up a township and range survey system. This plan allowed the land to be surveyed in squares; each major square becoming a township, six miles on a side (36 square miles) and located according to a base line parallel and a principal meridian. Each township then was divided and subdivided into sections of 1 square mile or parts of sections. To those traveling along east-west or north-south roads in Indiana, this pattern may be apparent because so many of the road intersections are 1 mile apart. (Further explanation of township and range surveying follows in Chapter 7.)

The lack of topographic variation throughout much of the state belies its complex geologic structure and sometimes obscures its varied patterns of drainage, soils, vegetation. More easily seen are the patterns of agriculture, population, manufacturing, and transportation.

Indiana's underlying sedimentary rocks were laid down over the millions of years during which it was part of an inland sea. After several periods of drowning and deposition, Indiana emerged with a cover of limestone and other sedimentary rocks exposed to weathering and erosion.

The geologic process primarily responsible for shaping much of Indiana's landscapes was the moving ice of several great continental glaciers that advanced through the state, grinding down hills and filling in valleys except in the south-central part of the state. The Ohio River forms the generally-accepted limit of continental glaciation. The final meltback of glacier ice left relatively flat plains with small hills and depressions in the northern and central parts of Indiana and a more rugged landscape to the south.

The interior continental location of Indiana provides a site for battle between different air masses. Cold and dry air from Canada brings the cold and dry extremes of winter, while the warm and moist air from the Gulf of Mexico brings the hot and humid excesses of summer. These air masses alternate seasonally and the associated weather fronts bring on the changeable weather patterns of the spring and autumn seasons for which Indiana is known.

Drainage patterns in Indiana reflect the climate and topography. Many northern and central areas have poor drainage, sometimes resulting in swamps and marshes. The south, because it is more hilly, has better drainage. Most of the Indiana streams empty into the Mississippi River drainage system; however, those streams north and east of the continental divide empty into the Great Lakes drainage system.

Land Ordinance of 1785
Range and township survey system
See Chapter 7
Underlying structure
Geologic process
Interior location contributes to weather pattern
Drainage from stream system
The most important soil-forming process in the state is podzolization—the accumulation of high-acid content silica in the upper layers of the soil. The richest soils are the former “Grand Prairie” lands in the northern and western parts of the state. Historically, Indiana was covered by forest. Today, artificially-induced vegetation, especially food crops, dominates the state.

POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

The succession of geologic processes in the past has had a definite effect on the present topography of Indiana and was extremely significant in the formation of natural resources. These processes have contributed much to the formation of soil and the major mineral products of Indiana—coal, petroleum and natural gas, various types of stone, clays and sands, and gravels.

The study of this geologic process requires thinking in terms of millions of years rather than the human lifespan of years with which we are more familiar. Geological time is divided into eras which, in turn, are divided into periods of different lengths. Over the millions of years, continuous erosion, accompanied by deposition of stream sediments, caused changes in the land. The underlying bedrock was exposed to chemical changes as well as to the effects of freezing and thawing, wind, rain and running water. The last great geologic event to change the character of the landscape of our state occurred when several great glaciers moved into northern Indiana from Canada and extended far into the state. Each glacial ice advance brought abundant sediments—boulders, cobbles, pebbles, sands, silts and clays—which acted as tools in the ice to scrape off the hills and fill in the valleys as the glaciers melted. The last glacier ice melted northward out of the state about 8,000 to 10,000 years ago, leaving many of these deposits to become the sands and gravels used for road construction and other commercial uses.

In spite of its reputation as a “flatlander” state, Indiana does have an interesting and varied physiography. Physiography, the study of the physical features of an area, involves topographical description in terms of relief, elevation, and the physical formations present. It also includes some explanation of the rock structure and various physical processes which have helped to shape the surface features. Elevation is not always reflected in the relief of an area. Relief (local differences in elevation within a given area or region) varies greatly throughout Indiana. Much of the highest land in the state—in the east-central part—has little relief and is, in fact, almost monotonously flat. Areas of greatest relief are in the southeastern counties where stream action has shaped the bedrock structure over a long period of time. The greatest local relief is found in Harrison County, where there is a dif-
ference of 610 feet between the low water mark of the Ohio River and a nearby hill (Locust Point) about one-half mile away. Tipton County has the least local relief. In all, 22 counties have local relief of 90 feet or less.

The drainage patterns of Indiana, as in other areas, in large part are determined by their past geologic history. Within this framework, the bedrock and glacial features within the state played the significant role in the development of Indiana stream patterns.

The most numerous of the artificial lakes in Indiana are the many farm ponds whose construction has been encouraged by the Soil Conservation Service. There are, of course, large numbers of abandoned gravel pits and quarries; in the coal mining areas, many long, deep and narrow strip mine pits have been rejuvenated as clean, spring-fed and stream-fed lakes. Artificial lakes have been constructed for water supply, recreation, flood control and other uses. Individuals, groups, and private clubs have purchased and developed commercial camping, fishing, and other recreational facilities at many of the abandoned gravel pits and strip mine pits.

Although many of the natural lakes are quite small, more than 90 of them exceed 100 acres and more than 40 exceed 200 acres. The largest natural lake entirely within the state is Lake Wawasee, in Kosciusko County. The greatest number of natural lakes is found in Steuben, Kosciusko, and La Grange counties.

The major stream drainage systems are: St. Lawrence Drainage, Maumee Basin, St. Joseph Basin, Calumet Basin, Mississippi Drainage, Kankakee Basin, Wabash Basin, Ohio River Basin, and Indiana's Continental Divide.

The weather and climate affecting Indiana are the result of many factors beyond the state boundaries. To the west are the Rocky Mountains which effectively block most of the flow of moist Pacific air from the rest of the continent. From the eastern slopes of the Rockies to the Appalachian Highlands, the relief is very slight from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic Ocean. The Rocky Mountains and the relatively flat continental interior combine to expose a large part of the continent to the influence of warm, moist tropical air from the Gulf of Mexico and cold, dry air from Canada. As a result, all Hoosiers are quite familiar with hot, humid summers and cold, snowy winters.

Severe thunderstorms and tornadoes are common in Indiana. The state generally averages 200 thunderstorms and 22 tornadoes per year. Property damage is greatest from lightning and high winds during thunderstorms, while hail may result in devastating crop damage.
small areas during the summer months. Although these violent weather patterns may develop during any month, March through July is characterized as the "severe weather season." Indiana ranks ninth in the nation in terms of total number of tornadoes. When state size is considered in determining the number of tornado events, Indiana is second only to Oklahoma. With reference to the risk factor associated with tornado occurrences—the prospect of property damage, injury and death related to tornado frequencies—Indiana ranks fifth in the nation.

Indiana lies within two major climatic zones as described in the Koppen Classification of Climates of the World. (Explanation of the Koppen Classification of Climates can be found in a Goode's Atlas.) Approximately one fourth of the southern part of the state lies in the Humid Subtropical (Caf) climate zone, with rainfall distributed throughout the year; the coldest month averages above 32°F while the warmest month averages at least 71.6°F. The remainder of Indiana lies in the Humid Continental, Warm Summer (Daf) zone, with the coldest month averaging below 32°F and the remaining characteristics being the same as for the Caf climate.

The natural vegetation of Indiana, for the most part, is not what we see on the landscape today. Most of the natural vegetation has been removed from Indiana as a result of forest land being cleared for agriculture. Broadleaf deciduous trees, which lose their leaves in the autumn and grow new leaves in the spring, made up most of the natural vegetation of Indiana. Beech-maple trees were the most common trees present. Others were the oak-hickory and the Western mesophytic forests of ten to twenty common species, including beech, sugar maple, oaks, white ash, and tulip poplar. Prairie lands were limited to the northwest portion of Indiana, an area of insufficient rainfall which would not support tree growth. The grasses here were very coarse in nature, reedlike, and varying in size from eight to ten feet tall. Like much of Indiana's natural vegetation, most of the prairie grasslands have been converted to productive agricultural lands.

Although the mineral industry in Indiana is small—less than 1% of the national total—when compared with that of many other states, our minerals are important in terms of employment, income, taxes paid and similar economic factors. Indiana long has been exploiter of coal, petroleum and natural gas. In addition, clay and clay products, sand and gravel, limestone and sandstone, marl and other minerals have been mined. Even specialty minerals, such as quartz pebble from Martin County, which is used in the manufacture of refractory brick, have been mined. Gold has been mined in Morgan and Brown counties.
SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

This chapter provides the physical setting for the materials which follow in this text. A series of maps is provided for classroom use and may be copied from the appendix as needed. Classroom sets of the official Indiana Highway Map may be obtained free from the Indiana Department of Highways, Room 1106, State Office Building, Indianapolis, IN 46204. A wall map of Indiana, suitable for hanging in the classroom and for writing on with an erasable marker, is available from the Indiana Historical Bureau, Indiana State Library, Senate and Ohio Street, Indianapolis, IN 46204.

At this point, before beginning the history of Indiana, the topic of regionalism should be introduced and discussed. Indiana is considered to be part of several regions. The state is an important part of the Old Northwest Territory, the Ohio Valley Region, the Great Lakes Region, and the United States as a whole. Physiographically, the northern two-thirds of the state—with its more level land and many lakes—is much different from the hilly southern one-third. The Industrial Northwest, often called "the region", can be contrasted with the agricultural-industrial core region of the central part of the state. And then below U.S. 40 (the old National Road), southern Indiana is a region both physiographically and culturally different from the other regions of the state. Indiana was settled from the Ohio River northward and in the rich and proud heritage of the cities and towns in southern Indiana can be found the history of the early settlers of our state. Regionalism has been a factor in Indiana's development since the beginning.

- Use the maps (pages 191-213) to discuss and illustrate for the students this concept of regionalism at it applies to Indiana. Developing an understanding of this early in the school year will offer many opportunities for application of critical-thinking and problem-solving skills to discussions about Indiana's future.
Chapter 2: Archaeology and Prehistory
Dr. Donald R. Cochran, Director of Archaeology Laboratory,
Department of Anthropology, Ball State University, Muncie

To the teacher: Indiana archaeology and prehistoric traditions of the Indians provide understanding for the study of Indiana history.

Corollary to U.S. History
• Setting the stage for discovery and settlement of the New World

GENERAL COMMENTS

Archaeology is the scientific study of the human past. It consists of both specialized techniques for recovering information and a body of theory for interpreting the information. It is only through the application of archaeological techniques and archaeological research that we can begin to understand the unwritten record of the human history of the state of Indiana. Since written records account for less than 400 years of the more than 12,000-year human history of the state, more than 96% of the history of Indiana is unwritten. In addition, since written records are often incomplete, archaeological research on the most recent 400 years is used to amplify what is written down.

The basic units of data for archaeological research are artifacts, anything made or modified by humans. Locations where artifacts are found are called sites. Archaeologists also collect ecofacts, the remains of plants and animals utilized by humans.

Archaeological data are collected in the field through surface surveys which record site locations and provide samples of artifacts. More in-depth information is acquired through excavation of sites. Archaeologists make careful records as they dig because excavation destroys that portion of the site being studied. They keep detailed notes, drawings and photographs of the excavated area in order to be able to understand the activities that took place there. In addition to recovering artifacts, excavation provides information on the geologic formation of the site, past disturbances, and samples of ecofacts. Soil removed during excavation is usually screened to recover small items.
Soil samples are often processed by flotation or water screening through window screen or small wire mesh to recover tiny plant and animal remains and parts of artifacts.

Once the survey or excavation is completed, the recovered materials are taken to an archaeology laboratory for processing. Artifacts are usually cleaned, identified, catalogued with an identification number, drawn or photographed, and described. Plant and animal species are identified and for animal remains the number, age, sex, and season of death are determined. Soil and dating samples are processed by chemical and mechanical analysis to determine composition and age. It is normally estimated that archaeological research requires at least six times as much analysis as field work.

Due to the rapid and destructive practices of contemporary society, most archaeological research is currently directed toward locating archaeological sites so that those threatened by destruction can be saved or excavated. Thus, although archaeology is traditionally connected with excavation, most current efforts are directed toward survey and conservation of archaeological resources.

**POINTS TO EMPHASIZE**

Prehistoric Archaeology is the study of human culture prior to written records. Writing developed at different times and in some areas not at all. So the boundaries between prehistory and history vary from place to place. The study of archaeology is the only means of reconstructing the prehistoric past.

Historic Archaeology is the study of human cultures with associated written records. Historic archaeology is a means of amplifying the written records by means of filling in unknown portions of the recorded human past.

Paleo-Indian is the term given to the earliest known human cultures of the state of Indiana and the Midwestern United States. These pioneer cultures entered Indiana as the last glacial advance began retreating to the north, approximately 12,000 to 14,000 years ago. Their culture appears to have been focused upon hunting and their tools reflect this focus. The hallmark of Paleo-Indian technology is the fluted spear point which has a distinctive groove extending from the center of the base of the point approximately half-way up each face. Fluted points have been found in association with the bones of extinct forms of animals such as bison and mammoth.
Archaic is the term used to describe cultures which existed between 10,000 years ago and 3,000 years ago. This 7,000-year period is subdivided into early, middle and late periods. The earliest Archaic cultures followed the Paleo-Indians and were adapted to a warming environment following the retreat of the last glacial ice from the state. The Middle Archaic cultures were subjected to additional environmental changes as the climate of the Midwest became warmer and drier between 7,000 and 5,000 years ago. By Late Archaic times, the environment of Indiana had essentially assumed the form encountered by the earliest European explorers and settlers. In addition to hunting, people of the Archaic cultures focused upon gathering plant foods and by Late Archaic times were very efficient users of the environment, selecting plant and animal foods that provided the greatest return for the least investment of effort. Tools also changed with adaptations to environment changes. One of the hallmarks of Archaic cultures was the production of ground stone tools for woodworking. By the latter part of the Archaic period, the dead were being buried with copper and shell artifacts acquired through trade networks that extended from Lake Superior in the north to the Gulf Coast in the south. The dead were sometimes buried in natural mounds of sand and gravel and at other times were covered by low mounds of dirt. These burial ceremonial practices were further elaborated in the succeeding Woodland period.

Woodland is the time period covering the last 3,000 years of the prehistory of Indiana and the Midwestern United States. One hallmark of Woodland cultures was the development of pottery vessels. Pottery technology underwent a variety of changes from thick, coarse wares to the refined and highly decorated wares utilized by Woodland groups. Woodland peoples were initially dependent upon hunting and gathering, or subsistence, although these practices were supplemented with limited cultivation of squash and native plants, such as sunflowers. By Late Woodland times, approximately 1,000 years ago, the subsistence base had changed to the point that horticulture provided the majority of the food resources, with hunting and gathering providing supplemental nutrients. The bow and arrow was first introduced into the Midwest during the Late Woodland period.

Woodland cultures also practiced complex burial practices involving earth mounds and walls. Oftentimes these people have been referred to as the "Mound Builders". The impetus for mound construction occurred with the Late Archaic culture but Woodland groups expanded and elaborated upon the concept and mounds were widely distributed across Indiana (Figure 1).
Essentially we should look at mound construction as religious practices carried out by early farmers. Good examples of Woodland mounds can be seen at Mounds State Park near Anderson, Indiana. Those found buried in mounds appear to be persons of status; they were often interred with exotic grave goods acquired through wide trading networks. During the Middle Woodland, the Hopewell cultures in Indiana were acquiring shells from the Gulf Coast, copper from Lake Superior, obsidian from Wyoming, sheet mica from the Appalachian Mountains, and flint from Illinois and Ohio. Religious leaders probably controlled the distribution of these exotic trade goods.

After approximately 400 A.D., mounds were no longer built and the trading networks disappeared. Archaeologists are unsure as to what caused the disappearance of the mound building tradition. Cultural changes resulted in the emergence of new societies which were not focused upon burial ceremonialism.
Mississippian cultures represent the final division of prehistoric groups to inhabit Indiana. Mississippian groups were predominantly located in southwestern Indiana, along the lower Ohio River, and in the northwest corner of the state. These groups lived in villages and hunted and gathered to supplement the cultivation of maize, squash and beans. Mounds constructed by Mississippians served as platforms for temples rather than for cemeteries. Mississippian ceramics included a wide range of forms and were oftentimes elaborately decorated. Early European explorers encountered and described some Mississippian groups in the southeastern United States, although by this time there appears to have been a general decline in Mississippian culture.

Prominent among the historic Indians in Indiana were the Miami and Potawatomi. The Delaware moved into east central Indiana in the late 1700s, having been pushed westward by European settlement on the East Coast. Interestingly, much of Indiana was unoccupied when the first European explorers entered the area in the early 1600s. The Miami were first contacted in the Green Bay, Wisconsin area and moved into central Indiana following contact. There is, therefore, a break in the link between the historic Native Americans in Indiana and the prehistoric record.
Chapter 3: The Indians, Early Residents of Indiana, to 1679
Liliane Krasean, French Historian, Indianapolis

To the teacher: Early Indiana history illustrates the culture of the native Americans prior to the period of European discovery.

Corollary to U.S. History
• Regional pattern of Indian settlements
• The Old World meeting the New World
• French settlements in Canada and exploration of Indiana territory

GENERAL COMMENTS

Long before the state of Indiana was created, its geographic area was inhabited by the native Americans that early European settlers called Indians. The history of these first Americans is linked to the history of the discovery and subsequent colonization of the New World by the nations of Europe.

The Indians had oral traditions to support their history but no written records to substantiate it. Consequently, our knowledge of their unadulterated native ways and of their history has come to us through the written works of European explorers and colonizers who first came in contact with them and their culture, as well as through the works of archaeologists who interpret the surviving sites and physical artifacts of Indian culture.

In the region now encompassing the state of Indiana, the Indians first came in contact with explorers and missionaries from French Canada in the 17th century. Our knowledge of these “historic” Indians comes mainly from written documents produced by the French, by the English who wrested the area from France, and by the later Americans who settled the Old Northwest—including Indiana. Indians who lived prior to this era are known to us largely through archaeology, and are often called “prehistoric.”
What we know about the “prehistoric” and “historic” Indians of America, and more specifically those who resided in Indiana and its surrounding area, is still to a large degree speculative. Consequently, segments of factual knowledge can only loosely be knitted together to provide a sense of history.

It is now commonly assumed that the Indians are people who migrated from their native Asia by passing through an ice-free corridor linking Siberia to the Seward Peninsula of Alaska. They settled on the American continent following a retreat of glaciers many thousands of years ago. An estimated 16 to 20 million such people are thought to have populated the New World on the eve of European discovery, with perhaps more than 2 million in what would much later become the United States of America. These Indians had gradually adapted to their new surroundings; they moved eastward and southward into the new country as their need for more game, land, and space dictated. Sometime during the course of this internal migration—several thousand years ago—some of them reached the Great Lakes region and settled in lands watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries, including the Wabash and Ohio River countries. Each movement of migration to a new area must have brought about change in the life style of the Indians, and the development of new cultural expressions. Indian cultural groups differed greatly from one another and attained varying levels of organization such as bands, clans, and tribes.

Archaeologists perceive four major traditions in the development and evolution of prehistoric Indians which show these distinctive cultural patterns. The Big Game Hunter tradition, dating from about 8,000 B.C., is the earliest of the recognized traditions. Projectile artifacts with fluted points characterize this period. Secondly, the Archaic Tradition is characterized by change and adaptation of both man and the surroundings, and by simple technology. The third grouping to be identified, the Woodland Tradition, is marked by some advances in technological skills. The Indians learned to work available raw material such as clay into ceramics, pottery became a distinctive native product, and bows and arrows were made and used. Finally, there is the Mississippian Tradition which extends into this historic period of European colonization and which produced more varied and more numerous artifacts made from readily available exploitable raw material such as wood, bone, shell, stone, and clay. During this period, some Indians continued to rely on a somewhat traditional way of life based on group mobility. Their subsistence patterns were essentially based on food gathering, hunting, and fishing. Others appear to have adopted a sedentary style of living. They established more permanent
settlements, such as the excavated village of Angel Mounds, near present-day Evansville, Indiana; achieved a higher degree of social stratification; and extended and intensified farming practices. They learned to complement their subsistence by the cultivation of such food product as maize, potatoes, beans, squash, and pumpkin. Tobacco was also grown.

Despite this seeming wealth of knowledge painstakingly obtained by archaeologists from the material remains of an elusive past, and sometimes further substantiated by direct written records of early European witnesses, there is still not sufficient evidence available to explain fully the complex process by which groups of Indians interacted with their physical environment at any given time.

Historic Indians, on the other hand, can be described and their ways studied in the emerging historical context that followed the age of discovery. Many early European settlers and explorers recorded their observations and reactions to the new lands and peoples they met, providing sources for modern historians and archaeologists.

These sources help identify by name specific Indian nations and tribes; link their presence to precise geographic places; describe their life styles and beliefs at given times; and shed light on conditions that may have brought about changes in their behavior or their environment.

It seems clear that the coming of the Europeans to the New World caused many shifts in the existing patterns of settlements and migrations. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, successively under French and then British domination, various Indian tribes moved about the American heartland. The Indians most closely identified with the general location of the state of Indiana included the Miami, Potawatomi, Ouiatanon, Pianashaw, and Kickapoo, who came eastward from the Wisconsin area, and the Delaware, Munsee, and Shawnee, who came westward from the Atlantic seaboard.

The impact of European civilization on the Indians was often devastating to their culture and beliefs. The Indians preferred many of the European products to their own. Beads, kettles, axes, guns, iron knives, and cloth were in demand, and the Indians learned they could trade beaver, raccoon, and deer pelts for things they needed or wanted. The fur trade brought about changes in the social life and native economic structures of the day. Young men tended their traps rather than fishing and hunting for food. Competitive pressure also brought about the dislocation of the tribal unit into smaller bands living in more isolated communities. By 1740, Indian culture was seriously disrupted; however, some would continue to reside in the region for another century.
The concept of history is linked to the discovery of America and to the written word. If no one had recorded in writing the discovery of America, we might not have known about it as we do. People other than Columbus may have indeed discovered the North American continent, but they cannot get credit for it because no written record of it exists. The written word stays; the spoken word is soon forgotten. Because the people who discovered and then colonized America could read and write and the Indians could not, the Indians who came into contact with them, and about whom something was written, are called "historic" by European standards. The others are called "prehistoric."

Archaeologists excavate sites and study the artifacts they find deposited there. Using the precise location of the artifact in the ground and the site of its geographic location as important considerations, they derive interpretations from the material under their scrutiny.

Archaeological evidence supports the interpretation that Indians lived in Indiana long before any European set foot on any American soil. Because of a nomadic style of living, no one can be sure whether they were the forefathers of those Indians who were in this region when the French arrived.

"Prehistoric" Indians, like any other prehistoric people, left clues that they existed. These are called artifacts by the archaeologists who study them. Archaeologists can tell us a lot about the artifacts, but they sometimes have to speculate about what people were like, what they did, or how they lived.

It is through their eyes, and the writings of the French, that we have acquired much of the knowledge we have of the first people who lived in this area. What the French explorers, missionaries, and other writers had to say about these Indians is of great importance to archaeologists and anthropologists as well as historians. The longer the Indians remained in contact with the Europeans, the more Indian culture changed.

When the French arrived in Indiana, in the latter part of the seventeenth century, the Miami had already pushed eastward from the Wisconsin area into northern Indiana. The principal town of their confederacy, Kekionga, was located at the site of present-day Fort Wayne, where three rivers converge.
The Ouiatanon, Piankashaw, and Potawatomi also were originally from the Great Lakes area. These Indians lived in villages along the Wabash and Vermillion rivers. Many of the Ouiatanon and the Piankashaw villages were located in present-day Tippecanoe County. These tribes cultivated corn, pumpkin, and melons. The Delaware, pushed west by the English settlement in the east, came to Ohio and Indiana during the second half of the eighteenth century. Like the Shawnee, the Delaware were to be found mostly in east-central Indiana, around Anderson and Muncie.
Chapter 4: Indiana As Part of the French Colonial Domain, 1679-1765
Liliane Krasean, French Historian, Indianapolis

To the teacher: Rivalry between the British and French led to explorations into the interior of the New World territory.

Corollary to U.S. History

• European nations build overseas empires
• Spain and Portugal; Treaty of Tordesillas
• Britain and France compete for colonial empires in the New World
• Series of four wars determines control of Old Northwest Territory

GENERAL COMMENTS

French settlement in North America dates from the founding of Quebec, Canada, in 1608 by Samuel de Champlain. While the British settled along the Atlantic seacoast, the French entered the North American continent through the valley of the St. Lawrence River. Explorations along the inland waterways led French explorers and missionaries into the hinterland of the American wilderness.

By 1663, King Louis XIV had taken direct control of New France. Canada became a royal colony under a new form of government. A governor-general and an intendant shared the management of the province. A superior council composed of men appointed from among the local citizenry served in an advisory capacity and as a court of law. (A similar form of government was later instituted in Louisiana.) Interior settlements were given commanding officers. The first settlements followed the feudal system, although as more settlements sprang up in the wilderness, some feudal elements were dropped. All settlers were to be granted land to homestead by the commander of each village, who was given the authority to make such grants. This practice was retained by French settlers into the 1790s, even in what became Indiana, during the early years of the American regime in the Old Northwest.
The French population in America was diversified, small, and slow to reach the interior. Nobles, peasants, laborers, artisans, merchants, and soldiers all were present, as were priests, missionaries, and nuns representing the Catholic Church of France. Conspicuously absent were the French Protestants—Huguenots who went to strengthen the British Atlantic colonies after they were banished from France and from French settlements in Canada. The economic life of the colony was based on a mercantile philosophy. The fur trade remained the backbone of the wilderness economy throughout the French regime.

Because Canada was well established by the second half of the 17th century, the impetus for inland exploration and settlements came from there. La Salle is usually recognized as the first Frenchman to set foot on Indiana soil (in 1679 near present-day South Bend). Thereafter the French penetrated the interior of the continent from the Great Lakes southward. They followed a route along the St. Joseph-Kankakee-Illinois rivers, which were connected by a system of portages. Forts were erected along this route, and missions were established among the Indian tribes who populated these areas. The Sulpicien established a mission at Cahokia (now East St. Louis, Illinois) in 1699. Jean-Baptiste Bissot, known as the Sieur de Vincennes, was the first known French agent to come visit and then live among the Miami Indians on the St. Joseph River in northern Indiana as early as 1696.

Louisiana, founded in 1699, now had her own government and its jurisdiction extended northward to include parts of Illinois and the Wabash country. In Indiana, the boundary line separating Canada from the newer colony ran east and west near Terre Haute. Kaskaskia and Cahokia, on the Mississippi, gained a new importance and became centers of French activities. To the east, as the only alternative to the Kankakee-Illinois River route (made unsafe by the hostility of the Fox Indians) the Maumee-Wabash route was developed as the main and safest waterway linking Canada and Louisiana. Increasingly afraid of English influence over the Indians, French colonists called on the metropolitan government of France to populate or in some way support the colonizing efforts of the officials of both colonies. France finally responded to the need of her colonial provinces by allowing the establishment of fortified trading posts in the American heartland of the Maumee and Wabash region.
In 1717, Francois-Marie Picote, Sieur de Bellestre, an army officer at Detroit, built a fort among the Ouiatanon Indians. Fort Ouiatanon, located on the north bank of the Wabash River some 18 miles below the mouth of the Tippecanoe River, was a boost to the fur trade. Communication between Canada and Louisiana via the Maumee-Wabash river system was facilitated, and increased. After the death of Jean-Baptiste Bissot, the Sieur de Vincennes, who had been living among the Miami since the turn of the century, the Canadians recognized the urgency of securing this route further. They established a garrisoned post at the Miami village of Kekionga. Captain Charles Renauld Dubuisson, who at one time had command at Detroit, completed Fort St. Philippe de Miamis (known simply as Fort Miami) in 1722. The son of Jean-Baptiste Bissot, Jean-Marie, who had been living with the Indians since 1718, was transferred to Ouiatanon and placed in charge there under the command of the more experienced Dubuisson. The French military presence at these two places consisted of about a dozen soldiers and a commanding officer.

The history of these two posts was marked by a succession of commanders, which was indicative of some of the difficulties encountered by the French trying to establish a viable environment for their colonies. Both Fort Ouiatanon and Fort Miami served mostly as trade outlets for Detroit; they maintained peace among the Indians while keeping in check potential English traders who ventured into French territory. These two posts remained small with a population never exceeding about fifteen families. Concurrently, Louisiana and the Company of the Indies, which had the monopoly of the trade there at that time, took the first steps for the establishment of a fort on the lower Wabash to stop any possible advance of the British into the Ohio Valley. In 1730, Jean-Marie Bissot, Sieur de Vincennes, finished the palisades at the location of the Indiana city that bears his name today. During an unsuccessful war with the pro-British Chickasaw Indians in 1736, Sieur de Vincennes was killed and the settlement barely survived as an outpost of the French Empire.

To erase some of the effects of the disastrous and humiliating defeat of 1736, Louisiana and Canada mounted a new expedition against the Chickasaw which brought about a treaty. The years 1739-1740 also brought an end to the wars against the Fox Indians to the north, but the results were not permanent. Indian unrest was broadening, fostered not only by the encroachment of the white man on Indian land, but also by the more daring and more frequent infiltrations of British colonial traders into French-claimed territory in the upper Ohio region. The 30-year-long truce, achieved in Europe after the Treaty of Utrecht, was ending. War was formally declared between France and Britain in 1744. It is known as the War of the Austrian Succession, or...
King George’s War, which ended in 1748 with the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. By then Virginia had, with the assent of the King of England, organized the Ohio Company to compete with the other British colonies in the western fur trade and to secure and populate the region within the territorial limits stipulated in her 1609 colonial charter. Increasingly, the Indians were being lured away from French influence by Anglo-American traders playing upon their traditional fears of tribes, such as the Iroquois, who were known to be sympathetic to the French. Meanwhile the British—after gaining naval supremacy during King George’s War—gave the Indians presents and supplied them with trade goods cheaper than what the French could offer.

One band of the Miami, traditionally allies of the French and normally occupying a region encompassing the Wabash and the Maumee Rivers in Indiana, moved eastward and established a village in present-day Ohio. Growing defections of the Indians from French-held territory and instances of open revolt leading to murderous raids against French settlers and voyagers threatened the security and survival of the three French posts in Indiana during the early 1750s. In 1752, after having tried in vain to regain the allegiance of their former allies without using force, the French allowed a punitive expedition to take place against the new Miami Indian village at Pickawillany. The expedition was led by the young, fiery, and ambitious Charles-Michel Mouet, Sieur de Langlade. His force of 240 Chippewa and Ottawa Indians in a surprise attack killed Old Briton, the Miami rebel leader also known as La Demoiselle. The fall of Pickawillany marked a turning point in the intercolonial rivalry that opposed the French to the British colonies in America. Langlade and his party confiscated a great quantity of British goods reportedly worth some 3,000 pounds. Most of the Indians returned to the main Miami settlements in Maumee country. The French regained control both of the fur trade and of the Ohio Valley and its people. But France had yet to strengthen her hold on the land, and keep Anglo-American expansion in check.

Acutely aware that the encroachment of British colonials on their territorial claims in the Ohio Valley would threaten the fur trade and the lines of communication between Canada and Louisiana, the French governor of Canada sent a small troop headed by Pierre-Joseph Celoron de Blainville to assert the claims of France in the Ohio Valley and formally take possession of it. In 1749, by burying lead plates at key places along the Ohio River with appropriate pomp and ceremony to impress the Indians, Celoron strengthened the forts in the Great Lakes region. The governor of Louisiana meanwhile strengthened the garrisons in the Illinois country and began the construction of a new stone fort, Fort Charles, near Kaskaskia in 1751.

King George’s War
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle
Ohio Company formed by British
Indian tribes become allies of the French or the British
France attempts to strengthen control over its territory
In 1753, the French started to build a chain of forts at strategic points along a route running southeast from Lake Erie to the Forks of the Ohio, in western Pennsylvania. Fort Duquesne was built just before the Virginia House of Burgesses dispatched a small troop led by George Washington in an attempt to reclaim the region for Great Britain and Virginia. George Washington was defeated at Fort Necessity in 1754. Without formal declaration of war between the two mother countries, the Seven Years' War, also known as the French and Indian War, had begun.

In the beginning the war went badly for the Anglo-Americans. British General Edward Braddock was defeated and killed as he was marching toward Fort Duquesne. The war spread to Europe with France and England declaring war in 1756. The French forces both in America and in Europe had the upper hand. The turning point in the struggle for control of America was in 1758. Following the disastrous year of 1757, the new Prime Minister in Britain, William Pitt, realized that in order to achieve greatness, Britain needed to build her naval fleet and fully support her colonies in their efforts to defeat the French Empire in America. The result of Britain's renewed war efforts came in 1759 at Quebec, with General Wolfe's heralded defeat of General Louis-Joseph, Marquis de Montcalm. The fate of the French colonies in America, including the Illinois and Wabash country posts, was sealed with the Treaty of Paris in 1763. The French flag was lowered in Canada on September 8, 1760. Later that fall, Detroit in Michigan and the French posts of Miami and Ouiatanon in Indiana were occupied by Anglo-American forces. Subsequently Vincennes was surrendered by her commander, Louis Bellerive de St. Ange, in the spring of 1764. At the time of the surrender, Forts Miami and Ouiatanon were prospering fur trading posts and Vincennes was becoming a thriving wilderness town.

POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

The history of the state of Indiana, its government and its institutions, postdates the history of its people. Its geography is limited to the area defined by its later borders. Indeed, just as Indiana can be taught in terms of the total history of North America and of the United States, it can be described and defined geographically in terms of the midwestern region of the United States. Before statehood, the region encompassing Indiana was simply a part of a larger area with less well-defined contours. This area meant different things to the Indians, the French, the British, and then the Americans who came to populate and govern it.
Distinguishing geographic features, waterways, and the Indians who lived on lands about them initially played a role in naming and identifying specific regions in the American hinterlands. Thus, under the French, the Illinois Indians who lived on the Illinois River gave their name to the region encompassing the state of Illinois. In Indiana, the Wabash River, an essential trade route to the fur traders, helped identify those settlements established in its vicinity. In the French period, the Indian and French settlements that would have been in the northern two-thirds of present-day Indiana were under the jurisdiction of the government in Canada, and their history is therefore related to Canadian history. The lower third, including Vincennes, depended on Louisiana and its history. Initially, the Illinois country was separate from the Wabash country settlements.

Between 1689 and 1763, England and France fought four major wars, each of which involved some conflict in the New World. Both France and Great Britain may have preferred having their respective colonies fight their own battles with their own means if possible, until William Pitt saw that the key to victory was defeating France in America. France maintained a more traditional line toward the war, and lost on all fronts. The Seven Years' War (1756-1763), which had actually started in 1754 as a purely American war between the respective colonies of France and Great Britain, became a war between the mother countries. France lost, and chose to abandon her colonies to the new victor.

When two cultures come in contact, often there is a clash between them which ultimately leads to the dislocation and possible assimilation of one of them. There is, however, the corollary that the other culture will not remain untouched; it will change at least a little by incorporating some traits of the other one. Through their contacts with American Indians, colonists learned to adapt to their new environment and sometimes to coexist relatively peaceably with the Indians. In the long run, the French even adopted some of the Indian ways. The two people could cooperate with each other partly because they needed each other and partly because each had something to gain from the other. The French needed the Indians as allies against the British, and they knew how to cultivate their loyalty if not their friendship. Many French officers dealt with the Indians in a relatively courteous and polite manner, in a way that did not hurt the Indians' self-respect. The French also knew when and how to give presents to the Indians in order to entertain their constant good will. The French trader was a friend to the Indians, and many kinship ties were formed between French and Indians over the years. Overall, the French managed to create a system of alliances with the Indians and a viable network. Thus the French involved the Indians in imperial wars, and provided the material goods that heavily altered traditional Indian cultures.
It is widely known that the Indians were more accepting of the French than they were of the British or the Americans, and the French in turn knew how to befriend them, or at least obtain from them an agreement that they remain neutral during a pending conflict with the British or their colonists. It must be acknowledged, however, that each protagonist played its own game to attain its avowed end. The French, partly because they were fewer in number than the English, partly because they held a vast territory, and partly also because of some personality traits which allowed them to adapt more easily to their new human and geographic environments, devised a colonial policy and a colonizing style more accommodating to the Indians of the American wilderness, inclusive of the Wabash country. They needed them. The Indians, too, needed the French who would provide them with much-needed trade items. Cheaper and more plentiful trade goods would become the means through which the British colonists attempted—at time successfully—to buy the loyalty of the Indians and alter the delicate balance maintained by the French within their territorial claims. But because the French and the Indians had earned each other’s respect and formed precious kinship ties through intermarriages, the affective relations which linked the Indians to the French withstood the test of time and history.

The Catholic Church and especially the Jesuit Order played a major role in the expansion and development of Canada and the American hinterland. The New World offered an unprecedented opportunity to zealous missionaries to bring Christianity to the pagan souls of the Indians. This effort of the church was fully supported by the Company of New France. The Black Robes, as they were called, were intrepid explorers who ventured into new territories, guided by their missionary zeal. They also founded missions among Indian tribes in the wilderness which later became seats of French settlements. Kaskaskia, Illinois, was started by Father Allouez as a Christian mission in 1677, before it became a settlement in 1703. None of the three French posts in Indiana was started as a mission by the church; nonetheless, the church played an important role in the development and survival of Vincennes. As noted before, Vincennes was the most populated of the three locations, and as such it was big enough to have a church. The records of St. Francis Xavier Church, now a Basilica, go back to 1749.

Whenever it was present at a colonial settlement, the church acted as a cementing force on the community. It was built in the center of the village and provided much needed leadership, direction, and spirituality.
Chapter 5: The Old Northwest Under British Control, 1763-1783

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To the teacher: After the long struggle between Britain and France, Britain took control of the territory west of the Appalachian Mountains.

Corollary to U.S. History
- The Treaty of Paris, 1763
- Aftermath of the French and Indian War and future colonial problems
- Beginning of the road to the War of Independence

GENERAL COMMENTS

The British period in the Old Northwest was a temporary interlude. Much of its importance arises from the fact that it prepared the way for American title to the region in 1783 at the end of the American Revolution. Hence, the British interlude prepared the way for the Old Northwest to become a part of the United States, for the establishment of English and American practices and ideas about government, and for Protestantism rather than Roman Catholicism as the dominant religion of the area. The period also saw the continued erosion of Indian culture by European trade goods, and the first serious attempts to end Indian land title in the west.

The early population of the Old Northwest consisted mostly of Indians and small, scattered French settlements located at Detroit, Kaskaskia, Vincennes, Miami, Ouiatenon, and elsewhere. Only a limited number of English colonists moved west of the Appalachians during the period 1763-1783, and almost all of them settled south of the Ohio River or in western Pennsylvania. There were no English settlements in the Old Northwest in this period, though of course a few individual Englishmen appeared here and there. The fact that most of the white population was French is an important factor in explaining the terms of the Quebec Act of 1774.
It is useful to speculate what the relations between American colonists and England might have been in the years 1763-1783 if France had retained Canada and Spain had retained Florida. Removing France and Spain as near neighbors doubtless caused the colonists to feel less need for the support and protection of the Mother Country. Moreover, if in 1763 the French had retained the Old Northwest, the French rather than the Mother Country might have been regarded as the principal rival of the advancing English colonists. Since, however, the English had gained title to the Ohio Valley and the Old Northwest, they had to make decisions about Indians, land cessions, fur trade, and the like; naturally, criticisms about such policies were directed at the English. Though it is well to speculate about such matters, it is essential to note that there remains much diversity of opinion among historians regarding the role of these western factors in producing the American Revolution.

Although the importance of the west in the War for Independence and the ensuing Peace of Paris (1783) is uncertain, there is no doubt that Indians caused considerable loss of life in the West during and after the American Revolution. In fact, peace with the Indians of the Ohio Valley was delayed until the Treaty of Greenville, 1795. George Rogers Clark’s campaign, 1778-1779, was important in upsetting British military plans for the west. The persons who made the Treaty of Paris in 1783 knew of Clark’s achievements and may have been influenced by them when it was decided to give the new nation title to the trans-Appalachian west.

**POINTS TO EMPHASIZE**

The English held title to the region now known as the Old Northwest for only two decades, and during this short period almost no Englishmen settled in the area. The Indians remained the most numerous residents of the region, while the French settlers outnumbered the English. The English faced three major problems: (1) What policies should they establish regarding the Indians? (2) How should they control and regulate the fur trade? (3) What policies should they establish regarding land speculation and settlement? The English were also concerned about how to govern this remote area, how to garrison and defend it, and how to fund the costs of defense, government, Indian relations, and other responsibilities of the government. Many of the English lacked experience for dealing with these vexing problems.

What if France had retained control of the Old Northwest

Treaty of Greenville, 1795

Major problems facing the English in the Old Northwest
The English presence contributed in several ways to the decline of the traditional Woodland Indian cultures. The fur and skin trade depleted much of the game and made the Indians dependent upon trade goods and even food supplies brought by the traders. Many Indians were worried by these changes in their culture and alarmed by the increase in the number of the American colonists. Far-sighted Indian leaders urged maintenance of their traditional ways of life. These general concerns, combined with specific grievances against the new English garrisons at the old French forts, led to widespread Indian rebellion in 1763. Called Pontiac's Rebellion, after the Ottawa leader who unsuccessfully attacked and besieged Detroit, it was actually an uprising of a number of tribes. Every English post west of Pittsburgh (Fort Pitt) except Detroit fell to the attackers. But the rebellion gradually fell apart and by 1765 the English had re-established a measure of control throughout the area.

Pontiac's War hastened the issuance of the Proclamation of 1763. This Proclamation, issued in the name of King George III, reserved to the Indians the vast area between the crest of the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River, from the Great Lakes on the north to West Florida on the south. No new settlers were to enter the region, and any non-French already there were requested to leave. French residents at Vincennes were allowed to remain. Only licensed fur traders were permitted in the region; however, licenses were easy to obtain. Hence, the Proclamation of 1763 made the Indians wards of the English government, attempted to exclude both speculators and settlers from the region west of the Appalachians, and offered encouragement to the fur trade. It also left the scattered French settlers without any recognized civil government.

The pressure mounted by land speculators and homeseekers led to modification of the Proclamation. Even before 1763, hundreds of Englishmen had settled west of the crest of the Appalachian Mountains, notably in western Pennsylvania in valleys tributary to the Ohio River. Representatives of various companies of land speculators and an increasing number of settlers moved into the upper Ohio Valley in spite of the prohibition. During the late 1760s and early 1770s the English made treaties with the Indians which opened large tracts of land for occupation by the advancing frontiersmen. These tracts were principally in present-day West Virginia and western Pennsylvania. Settlers increased in these areas, and in 1774 settlers also begin arriving in Kentucky. In 1774, Parliament passed the Quebec Act which annexed the Old Northwest to the Canadian province of Quebec. This act provided civil government for the French of the area, protected them in their right to worship as Roman Catholics, and except for English criminal law, provided that French civil law should prevail. Though the Quebec Act was not intended to punish English colonists, many of them considered it as one of the odious 1774 Intolerable Acts.
The efforts of the English to restrict and restrain western settlement caused objections from persons interested in land speculation. These efforts weakened the charter-grant claims of several colonies, especially Virginia, to the land west of the Appalachians; the Quebec Act added religious bias as a source of controversy. Controversy over policies toward the Old Northwest was one of the factors which produced the American Revolution, 1775-1783. Moreover, since the French had been expelled from the mainland of North America in 1763, and the Spanish had exchanged Florida (extending to the Mississippi) for Louisiana west of the Mississippi, the English colonists, lacking the French and Spanish as near neighbors, felt less need for the protection and support of the Mother Country. The advance of English colonists into western Pennsylvania, western Virginia, eastern Tennessee, and Kentucky alarmed the Indians of the Ohio Valley, resulting in Lord Dunmore's War in 1774. Each side enjoyed relatively secure bases in the west: the British at Detroit and Mackinac, the Americans in Pittsburgh and some of the Kentucky settlements. From these base areas each side bid for the support of the Indians and the French settlers north of the Ohio. Most Indian tribes sided eventually with the British, who presented less threat to Indian lands and who provided better trade arrangements than the Americans. Most French settlers showed neutrality until the Franco-American alliance of 1778 induced some, mainly in the Ohio Valley, to show more favor to the American cause. Most of the fighting in the west consisted of raids and skirmishes in which scalping and other forms of brutality were fairly common.

An important effort against the English-Indian-Loyalist combination in the Ohio Valley and the Old Northwest was the western campaign of George Rogers Clark in 1778-1779. Clark was an early settler of Kentucky who realized that the French at Kaskaskia and Vincennes could easily be persuaded to change their loyalty from the English to the Americans. Moreover, he hoped to seize Detroit, which was a center for organization of English and Indian attacks. In 1778, Clark's force of about 200 men, supplied and supported mainly by Virginia, came down the Ohio from the Falls of the Ohio near Louisville, marched across southern Illinois, and then captured Kaskaskia without loss of life. From there, part of his men took Vincennes, which was soon lost to Lieutenant Colonel Henry Hamilton, the English commander at Detroit. The American recapture of Vincennes early in 1779 was the result of considerable daring and much hardship on the part of Clark and his men. Warfare continued intermittently in the Ohio Valley throughout the American Revolution. Although the British and Americans made peace in 1783, and in general ceased fighting after the British surrender at Yorktown in 1781, Indian warfare continued for some time. In fact, some of the most costly warfare in the Ohio Valley occurred after the end of the serious fighting in the region east of the Appalachians.
In the Treaty of Paris, 1783, the British recognized the independence of the Americans. Of great significance was the ceding of the huge land region between the Appalachians and the Mississippi (the Old Northwest) to the new United States. Thus the Old Northwest passed from the English to the Americans in 1783. In addition, the English promised to evacuate Detroit and several other forts located on the American side of the border, and it was agreed that both countries could freely navigate the Mississippi to its mouth. Unfortunately, however, the British delayed and then refused to evacuate the border posts. The Spanish, who recovered Florida in 1783, contended that since they owned both banks of the mouth of the Mississippi, they held control over vessels using the outlet to this important river.
Chapter 6: Indiana A Part of the Old Northwest, 1783-1800

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To the teacher: Indiana and several other states are carved from the Old Northwest Territory. See Chapter 7 as a companion to this chapter.

Corollary to U.S. History
- Treaty of Paris 1783 ends the War of Independence
- Americans push westward
- Articles of Confederation—a government for the new nation
- Ordinance of 1785 and Northwest Ordinance of 1787
- Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia

GENERAL COMMENTS

Developments in the region north of the Ohio—in what later became known as the Old Northwest—are of particular importance to an understanding of Indiana History. This is true not only because Indiana was carved from the Old Northwest but also because the basic policies which the United States applied to the Old Northwest as a whole were applied to Indiana, though with some amendments. Thus the period, 1783-1800, is the period of American beginnings in the Old Northwest as well as the years which established important precedents and roots for the development of Indiana during its pioneer period, 1800-1850.

The Old Northwest was—and is—an area of considerable extent and great importance. Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and the eastern part of Minnesota were carved from it. Each of these states is larger than several major countries of the world. The region is bounded by Pennsylvania on the east, the Mississippi on the west, the Ohio River on the south, and the Great Lakes on the north. Geographically it is not a unit because the continental divide between the St. Lawrence-Great Lakes Basin and the Mississippi Basin cuts across Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana and Ohio. Thus, part of the rainfall at Gary and Fort Wayne flows into the Great Lakes and out the St.
Lawrence, while part flows into tributaries of the Mississippi. The French used the portages across this continental divide to explore into Indiana territory. Geographically the upper part of the area, that part which drains into the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence area, belongs more to Canada than to the United States. An awareness of this fact helps explain the continued importance of English fur traders in the Old Northwest after 1783, and the delay in American settlement of the upper part of the Old Northwest.

Unlike the French, the Americans approached the Old Northwest by way of the Ohio Valley. A small number of settlers had crossed the Appalachians into the upper Ohio Valley preceding 1763. Quite a number came into the area during the next two decades (the English interlude). Still more settlers entered before 1800, although most of them settled south of the Ohio. By 1800, Kentucky (1792) and Tennessee (1796) had both become states, western Pennsylvania had a large population, and many persons lived in the present West Virginia area.

In 1781 the Confederation Congress established by the terms of the Articles of Confederation became the national government, and continued until the organization of a new Congress under the federal government in 1789. Hence, most of the basic policies of the United States regarding the Old Northwest were first evolved by the Confederation Congress, including the policies set forth in the justly famous and important Ordinance of 1787. It was to this Confederation Congress that most of the states surrendered their claims to the West. The achievements of this Congress regarding the Old Northwest were indeed substantial.

The vast majority of the settlers moving into the west came in search of land: for lumbering, mining, grazing, and above all, farming. The Indian trade meant little to them, and even Indian claim to the land of the west was often ignored or treated as an impediment to be eliminated by war or treaty at the earliest opportunity. Little wonder, then, that the western Indian wars continued, or that questions of land policy were so often central in public discourse.

The growth of the Ohio Valley raised a fundamental question: What should be the relationship between the areas east and west of the Appalachians? Some persons thought that even the thirteen original states could not establish a permanent Union, hence it was absurd to think of adding states to the Union from the Appalachian hinterland. Yet, just as the Revolution of 1776 was ended, the Continental Congress promised the states and citizens alike that if the west were ceded to Congress, it would be carved into equal states. The Confederation Congress redeemed this pledge. This promise of statehood to western
territories (or colonies) was the principal difference between American and English territorial or colonial policies. Without equal statehood for the area west of the Appalachians, it is uncertain whether the Union of the states would ever have extended westward to the Pacific and then to Alaska and Hawaii.

POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

Until 1815, when the War of 1812 ended, it remained uncertain whether the United States would make good its title to the Old Northwest which was obtained at the Treaty of Paris, 1783. In various ways, the odds seemed unfavorable to American success in the 1780s, but the United States gradually increased its control over the area so that by 1815 it had a strong hold on the Old Northwest. During the 1780s, Americans faced the same three major problems regarding the Old Northwest which the English had faced during the 1760s: (1) What Indian policies should they establish? (2) How should they control and regulate the fur trade? and (3) What policies should they establish regarding land speculation and settlement? The Americans were also concerned how they might best govern the area, how it could best be garrisoned and defended, and how they could fund the defense, government, Indian relations, and other costs. Americans lacked experience in dealing with these vexing problems, but they were familiar with English policies for the Old Northwest and were much more aggressive in seeking to eliminate Indian land titles and claim.

Just as with the English two decades earlier, conflict with the Indians was an urgent and immediate problem. Indian resistance to the Americans increased during the late 1780s as various tribes sought to prevent Americans from settling north of the Ohio River. In 1790, Brigadier General Josiah Harmar was defeated by the Indians within the limits of present-day Fort Wayne. The next year Major General Arthur St. Clair, who was governor of the Northwest Territory, was defeated near the present Ohio-Indiana border southeast of Fort Wayne.

The Indian victories reflected the excellent leadership of a confederation of Indian tribes who received substantial British help. Little Turtle of the Miami and Blue Jacket of the Shawnee played important roles in leading the Indian resistance in the region. Such defeats disturbed President Washington, who placed General "Mad" Anthony Wayne in charge of a larger than usual expedition and charged him to make peace—by diplomacy if possible, but by force if necessary. Peace efforts failing, Wayne's troops in 1794 defeated the Indians at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in the Maumee Valley of northwestern Ohio.
The next year at the Treaty of Greenville, the Indians ceded to the United States most of Ohio, a slice from what is now the eastern border of Indiana (the Gore), and tracts of land at various town sites within Indiana. No serious armed Indian resistance occurred within the Ohio Valley thereafter until about 1807.

Before the United States could establish policies regarding the Indians, the fur trade, and occupation of the land by Americans, questions of ownership of the land west of the Appalachians had to be settled. Six of the original 13 states claimed portions of this land on the basis of colonial charters while another, New York, claimed land on the basis of an Indian treaty. The remaining six states lacked any claims. Some persons thought the Treaty of Paris had established that all western land belonged to Congress, but others argued that the treaty had not superseded the claims of the states. This question of ownership was vigorously discussed during and immediately after the Revolution, but fortunately the states gradually surrendered their individual claims in favor of those of the United States. Virginia played an important role in this decision; her land cessions in 1781 and 1784 set a pattern most states followed. Two states retained some lands, called “reserves” in the Old Northwest, particularly in Ohio. Moreover, the West Virginia and Kentucky areas remained a part of Virginia until statehood. Hence Ohio and Indiana became the areas in which the United States established most of its early policies regarding: (1) the survey and sale of land, and (2) how a territory might progress to statehood.

Though its basis for land acquisition was never concisely stated in any single document during the 1780s, the United States, through the Confederation Congress, established a four-step pattern by which title to Indian lands could be acquired by American settlers: (1) Obtaining of land by the United States through treaties with Indian tribes; (2) Survey of land so obtained by the United States; (3) Sale of land to individuals or land companies by the United States; and (4) Settlement by purchasers of land, or by persons who purchased, rented, or leased land from such purchasers. These basic steps were expected to occur in the order listed, but both squatters and speculators often interfered at any stage and even before the Indians had surrendered their claims.

The Land Ordinance of 1785 was a very important act passed by the Confederation Congress. It established the congressional township (6 mile square) as the basic unit for surveying land, and it established a section (640 acres) as the minimum amount which would be sold to purchasers. This law set $1 per acre as the minimum price and required cash with purchase. Many historians have noted that such features as rectilinear survey, survey in advance of sale, and use of township units reflects a strong New England influence in the legisla-
tion, as opposed to the Southern practice of irregular plots, survey after sale, and use of smaller farm units. This suggested the important effect of regional cultures upon the early vision of what the Old Northwest might become. Though fire: applied only to the Seven Ranges in eastern Ohio next to the Pennsylvania border, the rectangular survey system was later extended to almost all of the public domain in the United States. The terms of sale were of course frequently modified. Not much land was sold by the United States to individuals before 1796, partly because few could provide $640 in cash and partly because land could be obtained from the "reserves" or in one of the southern states (including the large area south of the Ohio River which remained a part of Virginia or North Carolina). Large tracts of land, however, were sold at bargain prices to land companies in this period. The Ohio Company, which bought much land in southeastern Ohio, became the founder of Marietta, Ohio, in the spring of 1788.

The fur trade with the Indians, which had been the most important factor in luring the French and English into the Old Northwest and other interior areas, was relatively less important for the Americans. During the 1780s, Congress regulated this trade. These regulations provided that all who traded with the Indians must be licensed and that such trade could be conducted only at established posts or other designated places. Traders, however, met the Indians at undesignated places, illegally gave or sold them whiskey, and generally cheated and corrupted them. Englishmen as well as Americans engaged in the fur trade in this period, especially since the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes afforded them easy access to the upper part of the Old Northwest where few Americans were as yet to be found.

Clarksville, on the Indiana side of the Ohio across from Louisville, became the first authorized American settlement in the Old Northwest. Because of Clark's contribution to the success of the American Revolution, Virginia donated to him and his men 150,000 acres of land in what became known as Clark's Grant. This grant was confirmed by Congress when Virginia surrendered her territory in the Old Northwest. In 1784, Clarksville became the principal settlement for Clark's Grant, though it grew slowly. Clark and some of his associates lived in this area prior to the founding of Marietta, Ohio in 1788. Some American settlers arrived at Vincennes before 1800, though the French remained in the majority there. Meanwhile, Ouiatanon had gradually disappeared during the English interlude. Fort Miami (Fort Wayne) lost population while under English control, but French and English as well as American traders continued to visit this place, some residing there for temporary periods. After the Battle of Fallen Timbers, General Wayne proceeded to the headwaters of the Maumee and established Fort Wayne; other Americans soon joined officers and men stationed at this new fort. Scattered settlers, mainly squatters, lived
elsewhere in what is now Indiana, especially along the north shore of the Ohio. Most of those who settled north of the Ohio River, however, settled in the southern part of present-day Ohio. Meanwhile, as during the English period, 1763-1783, settlement in western Pennsylvania, Western Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee was much heavier than in the area north of the Ohio.

The Ordinance of 1787, which established American territorial government in the Old Northwest, was one of the most important laws ever passed by an American Congress. With the surrender of state claims to the region and with the time ripe for Americans to settle therein, Congress found it necessary to establish a government for this vast area. The Ordinance of 1787 provided for a first (nonrepresentative) stage of territorial government, then for a second (representative) stage, and finally for a third stage in which a territory became a state on an equal rank with older states. It provided a bill of rights, prohibited slavery in the region, provided that the estates of persons dying without wills should be divided equally among their children, and indicated the expectation that not less than three nor more than five states be carved from the region. The Ordinance restricted the privileges of both voting and office holding to property holders. The Old Northwest entered the first stage of territorial government with the arrival of Governor Arthur St. Clair at Marietta, Ohio in 1788. St. Clair and three appointed judges adopted laws; the governor created counties, appointed local officials, and made other provisions. Under this stage of government, the people had no voice in the naming of territorial officials. St. Clair and the judges, for example, were appointed first by Congress and then by the President of the United States. This stage continued until 1799, when the first legislative assembly of the territory convened at Cincinnati. This assembly ushered in the beginning of representative government within the territory. The qualified voters, all property holders, elected members of the lower house and the President appointed the upper house members. Since most of the people in the Old Northwest then lived largely in what is now southern Ohio, the residents in that area received most of the offices and most of the benefits from the representative stage.

Apart from some settlement in the Whitewater Valley of southeastern Indiana, population growth was slow in what was to become Indiana and the older French culture survived for a long time. Thus residents of more remote areas, including those at Vincennes and Clarksville, referred to seek the status of a separate territory. William Henry Harrison, the first territorial delegate elected by the new assembly, proceeded to Congress and helped secure passage of a law providing for a division of the Northwest Territory. The eastern area was to remain the Northwest Territory. The western part was to become Indiana Territory and return to the first stage of territorial government.
Chapter 7: The Old Northwest: Survey, Sale, and Government

The Importance of the Land Ordinance of 1785 by Edward E. Lyon, Professor, Department of Geography, Ball State University, Muncie

The Significance of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 by James H. Madison, Associate Professor of History and Editor, Indiana Magazine of History, Department of History, Indiana University, Bloomington

To the teacher: This chapter provides material to discuss the documents which established a plan for the growth and development of the U.S. following the Revolutionary War. These two documents set the stage for a logical method of survey, sale, creation of government and finally statehood for 31 states to be added to the original 13. Discussions of the historical development of local government—county, city and town, and township—for your community can be discussed in conjunction with this chapter.

Corollary to U.S. History

- Settlement of the territory west of the Appalachian Mountains after 1783 causes problems for the new nation
- Continental Congress in New York on May 20, 1785 passes a Land Ordinance to survey and sell land in the western territories
- Continental Congress passes Northwest Ordinance on July 13, 1787 to provide for government and statehood north and west of the Ohio River

The full text of the Land Ordinance of 1785 appears at the end of this chapter on pages 58-59. Make copies of the document available to students for the discussion of this material.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE LAND ORDINANCE OF 1785

Land Survey Systems
Metes and Bounds Survey System

Edward E. Lyon
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In the Atlantic Coast states and certain others, such as Texas and Kentucky, land was surveyed and pieces of land are described by a
system known as "Metes and Bounds." In this system, the surveyor selected a series of points along the perimeter of a piece of property, such as a prominent rock, tree or river bend. He then traced a line around the edge of the property from point to point, following one compass direction for a certain distance, then another direction for a specific distance, and so on until he returned to the original point. This system often has proved unsatisfactory because of the impermanence of the arbitrary points and the inexact original measurements. Plots of land in these areas seldom have regular patterns of shape and the boundary lines do not follow cardinal compass directions. Road patterns in these states clearly show the absence of a consistent rectangular type of survey.

As a result of the Land Ordinance of 1785 and the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, the basic method of land survey and subdivision over most of the United States follows a survey system adopted by the federal government in 1787. This system, called the U.S. Congressional Township and Range Survey System, provides that tracts of land be described according to their relationship to a network of east-west and north-south extending lines. This network extends over most of the Great Lakes area, the central South and the western states. There are minor exceptions within this area, such as the Vincennes area and Clark and Floyd counties in Indiana which had been surveyed at an earlier date using the old French System of long, narrow plots of land ending at a nearby navigable stream.

This network includes selected lines known as Principal Meridians, which extend north and south, and Base Lines, extending east-west. The accompanying U.S. map (Figure 1) shows a representation of these lines. Other lines, also following meridians and parallels, were surveyed at six-mile intervals. These lines divided the land into essentially rectangular blocks called Congressional Townships. The borders of these units may or may not coincide with those of civil townships.
Horizontal tiers of townships thus are laid out and are numbered north or south from the appropriate base line. Vertical columns of townships, called ranges, are numbered east or west from the appropriate principal meridian. By referring to its township and range numbers, any township can be located within the system.

For example, in Figure 2, the shaded township is Township 5 North, Range 6 East which is often printed in local Plat Books as T. 5 N., R. 6 E. Since all range lines are meridians which converge slightly as they extend northward toward the North Pole (where they meet), the widths of the townships progressively are diminished in a northward direction. To avoid large reductions in width, Standard Parallels are designated, usually every four to six miles, and the spacing of the meridians is resurveyed along these correction lines. Roads following range lines often jog at these parallels because of the offset necessary in range lines.
Each township is divided into 36 sections; each section of land is one mile square and contains 640 acres. These sections are numbered, beginning at the northeastern righthand corner, moving to the left, dropping down and moving to the right, and so on, ending with Section 36 in the southeastern righthand corner as shown in Figure 3. (Section 16 was to be reserved for public schools although other adequate arrangements for school locations could be made.) Sections further may be subdivided into halves (320 acres) or quarters (160 acres) with further subdivision into 80-acre halves, 40-acre quarters or even smaller units as shown in Figure 4. The description of a tract of land in the County Plat Book thus might read:

SW 1/4, SE 1/4, NE 1/4, Sec. 24, T. 5 N., R 6 E

![Figure 4. Section division.](image)

The base line and principal meridian often are not identified, per se, because the Township/Range designation describes the township location with regard to those two lines (although one or more references may be made in the plat book to the involved lines).

The initial point at the intersection of the base line with the second principal meridian, from which the major portion of the public lands in Indiana are described and have their beginning, is located some seven miles south of Paoli, Indiana and one-half mile west of State Highway 37. This is in Orange County, five miles north of the Crawford County line.

The area is now an historic site and the small park there is reached by a gravel road. There is a plaque at the park, indicating that a marker is located south 30° 04' 50'' west 359.18 feet from the plaque, which is in the parking lot. The actual pivot point is a small limestone marker, with "S31" on the top. This stone was set during the latter part of the 19th Century (about 1879-1886) to replace a wood post and to perpetuate the initial point established on September 1, 1805 by U.S. Deputy Surveyor Ebenezer Buckingham, Jr.
The base line was established by Buckingham by running a line due east from a point on the southerly line at or near the westerly corner of the Vincennes tract as surveyed by Thomas Freeman in 1803.

The second principal meridian was established by Buckingham as 12 miles east of the southerly corner of Freeman's survey of the Vincennes tract. The intersection of this base line and the second principal meridian was established to be the geographic center of the state of Indiana, there being 15 ranges of townships west to the southwesterly corner of the state and 15 ranges of townships east to that part of the first meridian, north of the Greenville Treaty of 1795.

The first principal meridian marks the boundary line between the states of Ohio and Indiana. Its longitude is 84° 49' 13" west of Greenwich, England and was established by Israel Ludlow in 1795.

The longitude of the second principal meridian is 84° 27' 20" west and the external border of the state of Indiana is 88° 05' 31" west.

The latitude of the base line is 38° 28' 10" north of the equator.
GEOGRAPHER'S LINE

ANL

THE SEVEN RANGES

Based on survey begun in 1785 by Thomas Hutchins, Geographer to the United States. Physical features follow present day surveys.

The Geographer's line, established by the Ordinance of 1785, was the first baseline of the National Survey. It extended due west from the intersection of the Ohio River and the western boundary of Pennsylvania, and south of it were surveyed the Seven Ranges as shown. Each range—a strip six miles wide—was divided into townships six miles square, which townships were further divided into thirty-six sections, each one mile square, numbered from the lower right-hand corner, thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SIx MILES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30 30 24 18 12 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 30 23 17 11 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34 28 22 16 10 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33 27 21 15 9 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32 20 20 14 8 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 15 10 13 7 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By an Act of Congress in 1796, the method of numbering the sections within the township was changed as shown in Page 49.
THE SURVEY OF THE PUBLIC DOMAIN

is based upon the Ordinance of 1785. Beginning with the Seven Ranges (see Page 48), this survey was continued across the country, although there still remains in the mountainous sections of the Far West, over one hundred million acres of unsurveyed land. However, with a few local exceptions, the survey applies in every state in the Union, except in the Thirteen Colonies and in Maine, Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, West Virginia, and Texas. From arbitrarily selected east-and-west Base Lines and north and south Meridians, the land is surveyed into Ranges of Townships, lying north and south of the Base Lines, and east and west of the Meridians. The Ranges are numbered east and west from the Meridians. The Townships, each six miles square, are numbered north and south from the Base Lines. The diagrams below illustrate the actual survey east of the Sixth Principal Meridian and south of a Base Line located on 40° north latitude.

In 1790 Congress directed that the method of numbering the sections should be as here shown, thus discarding the method followed in the Seven Ranges (see Page 48). This method of numbering has prevailed in all surveys subsequent to that date.

A Section contains 640 acres

A Quarter Section contains 160 acres

which, by this description, can be instantly located as lying in an exact place in northeastern Kansas.

Chapter 7/49
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NORTHWEST ORDINANCE

James H. Madison
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The full text of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 appears at the end of this chapter on pages 60-64. Make copies of the document available to students for the discussion of this material.

The Northwest Ordinance was a forward-looking document, serving as an important bridge between the confederation and federal periods. It was implemented after the ratification of the Constitution in 1789. Furthermore, its guarantee of individual liberty and freedom foreshadowed the Bill of Rights. Articles 3, 5, and 6, respectively, laid the foundation for a national system of free public education, the Articles of Compact and mechanics of statehood, and outlawed slavery northwest of the Ohio River. Accordingly, it has been described as the “Magna Carta” of American colonization, transplanting republican principles in the nation’s subsequent western expansion, and imprinting a deep sense of regionalism in the states created, in whole or in part, under its authority from the Northwest Territory—Ohio (1803), Indiana (1816), Illinois (1818), Michigan (1837), Wisconsin (1848) and that part of Minnesota lying east of the Mississippi River (1858).

Especially relevant today is the Ordinance’s well-known principle that “...schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged,” which re-enforced the Land Ordinance of 1785 that had set aside section 16 of each township for the establishment of schools. Taken together, these provisions laid the foundation for a national system of public education. As the quality of education in American public schools and colleges has increasingly become an issue of public debate in the 1980s, the development of school lands under the Northwest Ordinance and the Ordinance of 1785 form an important chapter in the history of public education in the United States.

Equally relevant to contemporary interests is the importance of the Northwest Ordinance to the origin and subsequent development of American federalism: the relationship of state constitutions to the federal Constitution. In establishing the Articles of Compact and the mechanics of statehood, the Northwest Ordinance made a fundamental contribution to the founding of the federal structure of the United States.
The success of the Northwest Ordinance over the long term should not hide the immediate conflicts it generated, for in these struggles were reflected some of the basic challenges of American political life, particularly the tensions between liberty and order. The application of the Ordinance to Indiana’s early history illustrates the nature of the debate.

The Indiana Territory was created in 1800, as Ohio was becoming a state. Initially its boundaries extended west to the Mississippi River and north to the Canadian border. Its first governor was William Henry Harrison. Only 27 when he assumed office, Harrison was a Virginia gentleman who had served on the frontier as early as 1794 when he fought beside General Anthony Wayne at the Battle of Fallen Timbers. Harrison continued as an Indian fighter, most notably at the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811. Even more significantly, though less bloodily, he served as a negotiator of Indian land cession treaties by which much of Indiana passed from native to white occupancy. In addition to Indians, Harrison’s foes came to include many of his fellow settlers, most of whom approved his aggressive Indian policy but resented his undemocratic leadership.

The nearly 6,000 pioneers who resided in Indiana Territory in 1800 had not elected Harrison as their governor. As stipulated in the Northwest Ordinance, he was appointed by President John Adams. And his word was law. Resenting their lack of a voice in government, Indianaans pushed hard for transition to the second, semi-representative stage as promised in the Ordinance. Harrison resisted for a time, but the force of number, guaranteed in 1787, pushed him to agree to movement to the second stage. Indiana’s first elections were held in 1805, and the first General Assembly met at Vincennes that same year.

The pattern was repeated in moving to the third stage, although the conflict was more intense and enduring. Governor Harrison still retained large powers after 1805. He could, for example, exercise an absolute veto over any territorial legislation.

Opposition grew as newcomers arrived in Indiana. The Whitewater Valley in the southeast became a hotbed of anti-Harrison feelings. Accustomed to self-rule in North Carolina, Ohio, or Pennsylvania, these westward-moving pioneers demanded a more democratic government. They compared their situation to that of the revolutionary patriots, complaining in an 1811 petition to Washington that their Indiana government had a “monarchical shape.” Harrison and the national government responded with concessions, but the self-styled democratic opposition remained unsatisfied. The solution was obvious. Only the statehood promised in the Ordinance of 1787 would quiet the discontent.
The leader of Indiana's pro-statehood faction was Jonathan Jennings. A newcomer from Pennsylvania, Jennings gathered around him men opposed to Harrison, men eager for statehood, and, in some cases, men hungry also for office for themselves. Harrison and his followers resisted the push for statehood, arguing that Indiana taxpayers could not afford the costs of state government. Moreover, one of Harrison's followers asserted, there was in Indiana "a great scarcity (sic) of talents, or men of such information as are necessary to fill the respective Stations, & Offices of government."

The debate over statehood was not settled by measuring either wealth or talent. All that counted was population. With the defeat of the Indians and the British in the War of 1812, pioneer families poured into Indiana Territory, taking up rich, abundant land and bringing with them fundamental attachments to representative government. A population census in 1815 counted 63,897 Hoosiers, more than enough to meet the requirements of the Northwest Ordinance.

In the heat of a Corydon summer in 1816, 43 men wrote a constitution for Indiana. The majority of the elected delegates had been pro-statehood men and supporters of Jennings, whom they elected to chair the convention. A critic of the Jennings faction labeled them "empty babblers, democratic to madness," but they accomplished what they set out to do. With the experience of territorial government fresh in their minds, Jennings and his associates created a government in which the elected legislature was the strongest branch, closely dependent on grass-roots approval. The powers of the state governor were severely restricted; he would enjoy little of the gubernatorial reach possessed by Harrison.

On December 11, 1816, President Madison approved statehood. Indiana now had a full voice in the national government, including the vote of two senators in Washington, equal to that of Virginia, Massachusetts, and the other original states. Resentment of quasi-colonial status that may have lingered from the years before 1816 soon washed away in the waves of state and national pride that burst across Indiana. The commitment made in 1787 had been fulfilled.

The promise of statehood was the most important promise made in 1787, but there were other guarantees in the Northwest Ordinance. These were contained in a section called the Articles of Compact, which pledged that from the beginning settlers in the West would enjoy certain fundamental freedoms and rights, many of which the new government would soon include in the Bill of Rights. The Articles of Compact guaranteed religious freedom and due process of law, including trial by jury, and it urged the encouragement of public education.
tion and justice toward Indians. The sixth and final article stipulated that "there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory." The articles reassured pioneers that they would take American freedoms along west with their rifles, spinning wheels, and axes. The importance of the Articles of Compact is indicated in the fact that Indiana's Constitution of 1816 repeated and expanded these liberties guaranteed in 1787.

The prohibition of slavery caused the most controversy in Indiana. Governor Harrison owned slaves and so did many of his prominent supporters. The census of 1810 counted 237 slaves and 393 free blacks in the territory. It is likely that the lives of many of those blacks counted as free differed little if at all from those listed as slaves. Harrison's opponents soon added slavery to their growing list of objections to the governor's rule. The South's peculiar institution, they asserted, was "repugnant to the inestimable principles of a republican Government." Jennings and his supporters castigated the Harrison faction as a slaveholding aristocracy that was determined to deny representative government and democracy on Indiana's frontier. This argument, combining antislavery with freedom, would ring loud in the nation's politics down to Appomattox Courthouse. In Indiana the debate closed with the Constitution of 1816, which sealed the fate of slavery in the new free-soil state.

Two hundred years later the Northwest Ordinance remains a fundamental document. Not only did it shape the history of westward settlement and statemaking, but it enunciated principles of broad and enduring significance.

The Northwest Ordinance aroused conflict, immediately in Indiana in the struggles between the Harrison and Jennings factions, and more broadly in the controversies among Americans over slavery and sectionalism, states' rights, representative government, western expansion, and individual freedom. Ultimately, however, it was among America's great achievements. Today we rightly celebrate that achievement.

The 1787 document promulgated one of the most generous colonial policies in the history of nations, a policy dedicated to creating equal, rather than dependent, units of government. In this purpose, it was radically different from British colonial policy and that of most empires. It was remarkably optimistic in assuming that the nation would expand westward, and it encouraged that expansion by guaranteeing that liberty and representative government would move across the mountains with the pioneers. At the same time, this expansion would be an orderly process, one in which the national government would remain a responsible party in allowing time for the growth and maturation necessary for representative government.
The framers of the Northwest Ordinance tied the growing West to the new nation, not with cords of imperial power but with sentiments of reciprocal, heartfelt nationalism. From the early 19th century to the present, the people of Indiana and of the Midwest have often perceived themselves as the most patriotic and the most typical of Americans. Such sentiments originate in part with a document approved on July 13, 1787.
First division of the territory of the United States northwest of the Ohio. Act approved May 7, effective July 4, 1800.

1800 - INDIANA TERRITORY

1803 - OHIO ADMITTED
Enabling act approved April 30, 1802

Claimed by Ohio Constitution which was approved February 19, 1803 without mention of change in boundary.
1809 - ILLINOIS TERRITORY
By act approved February 3, effective March 1, 1809.
Indiana. admitted, December 11, 1816.

Illinois. admitted, December 3, 1818.

Unshaded portion of Upper Peninsula left out of limits of any state or territory and with no government, 1816-1818.
LAND ORDINANCE OF 1785
MAY 20, 1785

(Journals of the Continental Congress, ed. by J.C. Fitz, atrick, Vol. XVIII, p. 375 ff.)


An Ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of Lands in the Western Territory.

Be it ordained by the United States in Congress assembled, that the territory ceded by individual States to the United States, which has been purchased of the Indian inhabitants, shall be disposed of in the following manner:

A surveyor from each state shall be appointed by Congress or a Committee of the States, who shall take an oath for the faithful discharge of his duty, before the Geographer of the United States.

The Surveyors, as they are respectively qualified, shall proceed to divide the said territory into townships of six miles square, by lines running due north and south, and others crossing these at right angles, as near as may be, unless where the boundaries of the late Indian purchases may render the same impracticable.

The first line, running due north and south as aforesaid, shall begin on the river Ohio at a point that shall be found to be due north from the western termination of a line, which has been run as the southern boundary of the State of Pennsylvania; and the first line, running east and west, shall begin at the same point, and shall extend throughout the whole territory. Provided, that nothing herein shall be construed, as fixing the western boundary of the State of Pennsylvania. The geographer shall designate the townships, or fractional parts of townships, by numbers progressively from south to north; always beginning each range with No. 1; and the ranges shall be distinguished by their progressive numbers to the westward. The first range, extending from the Ohio to the Lake Erie, being marked No. 1. The Geographer shall personally attend to the running of the first east and west line; and shall take the latitude of the extremes of the first north and south line, and of the mouths of the principal rivers.

The lines shall be measured with a chain; shall be plainly marked by chaps on the trees, and exactly described on a plat; whereon shall be noted by the surveyor, at their proper distances, all mines, salt-springs, salt-licks and mill-seats, that shall come to his knowledge, and all water-courses, mountains and other remarkable and permanent things, over and near which such lines shall pass, and also the quality of the lands.

The pias of the townships respectively, shall be marked by subdivisions into lots of one mile square, or 640 acres, in the same direction as the external lines, and numbered from 1 to 36; always beginning the succeeding range of the lots with the number next to that with which the preceding one concluded.

And the geographer shall make returns, from time to time, of every seven ranges as they may be surveyed. The Secretary of War shall have recourse thereto, and shall take by lot theretorm, a number of townships as will be equal to one seventh part of the whole of such seven ranges, for the use of the late Continental army.

The board of treasury shall transmit a copy of the original plats, previously noting thereon the townships and fractional parts of townships, which shall have fallen to the several states, by the distribution aforesaid, to the commissioners of the loan-office of the
several states, who, after giving notice shall proceed to sell the townships or fractional parts of townships, at public vendue, in the following manner, viz: The township or fractional part of a township No. 1, in the first range, shall be sold entire; and No. 2, in the same range, by lots; and thus in alternate order throughout the whole of the first range provided, that none of the lands, within the said territory, be sold under the price of one dollar the acre, to be paid in specie, or loan-office certificates, reduced to specie value, by the scale of depreciation, or certificates of liquidated debts of the United States, including interest, besides the expense of the survey and other charges thereon, which are hereby rated at thirty six dollars the township, on failure of which payment, the said lands shall again be offered for sale.

There shall be reserved for the United States out of every township the four lots, being numbered 8,11,26,29, and out of every fractional part of a township, so many lots of the same numbers as shall be found thereon, for future sale. There shall be reserved the lot No. 16, of every township, for the maintenance of public schools within the said township; also one-third part of all gold, silver, lead and copper mines, to be sold, or otherwise disposed of as Congress shall hereafter direct.

And Whereas Congress stipulated grants of land to certain officers and soldiers of the late Continental army for complying with such engagement, Be it ordained, That the Secretary of War determine who are the objects of the above resolutions and engagements and cause the townships, or fractional parts of townships, hereinbefore reserved for the use of the late Continental army, to be drawn for in such manner as he shall deem expedient.
The Ordinance of April 23, 1784, Doc. No. 77, laid down the general principles of the American colonial system, but it did not provide in detail for the establishment of an administrative structure, and it was never put into effect. The immediate impulse for the Ordinance of 1787 came from a group of land speculators, members of the Ohio Company of Associates and the Society of the Cincinnati, who wished to establish colonies in the Ohio country. The spokesmen of these groups were the Rev. Manasseh Cutler, Samuel Parsons, and General Rufus Putnam. These men succeeded in lobbying through a moribund Congress the famous Ordinance establishing a government in the Northwest territory. The authorship of the Ordinance is a matter of controversy, but it seems probable that Nathan Dane and Rufus King were the principal authors; fundamentally, of course, the Ordinance followed Jefferson's Ordinance of 1784. See B.A. Hinsdale, The Old Northwest; J.A. Barrett, Evolution of the Ordinance of 1787; W.P. and J.P. Cutler, Life, Journals, and Correspondence of Manasseh Cutler, 2 Vols.; R. Buell, Memoirs of Rufus Putnam; A.B. Hulbert, ed. Records of the Ohio Company; C.S. Hall, Life and Letters of Samuel Holden Parsons; R. King, Ohio, J.P. Dunn, Indiana; B.W. Bond, Civilization of the Old Northwest; J.M. Merriam, "Legislative History of the Ordinance of 1787," Am. Antiquarian Soc. Proceedings, N.S. Vol. V; C.R. King Rufus King. Vol. I; A. C. McLaughlin, Confederation and Constitution, ch. vii; F.L. Paxson, History of the American Frontier, chs. vii-viii; J.B. McMaster, History of the People of the United States, Vol. I, ch.v.

An Ordinance for the government of the Territory of the United States northwest of the River Ohio.

Be it ordained by the United States in Congress assembled, That the said territory, for the purposes of temporary government, be one district, subject, however, to be divided into two districts, as future circumstances may, in the opinion of Congress, make it expedient.

Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That the estates, both of resident and nonresident proprietors in the said territory, dying intestate, shall descend to, and be distributed among their children, and the descendants of a deceased child, in equal parts; the descendants of a deceased child or grandchild to take the share of their deceased parent in equal parts among them: And where there shall be no children or descendants, then in equal parts to the next of kin in equal degree; and the among collaterals, the children of a deceased brother or sister of the intestate shall have in equal parts among their deceased parents' share; and there shall in no case be a distinction between kindred of the whole and half-blood; saving, in all cases to the widow of the intestate her third part of the real estate for life, and one-third part of the personal estate; and this law relative to descents and dower, shall remain in full force until altered by the legislature of the district. And until the governor and judges shall adopt laws as hereinafter mentioned, estates in the said territory may be devised or bequeathed by wills in writing, signed and sealed by him or her in whom the estate may be (being of full age), and attested by three witnesses; and real estates may be conveyed by lease and release, or bargain and sale, signed sealed and delivered by the person, being of full age, in whom the estate may be, and attested by three witnesses; and real estates may be conveyed by lease and release, or bargain and sale, signed sealed and delivered by the person, being of full age, in whom the estate may be, and attested by three witnesses, provided such wills be duly proved, and such conveyances be acknowledged, or the execution thereof duly proved, and be recorded within one year after proper magistrates, courts, and registers shall be appointed for that purpose; and personal property may be transferred by delivery: sav-
ing, however to the French and Canadian inhabitants, and other settlers of the Kaskaskies, St. Vincents and the neighboring villages who have heretofore professed themselves citizens of Virginia, their laws and customs now in force among them, relative to the descent and conveyance of property.

Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That there shall be appointed from time to time by Congress, a governor, whose commission shall continue in force for the term of three years, unless sooner revoked by Congress; he shall reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein in 1,000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

There shall be appointed from time to time by Congress, a secretary, whose commission shall continue in force for four years unless sooner revoked; he shall reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein in 500 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office. It shall be his duty to keep and preserve the acts and laws passed by the legislature, and the public records of the district, and the proceedings of the governor in his executive department, and transmit authentic copies of such acts and proceedings, every six months, to the Secretary of Congress: There shall also be appointed a court to consist of three judges, any two of whom to form a court, who shall have a common law jurisdiction, and reside in the district, and have each therein a freehold estate in 500 acres of land, while in the exercise of their offices; and their commissions shall continue in force during good behavior.

The governor and judges, or a majority of them, shall adopt and publish in the district such laws of the original States, criminal and civil, as may be necessary and best suited to the circumstances of the district, and report them to Congress from time to time; which laws shall be in force in the district until the organization of the General Assembly therein, unless disapproved of by Congress; but afterwards the Legislature shall have authority to alter them as they shall think fit.

The governor, for the time being, shall be commander-in-chief of the militia, appoint and commission officers in the same below the rank of general officers; all general officers shall be appointed and commissioned by Congress.

Previous to the organization of the general assembly, the governor shall appoint such magistrates and other civil officers in each county or township, as he shall find necessary for the preservation of the peace and good order in the same: After the general assembly shall be organized, the powers and duties of the magistrates and other civil officers shall be regulated and defined by the said assembly; but all magistrates and other civil officers not herein otherwise directed, shall, during the continuance of this temporary government, be appointed by the governor.

For the prevention of crimes and injuries, the laws to be adopted or made shall have force in all parts of the district, and for the execution of process, criminal and civil, the governor shall make proper divisions thereof; and he shall proceed from time to time as circumstances may require, to lay out the parts of the district in which the Indian titles shall have been extinguished, into counties and townships, subject however to such alterations as may thereafter be made by the legislature.

So soon as there shall be five thousand free male inhabitants of full age in the district, upon giving proof thereof to the governor, they shall receive authority, with time and place, to elect representatives from their counties or townships to represent them in the general assembly: Provided, That, for every five hundred free male inhabitants, there shall be one representative, and so on progressively with the number of free male inhabitants shall the right of representation increase, until the number of representatives shall amount to twenty-five: after which, the number and proportion of representatives shall be regulated by the legislature: Provided, That no person be eligible or qualified to act as a representative unless he shall have been a citizen of one of the United States three years, and be a resident in the district, or unless he shall have resided in the district three years; and, in either case, shall likewise hold in his own right, in fee sim-
ple, two hundred acres of land within the same: Provided, also, That a freehold in fifty acres of land in the district, having been a citizen of one of the states, and being resident in the district, or the like freehold and two years residence in the district, shall be necessary to qualify a man as an elector of a representative.

The representatives thus elected, shall serve for the term of two years; and, in case of the death of a representative, or removal from office, the governor shall issue a writ to the county or township for which he was a member, to elect another in his stead, to serve for the residue of the term.

The general assembly or legislature shall consist of the governor, legislative council, and a house of representatives. The Legislative Council shall consist of five members, to continue in office five years, unless sooner removed by Congress; any three of whom to be a quorum: and the members of the Council shall be nominated and appointed in the following manner, to wit: As soon as representatives shall be elected, the Governor shall appoint a time and place for them to meet together; and, when met, they shall nominate ten persons, residents in the district, and each possessed of a freehold in five hundred acres of land, and return their names to Congress; five of whom Congress shall appoint and commission to serve as aforesaid; and, whenever a vacancy shall happen in the council, by death or removal from office, the house of representatives shall nominate two persons, qualified as aforesaid, for each vacancy, and return their names to Congress; one of whom Congress shall appoint and commission for the residue of the term. And every five years, four months at least before the expiration of the time of service of the members of council, the said house shall nominate ten persons, qualified as aforesaid, and return their names to Congress; five of whom Congress shall appoint and commission to serve as members of the council five years, unless sooner removed. And the governor, legislative council, and house of representatives, shall have authority to make laws in all cases, for the good government of the district, not repugnant to the principles and articles in this ordinance established and declared. And all bills, having passed by a majority in the house, and by a majority in the council, shall be referred to the governor for his assent; but no bill, or legislative act whatever, shall be of any force without his assent. The governor shall have power to convene, proscribe, and dissolve the general assembly, when, in his opinion, it shall be expedient.

The governor, judges, legislative council, secretary, and such other officers as Congress shall appoint in the district, shall take an oath or affirmation of fidelity and of office; the governor before the president of congress, and all other officers before the Governor. As soon as a legislature shall be formed in the district, the council and house assembled in one room, shall have authority, by joint lot, to elect a delegate to Congress, who shall have a seat in Congress, with a right of debating but not of voting during this temporary government.

And, for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the basis whereon the republics, their laws and constitutions are erected; to fix and establish those principles as the basis of all laws, constitutions, and governments, which forever hereafter shall be formed in the said territory: to provide also for the establishment of States, and permanent government therein, and for their admission to a share in the federal councils on an equal footing with the original States, at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest.

It is hereby ordained and declared by the authority aforesaid, That the following articles shall be considered as articles of compact between the original States and the people and States in the said territory and forever remain unalterable, unless by common consent, to wit:

ART. 1 No person, demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments, in the said territory.

ART. 2 The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury;
of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature; and of judicial proceedings according to the course of the common law. All persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offences, where the proof shall be evident or the presumption great. All fines shall be moderate; and no cruel or unusual punishments shall be inflicted. No man shall be deprived of his liberty or property, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land; and, should the public exigencies make it necessary, for the common preservation, to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same. And, in the just preservation of rights and property, it is understood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the said territory, that shall, in any manner whatever, interfere with or affect private contracts or engagements, bona fide, and without fraud, previously formed.

ART. 3  Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged. The utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and, in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars, authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity, shall from time to time be made for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

ART. 4  The said territory, and the States which may be formed therein, remain a part of this Confederacy of the United States of America, subject to the Articles of Confederation, and to such alterations therein as shall be constitutionally made, and to all the acts and ordinances of the United States in Congress assembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and settlers in the said territory shall be subject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted or to be contracted, and a proportional part of the expenses of government, to be apportioned on them by Congress according to the same common rule and measure by which apportionments thereof shall be made on the other States; and the taxes for paying their proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the district or districts, or new States, as in the original States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled. The legislatures of those districts or new States shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the soil by the United States in Congress assembled, nor any regulations Congress may find necessary for securing the title in such soil to the bona fide purchasers. No tax shall be imposed on lands the property of the United States; and, in no case, shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents. The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same, shall be common highways and forever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory as to the citizens of the United States, and those of any other States that may be admitted into the confederacy without any tax, impost, or duty therefor.

ART. 5  There shall be formed in the said territory, not less than three nor more than five States; and the boundaries of the States, as soon as Virginia shall alter her act of cession, and consent to the same, shall become fixed and established as follows, to wit: The western State in the said territory, shall be bounded by the Mississippi, the Ohio, and Wabash Rivers; a direct line drawn from the Wabash and Post Vincents, due North, to the territorial line between the United States and Canada; and, by the said territorial line, to the Lake of the Woods and Mississippi. The middle State shall be bounded by the last mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the said territorial line: Provided, however, and it is further understood and declared, that the
boundaries of these three States shall be subject so far to be altered, that, if Congress shall thereafter find it expedient, they shall have authority to form one or two States in that part of the said territory which lies north of an east and west line drawn through the southerly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan. And, whenever any of the said States shall have sixty thousand free inhabitants therein, such State shall be admitted, by its delegates, into the Congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original States in all respects whatever, and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and State government: Provided, the constitution and government so to be formed, shall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in these articles; and, so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of free inhabitants in the State than sixty thousand.

ART. 6 There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: Provided, always, That any person escaping into the same, from whom labor or service is lawfully claimed in any one of the original States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labor or service as aforesaid.

Be it ordained by the authority aforesaid, That the resolutions of the 23rd of April 1784, relative to the subject of this ordinance, be, and the same are hereby repealed and declared null and void.
Chapter 8: Indiana Territory and Early Statehood, 1800-1825

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To the teacher: Rapid settlement and growth of the territory of the Old Northwest causes problems for the new federal government.

Corollary to U.S. History
- The new federal government takes shape under George Washington's leadership
- Federalists and Republicans (Hamilton and Jefferson)
- The French Revolution, 1789 and increased problems with other foreign powers
- Thomas Jefferson, the Louisiana Purchase and continued foreign troubles
- The War of 1812 (Mr. Madison's War)

GENERAL COMMENTS

Indiana Territory was the second territory within the Old Northwest, and Indiana was the second state carved from the region. Although most of the Old Northwest was included in the new Indiana Territory in 1800, the territory did not reach its maximum size until the addition of eastern Michigan and the Gore in 1803, when Ohio became a state. When Indiana voters expressed a preference for the second or representative stage of territorial government late in 1804, residents of the subsequent states of Michigan and Illinois sought separation and continuation of the first stage for their areas. The establishment of the Michigan Territory in 1805 meant that Michigan never became a part of Indiana's second stage; but Illinois, against the wishes of some residents, remained with second-stage Indiana until 1809.

During both its first and second stages, Indiana territorial government was based on the stages for statehood outlined in the Ordinance of 1787. According to the Act of 1800, which established the territory, Indiana could enter the second stage whenever a majority of her qualified voters so desired. Moreover, once this stage was achieved...
there was a considerable growth in political democracy. These changes, the decision against slavery, and land legislation which made it possible for numerous settlers to buy land, made pioneer Indiana more democratic than Kentucky and Tennessee.

During the period 1800-1825, Indiana was a part of the rapidly developing Ohio Valley frontier. The settlement of Indiana was a continuation of the settlement of the Ohio Valley which had been in process, though slowly at first, since about the 1750s. The Ohio River was a superwaterway for travel and transportation up and down the valley. This increased contacts between settlements and promoted considerable unity of interests and views among settlers throughout the valley. Viewing Indiana as a part of the expanding Ohio Valley frontier during the first quarter of the nineteenth century helps explain why the large majority of Indiana pioneers first lived in southern Indiana. Within Indiana the frontier of settlement moved principally from south to north, with the result that northwestern Indiana became "Indiana's last frontier."

The revival of conflict with the Indians at the Battle of Tippecanoe in 1811, and the ensuing War of 1812, at first threatened and then confirmed American occupation of the Old Northwest. Despite some severe military reverses during 1812 and 1813, the Old Northwest was more strongly under American control at the end of the war than it had ever been. The British were aware of this increased American hold on the region. Moreover, the War of 1812 ended the long series of Indian wars which had been fought intermittently in the Ohio Valley since about 1750. In 1815, the Indians who had sided with the English generally realized that both they and the British had been successfully repulsed and that the American tide was waxing as the British tide waned. In other words, by 1815 the United States had made good its title to the Old Northwest and was now prepared to expand settlements throughout the Ohio Valley and even into portions of the Old Northwest within the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence drainage basin.

Indiana's admission as the nineteenth state of the United States in 1816 was generally favored by its citizens. Although Indiana ceased to be a territory, in various ways she remained dependent upon the United State: In 1816, the Indians still held about two-thirds of the state land. The termination of these holdings, their survey and sale, and the removal of the Indians were functions performed by the federal government. Because transportation was inadequate, Washington made grants of land as well as some money to build roads and canals.
POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

In 1800, Congress created the Indiana Territory by dividing the Old Northwest into two territories. The area east of a line from the junction of the Kentucky River with the Ohio, northeast to Fort Recovery, and due north to Canada remained as the Northwest Territory. It included almost all of Ohio, a slice from eastern Indiana known as the Gore, and approximately the eastern half of Michigan. The area west of this line became the Indiana Territory; it included nearly all of present-day Indiana, approximately the western half of Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, and much of Minnesota. When Ohio became a state in 1803, the eastern half of Michigan and the Gore were added to Indiana Territory, making it of immense size; however, its extent was soon decreased by the separation of Michigan Territory (1805) and Illinois Territory (1809). Except for minor changes, Indiana's present boundaries were established in 1816 when statehood was achieved.

William Henry Harrison was appointed governor of the new territory. John Gibson, Indian trader and veteran of the American Revolution, was appointed territorial secretary. Three judges were also appointed. They served as the highest court within the territory. These three judges and the governor adopted laws for the territory from various states. During this stage there was no representative government. This non-representative stage was recognized as a temporary expediency. In 1804, a vote was taken and a majority of those who participated in this referendum voted in favor of a change to the second or representative stage of territorial government.

During this stage the governor, secretary, and judges remained in office; however, the judges and governor lost their power to adopt laws. The General Assembly elected a territorial delegate to be a speaking but non-voting member of Congress. In the General Assembly, members of the House were elected by voters who met certain property qualifications, while members of the Council (later called Senate) were appointed by the President from nominations made by the House. The General Assembly levied taxes, created new counties, established courts, and defined their functions. The territorial capital was established at Vincennes in 1800. In 1813, a law became effective which moved the territorial capital from Vincennes to Corydon, where it remained until 1825. Indianapolis became the permanent state capital in 1825.

Three important changes increased political democracy during the second stage: (1) The election of the territorial delegate was taken from the General Assembly and given to the voters; (2) Members of the Council were made subject to popular election rather than appointment by the President; (3) Suffrage was extended to include adult white
males who met a property qualification or paid territorial tax. Since nearly every adult white male met this test, the substance of universal suffrage was achieved for this group. Such democratic gains had not been achieved during the second stage in the Northwest Territory (1798-1803), and they were considered advanced for that day.

The Ordinance of 1787 prohibited slavery in the Old Northwest during its territorial period, and required that states carved from the region must exclude slavery. Some of the French in the area held slaves, and the courts decided that such persons could continue to own them. In 1802, a convention of citizens at Vincennes asked Congress to allow the introduction of additional slaves into Indiana, but Congress rejected this request. The following year the governor and judges adopted a law from Virginia which authorized life contracts for indentured servants. Under this law, a small number of Negroes were brought into Indiana, but they were more appropriately called slaves than indentured servants. Similar legislation was continued by the General Assembly in 1805, but was repealed in 1810. Indiana's Constitution of 1816 definitely excluded slavery. Though slavery existed in early Indiana, it never became a significant factor among Hoosiers. Indiana doubtless became a free state more because of local opposition to slavery than because of the prohibition against it in the Ordinance of 1787. Within Indiana, numerous Quakers, notably in the Whitewater Valley, opposed slavery during territorial days. The absence of slavery discouraged establishment of the plantation economy found in parts of Kentucky and Tennessee.

In 1800, the year Indiana became a territory, Congress passed a land law known as the Harrison Land Law. According to this law, 320 acres (a half section) was the minimum amount which could be purchased at a minimum price of $2 per acre. The purchaser was allowed to make a small down payment to be followed by four yearly payments with a one year extension if needed. In 1804, Congress reduced the minimum amount to 160 acres (a quarter section). Although the minimum price was higher than in the Land Ordinance of 1785, the availability of smaller tracts and of credit made the new legislation attractive to settlers. Many settlers, however, were too optimistic about their ability to make annual payments and a majority of them were unable to complete their payments on time. Various laws allowed extensions of time for payments, but delinquencies increased. They became such a problem—especially with the beginning of the depression in 1819—that Congress passed a law in 1820 which reduced the minimum amount which could be purchased to 80 acres (one-eighth of a section) and set the minimum price per acre at $1.25, but payment thereafter was to be strictly cash. It took more than a decade, and various laws, to make adjustments and settlements for persons who had bought land on credit in the period 1800-1820. Millions of acres of land, located mainly in southern Indiana, were sold under this credit plan.
William Henry Harrison and Jonathan Jennings were the two most important political leaders in Indiana during 1800-1825. Harrison was from a prominent Virginia family. His father had signed the Declaration of Independence and had served as governor of Virginia. Harrison had planned to be a doctor but entered military service, serving with Wayne at the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794. He soon became secretary of the Northwest Territory and then its first territorial delegate to Congress. Harrison was the governor of Indiana Territory from 1800 to 1812, though at various times, John Gibson served in his place. Harrison resigned because of his participation in the War of 1812, following which he became a resident of Ohio. Elected president of the United States in 1840, he died after only one month in office.

Jennings, a native of New Jersey, arrived at Vincennes in 1806. He soon moved to Jeffersonville and almost immediately became a rival of Harrison’s. Jennings was elected territorial delegate in 1809, when this office was first filled by popular vote, and re-elected at each succeeding election. In 1816, he was president of the Corydon Convention which wrote Indiana’s first Constitution. He was elected governor in 1815 and again in 1819. During the 1820s, he served several years in Congress.

Both Harrison and Jennings claimed to be Jeffersonian Republicans. Harrison represented a southern style of Republicanism that was more respectful of social status and more tolerant of slavery; Jennings represented a western style that was more egalitarian in spirit and quite opposed to slavery. Harrison enjoyed support in the older settled areas of the Southeast. Each faction exaggerated the views, and shortcomings, of the other. Harrison’s appointive powers as governor gave him the ascendancy in the early territorial days, while Jennings’ greater appeal to small farmers had shifted power to him by the time of statehood.

Between 1800 and 1809, Governor Harrison and his associates secured millions of acres of land from various Indian tribes for the United States. Within Indiana these cessions were mainly located in southern Indiana, though they included considerable land in central Indiana on its eastern and western borders. An even larger area was secured from the Indians within what is now southern and central Illinois. These cessions disturbed many Indians. The visible and effective Indian opponents of Harrison’s were two Shawnees—the Prophet and his half-brother, Tecumseh. The Prophet advocated abandoning the religion and material culture of white people and returning to Indian beliefs and practices. In 1809, he established Prophet’s Town on the Tippecanoe River and, by persuasion and occasional force, sought to rally a multi-tribal following. Tecumseh, an able diplomat and orator, joined in these efforts, gaining converts as Harrison gained cessions.
from other Indian leaders. Twice Tecumseh visited Harrison at Vincennes to indicate his opposition to further cessions of land. In 1811, Tecumseh went south, presumably to enlist support from southern Indians. While he was away, Harrison led some 1,000 men up the Wabash from Vincennes toward the Indian area. Fort Harrison was built near present-day Terre Haute, and from there the army proceeded up the valley to a spot north of present Lafayette. Here it camped for the night, perhaps expecting negotiations with the Indians the next day. Near daybreak the Indians attacked and there were heavy losses on both sides. Harrison and his friends regarded this battle near the Tippecanoe River as a victory. The growing Indian conflict soon merged into the War of 1812.

The War of 1812—fought during 1812, 1813, and 1814—came toward the later part of Indiana’s territorial era. Several factors pointed toward war: (1) conflicting views between the United States and England over the rights of Americans as neutrals in the prolonged warfare between France and England which involved various other countries; (2) English impressment of American seamen into British naval service, a question made thorny because both England and the United States often claimed the same persons as citizens; (3) American interest in possible territorial changes—some Americans thought war might result in the addition of at least part of Canada or perhaps Florida to the United States; and (4) American resentment at continued English encouragement to the Indians to delay cessions and retard the advance of the American frontier in the Old Northwest.

At first, the War of 1812 was disastrous to the Americans in the Old Northwest. Detroit fell to the English, the garrison at Fort Dearborn (Chicago) was massacred as it attempted to withdraw, Forts Wayne and Harrison were attacked, and Indian raids extended even into established settlements as is illustrated by the Pigeon Roost Massacre in Clark County. In 1813, the Americans successfully counterattacked. Oliver Hazard Perry’s naval victory at Put-in-Bay on Lake Erie, and Harrison’s victory over the British and Indians at Moraviantown on the River Thames in Canada (where Tecumseh was slain), ended any serious threats to the Old Northwest. No territorial changes resulted from the War of 1812; however, the Indians were thoroughly defeated, and many made peace even before the British.

American control over the West was much more solid and secure in 1815 than it had been in the uncertain 1780s. No Indian warfare thereafter occurred in Indiana. This war promoted a spirit of nationalism and encouraged the statehood movement which soon made Indiana the 19th state.
Five successive steps were involved as Indiana made the change from a territory to a state. First was the petition to Congress from the General Assembly asking that Congress authorize Indiana to frame a constitution and organize a state government. Following the Battle of Tippecanoe, the General Assembly in 1811 petitioned for statehood, but Congress regarded this as premature. Later, in 1815, a successful petition was made. Second came an enabling act by Congress in 1816 approving the calling of a convention to draft a constitution. The third step was the convention at Corydon which drafted a constitution for the new state. The fourth step was the election of various state officials and the actual organization of a state government. These steps were completed December 11, 1816 and resulted in the fifth step, which was the formal admission by the federal Congress.

Indiana's new constitution was concise. It provided universal suffrage for white males, excluded slavery, and set a very high goal for public education. Under this constitution, the General Assembly had much power and met annually for as long as members thought desirable. At the end of 1816, when Indiana entered the Union, there were only 15 counties in the state. By 1825, the total was near 50. County government was an extremely important unit of government in pioneer days which had become far more important than the civil township government. As a result, in many counties, rivalry over the site for a county seat was at times long and vigorous.
Chapter 9: Indiana, The Nineteenth State, 1820-1877
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To the teacher: This chapter discusses Indiana at the time statehood was achieved. Pioneer lifestyle and the early culture of Indiana through the Civil War era are discussed.

Corollary to U.S. History
- Monroe Doctrine
- Jacksonian Democracy
- Industrialization of the Northeast; wide differences between the North and South
- Western expansion; disagreements in the House of Representatives and the Senate
- Election of William Henry Harrison in 1840
- Sectional differences leading to the Civil War

GENERAL COMMENTS

The study of state history serves not only to illustrate national developments, and test broad generalizations about those developments, but also to indicate ways in which a state or even a smaller community has its own character and uniqueness. Indiana for the period from 1820 to 1877 participated in most of the issues of broad national concern at that time, but it also had its own set of priorities and differed in many ways from its neighbors. It has often been called the most southern of the northern states, largely because of the southern origins of the majority of its population and the resultant character of its folklife; nevertheless, it was not southern in the most fundamental ways. Even though slavery and indentured servitude existed into the period of statehood, Indiana as never a slave state. It was intensely loyal to the Union when the Civil War broke out, and its culture and mores can more properly be labeled as Hoosier rather than southern. Hoosier culture was a unique blend of the attitudes of the people from all parts of the eastern and southern United States who settled in Indiana and contributed to its distinctive outlook and way of life.

Indiana develops its own character and uniqueness
Indiana’s pioneer era was a period of beginnings—for schools, transportation, libraries, newspapers, churches, mills and shops, as well as for settlements and farms. No exact date can be given for either its beginning or ending, but generally the pioneer era began earlier and lasted longer in southern than in central or northern Indiana. Pioneering established important foundations for development of agriculture, manufacturing, transportation, education, and religion. This process was much alike in all parts of Indiana—and in the Ohio Valley generally—but there were many variations in pioneer life from neighborhood to neighborhood, in differing geographical areas such as forest and prairie, among different elements of the population, and in villages and towns as well as in thinly settled rural areas.

The pioneers of Indiana had much in common in their general background. First of all, they came largely from families which had had much experience as pioneers before reaching Indiana. Most of their families had lived in older sections of the Ohio Valley, in the hills or valleys of the Appalachian Mountains, or in the foothills east of the Appalachians from Pennsylvania to the Carolinas. Some Indiana pioneers came from families which had been pioneers in these areas for several generations. Persons from such background were generally tested and seasoned pioneers—unlike the tenderfoot colonists who had settled Jamestown and Plymouth. Secondly, Indiana’s early pioneers came largely from families experienced in farming.

"Thirdly, most of the pioneers had been accustomed to farming forested and hilly areas. Hence they were well prepared to settle in southern and central Indiana—few settlers spread over the prairies of northwestern Indiana until after 1850. Fourthly, their background had also required them to be woodsmen and hunters as well as farmers. This background was especially useful in early pioneer days when homes had to be erected, fields had to be cleared, and game had to be obtained from the rest for food. Fifthly, most pioneers brought few material possessions with them to Indiana. Instead they brought a folk culture rich in oral literature and woodland craft traditions.

Self-sufficiency and isolation were often elements of pioneer life. Both existed at that time to a greater extent than for any subsequent period—and to a greater extent than most persons can now realize. As settlers in new areas, the pioneers had moved beyond established communities—beyond developed roads, farms, mills, and other families. Under these conditions much isolation was inevitable, though it was greater in early than in later pioneer days and greater in the interior hill counties of southern Indiana than in settlements in counties bordering the Ohio River. Since little could be imported or exported, especially in the beginning, family or neighborhood self-sufficiency was
necessary for existence. The pioneers had to be "jacks-of-all-trades" to provide themselves with furniture, clothing, tools, and implements. Pioneers, whether they lived in remote rural areas or in villages and towns, usually had vegetable gardens, chickens, and livestock. Such self-sufficiency was an essential part of the pioneer stage and often a spur to the modernization, urbanization, and industrialization that followed.

The pioneer period in Indiana extended roughly from the time of its admission as a state (1816) into the 1850s. It can be defined as one in which the primary energies of the people were devoted to obtaining the basic necessities of life—food, clothing, shelter—with little time left over for leisure activities, cultural amenities, or that specialization in economic activity which leads to the accumulation of capital. Although the southern part of the state was the region settled first (the Ohio, White, and Whitewater river valleys), the rugged, unglaciated southern third of the state remained in the pioneer stage longer than the flat, fertile regions in central and northern Indiana. Transportation improvements, particularly the completion of the Wabash and Erie Canal and the arrival of railroads in the late 1840s and early 1850s, were the key factors here. The pioneer period also corresponded almost exactly with the duration of Indiana's first constitution. Initially hammered out during the summer of 1816 in Corydon, this broadly democratic document served the young state well during its 35-year life. Indiana's second (and present) constitution was written in Indianapolis between October 1850 and February 1851 and was promptly ratified.

By the time of this political development—a time when many other states were also revising or replacing their constitutions—Indiana had settled some of its most pressing problems of the pioneer period. An improved transportation system had been constructed. Its key features were two major roads: a north-south thoroughfare, the Michigan Road, connecting Madison on the Ohio with Michigan City on Lake Michigan via Indianapolis and South Bend, and an equally important east-west route, the National Road, connecting the east coast with the Mississippi Valley via Wheeling (West Virginia), Columbus (Ohio), and through Richmond, Indianapolis, and Terre Haute (Indiana). Important canals were subsequently completed in the Whitewater and Wabash valleys, other roads were built, and transportation via river routes—primarily by steamboat—was improved. The most important leap forward came when railroads began to crisscross the state, beginning with the Madison and Indianapolis line (1847). The state's 200-mile rail network of the year 1850 was a 2,000-mile system ten years later.
Indiana had also opened the way for occupation and exploitation of its vast acreage by the federal government's policy for removal of the Indians previously living there. In three separate removals, the Delaware (1820s), the Potawatomi (1830s), and the Miami (1840s) were forced by the federal government to relocate west of the Mississippi. In their place came thousands upon thousands of new settlers and this, coupled with a high birth rate, caused the state's population to burgeon. Just over the minimum number required for statehood—60,000—were counted in a special census in 1815, but by 1820 the census count was nearly 150,000; the state's population had doubled by 1830 and redoubled by 1840. By 1850 it had reached nearly one million. It had climbed to 1,350,000 at the eve of the Civil War, making Indiana the fifth largest state in the North (and sixth overall).

During this antebellum period, Indiana was the scene of one of the most famous communitarian reform movements in the country—Robert Owen's short-lived New Harmony experiment. The impact of Owen's community lived long after its formal disbanding in 1827. Moreover, Owen's children remained and played an important role in the state subsequently. The state's record in other social and cultural activity is mixed. No free public school system was established prior to the Civil War, although important foundations for one were laid in the 1840s and 1850s by men such as Caleb Mills and Robert Dale Owen. There were, moreover, a number of colleges established in Indiana, usually with strong denominational ties. These include Hanover (1827) and Wabash (1833), both of Presbyterian origin; Depauw (1837), Methodist; Notre Dame (1842), Roman Catholic; Franklin (1845), Baptist; Earlham (1847), Society of Friends or Quakers; and Butler (1855), Disciples of Christ, as well as the first state university (1820) at Bloomington.

Women were the unsung heroes, or more accurately heroines, of the pioneer period. Pioneering was most often a family affair, and the contributions of women were at least equal to those of the men. They performed the never-ending tasks of household maintenance—cooking and cleaning, sewing and weaving, canning and preserving, candlemaking, and churning. Most pioneer women also shared in the outdoor work, making gardens and helping in such jobs as butchering and threshing. The pioneer refrain is a truthful one: "A man works from sun to sun, a woman's work is never done."

Indiana played an important role in the Civil War. Despite its heritage as a largely southern-populated state and its dominant anti-black (but no pro-slavery) attitude (as expressed particularly in Article XII of the Constitution of 1851, which prohibited the further introduction of blacks into the state), Indiana was deeply committed to the northern war effort. The leader in this cause was clearly Governor Oliver P. Morton. He was a dynamic figure whose devotion to the Union was ex-
ceeded only by his concern for the Indiana fighting men he helped recruit, train, and equip in large numbers. Indiana was second in the proportion of its men of military age who served in the war, and her supplies of food and manufactured goods as well as material of war were crucial to northern success.

During the 1850s, Indiana reflected the nation's growing division of opinion regarding slavery and the awesome power of the slavery issue in American politics. The attention of most people within the state, however, was not focused on politics or social policy but upon economic affairs. Traditional agricultural pursuits continued to dominate, but there were also the excitement and challenge of new transportation modes, of innovations in manufacturing and banking, and of the latest labor-saving devices for the farmer. A new political party, a coalition known first as the Peoples' Party and then as the Republican Party, appeared in Indiana as well as in other northern states after the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 reopened the volatile issue of slavery in the territories. But not much attention was paid to national affairs until 1860 or until the attack upon Fort Sumter in April of 1861.

That event instantly mobilized the state. More than twice as many men as could immediately be accommodated responded to Governor Morton's first call for troops. Eventually some 130 regiments, numbering approximately 200,000 men (including blacks and Quakers), were organized in the state. Hoosiers participated in every major battle of the war, east and west; some 25,000 of the Indiana soldiers did not survive the war owing either to battlefield injuries or disease.

Those left at home argued state's rights and the peacetime status of blacks as well as immediate questions of political rivalry and the alleged disloyalty of the Democrats. The Democrats were called "Copperheads" by their Republican opponents, who in turn accused by the Democrats of being "Black Republican" abolitionists.

The broad issues involved the basic question of what kind of union the nation would have following the war. Everyone today agrees that the Northern goal was not to free the slaves but rather to preserve the Union. The question at that time was, however, whether the Union would be very much like it was prior to the war, except for the extinction of slavery, or whether it would be modified to greatly augment the power of the federal government. The Democrats' view can be summed up in their slogan, "The Constitution as it is, the Union as it was." The Republicans, however, wanted basic changes and forced compliance with those changes by the former Confederate states. This led to the so-called Civil War amendments to the Constitution—the 13th, 14th, and 15th—which were added between 1865 and 1870.

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Indiana supported all three, although serious doubt was cast upon the validity of Indiana's ratification vote on the 14th Amendment. In this and other ways, Indiana reverted to a more balanced position politically. It became the first northern state (in 1872) to elect a Democrat, Thomas A. Hendricks, to the governorship. Later, when Senator Oliver P. Morton died in office in 1877, he was replaced by Democrat David Turpie.

The state's wartime elections of 1862 and 1864 also merit special attention, as does the Indiana legislative session of 1863. This was a tumultuous assembly which failed to adopt a budget, after which Governor Morton managed, unconstitutionally, to operate the state on personal loans and advances from other units of government. The problem arose from the Democrats having carried the election of 1862 and therefore gaining control of the General Assembly. This set the stage for an unseemly battle between governor and legislature in 1863 and 1864, and served to emphasize the importance of the election of 1864. Some believe it was the significance of this electoral decision which prompted Governor Morton to claim the existence of large numbers of Copperheads and other "secret society" members—charges that culminated in the so-called Indianapolis Treason Trials of 1864.

Significant economic changes also occurred in Indiana during the Civil War era. In various ways this period served as a bridge for the transition from pioneer self-sufficiency to a new economic order in which railroads, banks, factories, and cities became important. Agriculture continued to be the leading occupation, with production for general market sale becoming more common. This made the farmer more dependent upon rail rates, interest charges of banks, purchases of farm products by factories, and the sale of products to urban residents.

POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

Indiana population grew very rapidly in the pioneer period because of migration, foreign immigration (slight before 1850), and natural increase. The Indiana Territory had a population of about 5,000 or 6,000 in 1800, of which about half lived in what is now Indiana. The majority of those settling in Indiana came from the southern states, especially Virginia and North Carolina, but from the upland, non-slaveholding areas of those states. Fewer arrived from the Middle Atlantic states, chiefly Pennsylvania and New York, and fewer still settled in Indiana from New England. It is important to note that, so far as transportation routes and geography permitted, settlers tended to migrate along parallels of latitude, which means that southerners tended to settle in southern Indiana and New Englanders in northern Indiana; this contributed to tensions of state government at that time.
The first census of the Indiana Territory was conducted in August of 1790. At that time only 5,641 persons lived in the state, most of them concentrated along the Ohio River. By 1840, following statehood and land purchases from the Indians, the population stood at 685,366. Approximately four-fifths of the people still lived in the southern half of the state. The approximate population census figures of the decades from 1810 to 1860 are: 25,000, 150,000, 350,000, 700,000, 1,000,000, and 1,350,000. Thus, the gain in population from an estimated total of 225,000 in 1825 to nearly a million in 1850, represents an increase of more than 400 per cent, or approximately the addition of 750,000 people in one generation. Statistics show the population to include many children and numerous adults in their twenties and thirties, but few persons above sixty-five. Blacks, free or unfree, made up a very small percentage of these numbers—approximately 1 percent of the total between 1830 and 1860. In 1850, the Negro population of the state equaled about 11,300.

Villages and towns existed in those early years, but pioneer Indiana was mainly rural. Until at least 1830, Indiana had no town with as many as 2,500 residents. By 1840, Madison, New Albany, and Indianapolis had exceeded that number. Eight towns had reached that population by 1850, but none as yet had a population of 10,000. While many settlers came into central Indiana, and a lesser number into northern Indiana, southern Indiana had more residents than either in 1850. Only an extremely small number of persons lived north of the National Road. Thus the history of Indiana in the early 1800s is principally the history of southern Indiana. By 1900, several population centers had developed in the central and northern parts of the state. Cities—including Indianapolis, Lafayette, Fort Wayne, Terre Haute, South Bend, and Logansport—now were competing with the older river towns along the Ohio River.

Immigration from southern states remained important, but during the second quarter of the nineteenth century (1825-1850) the proportion of persons from northern states such as Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York increased. Immigration from Europe became important, bringing thousands of Germans and Irish to Indiana.

Slavery did exist in early Indiana, despite the language of the Northwest Ordinance and the Indiana Constitution of 1816 prohibiting it. Initially, Territorial Governor Arthur St. Clair interpreted the Ordinance to mean no additional slavery after 1787, and later Governor William Henry Harrison and the Indiana territorial legislature permitted lesser-term (up to 99 years in a few cases) indentured servitude instead of slavery, but the conditions of such bondage were in distinguishable from slavery. As late as 1830, a few slaves in Indiana still appeared in the federal census reports. The institution of slavery...
and the practice of indentured servitude gradually ended, but there remained a legacy of deep hostility towards black people. This is indicated by various discriminatory acts of the legislature, most clearly in the “Negro Exclusion” section (Article XIII) of the Constitution of 1851 which was voided in 1866, and in the political rhetoric of, particularly, some Democrats in the 1850s and 1860s.

The Indians were concentrated in central and northern Indiana at the time of statehood. Often they were required by treaties, sometimes negotiated by Indian leaders not recognized by their own people as having such authority, to leave the state for points west of the Mississippi. By the terms of the Treaty of St. Mary’s (or the New Purchase Treaty) of 1818, the Delaware agreed to remove themselves within three years. When they departed in 1820, among them were William Conner’s first wife and the Conner children. The Potawatomi left their homes on the upper Wabash in 1838 on a forced march later referred to as the “Trail of Death”, and the last of the Miami departed from the Fort Wayne area in 1847. A notable event in the 1820s was the execution of four white men for the massacre of nine Indian men, women, and children at their sugar camp along Fall Creek (near Pendleton) in 1824; this was the nation’s first such punishment of whites for killing Indians.

Perhaps the major reason for the isolation and self-sufficiency of pioneer life was the inadequacy of transportation facilities. Particularly in the early years, transportation and travel generally followed river routes. Trails or traces through the forests were improved, and new trails—such as Whetzel’s Trail from the Whitewater near Brookville to the West Fork of White River at Waverly—were cut and “blazed” through the wilderness. Pioneer roads generally meandered around large trees, mud holes, gullies, and steep hills. Numerous stumps were left standing, though they were usually cut low enough to allow wagons, carts, and stages to pass over them. Bridges were scarce, almost no grading was done, and very little gravel was used. Poles or limbs were at times thrown across soft places to make the so-called corduroy roads. The Michigan Road and the National Road, both extending across Indiana in the 1830s, were the best roads, but even over them transportation was often difficult and at times impossible. Hundreds of flatboats yearly descended the tributaries of the Ohio and floated down to the Mississippi with produce for southern markets. Steamboats appeared on the Ohio and the Wabash Rivers in increasing numbers soon after the War of 1812.

Indiana was an eager and enthusiastic participant in the internal improvements movement of the Jacksonian Era, culminating in the well intentioned but ill-timed and badly-mismanaged mammoth Internal Improvement Act of 1836. At a time when annual state revenues did
not exceed $75,000, the legislature borrowed $10 million to build
canals, roads, and railroads throughout the state. Two canals—the
Wabash and Erie and the Whitewater—were results of this effort. The
Wabash and Erie Canal was to extend to Terre Haute; a Central Canal
was to connect the upper reaches of the Wabash and Erie Canal (near
Peru) with Evansville and the Ohio River via Indianapolis; a
Whitewater Canal through the river valley of that name was to serve
southeastern Indiana; and various other turnpike roads, river improve-
ments, and even a railroad northward from Madison were planned. The
depression of 1839-1843, following the Panic of 1837, as well as gro-s
mismatch of the borrowed capital, precluded the successful com-
pletion of the project as planned. However, important parts of the
system were eventually completed, usually by private concerns, and
the new transportation facilities paved the way for growth of popula-
tion and the economy. The most important transportation improve-
ment, however, came with the railroads—first the Madison and
Indianapolis (1847) and then many other lines which crisscrossed the
state. The number of miles of rail trackage increased from less than
200 in 1850 to more than 2,000 in 1860.

Indiana was at first an agricultural state, producing largely corn (for
family and livestock) augmented by a variety of vegetables and fruits
as circumstances permitted. Life on a pioneer farm was difficult and
lonely. The males in the family hunted, cleared the fields, and plowed
and planted, while the women cared for the home and the children.
Pioneer industrial activities included milling, sometimes on a small
scale as exemplified by the mill still standing at Spring Mill State
Park. There, a single waterwheel could power either the flour mill or
the adjacent sawmill. Larger, steam-operated enterprises also were
established, for example, in Indianapolis in the 1830s and in Cannelton
in the 1840s.

Food, clothing, and shelter were immediate and primary needs which
had to have substantial priority among the pioneers. Moreover,
because of isolation and self-sufficiency these needs had largely to be
provided locally—mainly within the family or neighborhood. Food
came principally from fish and game available in the streams and
forests, from vegetable gardens, from corn, wheat, hogs, and chickens.
Shelter was principally provided by log cabins, though frame houses
soon appeared and by 1850 a number of brick residences had been
erected. Clothing was made from wool, imported bolts of cotton, flax,
and leather. Providing food, shelter, and clothing were constant tasks
of pioneer families, requiring almost endless labor from fathers,
mothers, grandparents, and aunts, and likewise from boys and girls.
Many of those in their teens worked harder at physical toil than most
adults today in factories or on farms.
New settlers brought some clothing with them, and they could exist in crude cabins. But food had to be available quickly so they brought seed for growing corn, potatoes, beans, and a few other staple items. Some settlers also brought chickens, hogs, and perhaps a cow or horse with them. Clearing the forests and preparing the new ground for cultivation was one of the most laborious of all pioneer tasks. (Much of the greater portion of Indiana’s forests, however, was cleared after 1850 by farmers and lumbermen rather than by the pioneers.) Corn was the principal crop, and the pioneers ate much meat, including pork, beef, mutton, and wild game. While corn-hog farming has always been basic in Indiana, wheat and oats were two other important pioneer crops. Rye, barley, buckwheat, flax, and tobacco also were grown.

Cattle, sheep, and horses were common, though usually much less numerous than hogs. Sheep were important since most clothing was made from wool. Exports of farm produce—corn, meal, wheat, flour, pork, lard, tobacco, and vegetables—increased, especially during the second quarter of the pioneer era. Most of this produce went down the rivers on flatboats, ultimately descending the Mississippi to New Orleans to be consumed on slave plantations in the Lower South.

Early pioneer culture was transmitted in traditional ways by word of mouth or hands-on example, rather than by the printed word or formal schooling. Examples of this folk culture included farming techniques, medical knowledge (particularly herbs and similar home remedies), music and dance, humor (including the exaggeration and inversion that changed the meaning of “Hoosier” from a rude backwoodsman to a proud yeoman), and enthusiastic preaching. Many commentators describe the era as an “age of wood” where the ability to employ tools and skilled craft techniques permitted pioneers to reshape western forests to meet local needs.

Some historians of Indiana History contend that the image pioneers had of themselves was that of a “middle landscape” view. This “view” pictured western life midway between the intuitive, environment-dominated world of the far frontier and the rational, human-dominated world of the eastern city; its supporters contended western life was superior because it could draw upon the best of both extremes. Thus Hoosiers acquired a cultural style which blended the cultures of the eastern establishment and the western frontier.

During pioneer days, education in Indiana had its important beginnings mainly under church or private control. But whether church, private, or even public, the religious influence was substantial.
Although the Constitution of 1816 included advanced goals regarding the development of public education, these goals were not realized. A number of counties, however, established county or public seminaries (secondary schools). Indiana University, begun in the 1820s, and Vincennes University were the only public institutions of higher education established in the pioneer era. Private or church colleges established before 1850 which continue today include Hanover College, DePauw University, Franklin College, Wabash College, and the University of Notre Dame.

The Free School Law of 1852, based upon the educational provisions in the Constitution of 1851, marked a commitment on the part of the state to provide free public education up through the secondary level. This was largely the work of Professor Caleb Mills of Wabash College, who later served as the state's second superintendent of public instruction. Legal challenges to the statewide tax levy required to finance the schools delayed implementation of free education until after the Civil War. Attendance at school was optional, at least so far as parents were concerned, and most pioneer children received little or even no schooling.

Among the churches the Methodists, Baptists, Presbyterians, Christians (Disciples), and Quakers were the leading groups. The Roman Catholics, who established a church at Vincennes before 1750, also grew in numbers because some immigrants from older states were Catholic, and almost all of the Irish and many of the Germans were members of this faith. Most pioneers were not members of any church, but they were generally sympathetic to some Protestant group. Such churches often were a focus of continuing ethnic identity for immigrant groups settling in Indiana. Indiana became increasingly Protestant as the early dominance of the (French) Roman Catholic church was replaced by the evangelical Protestantism of the Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians. The theology and church policy of both the Baptists and Methodists were well suited to frontier conditions, and their lay ministers and circuit riders were effective evangelists. The Quakers were also significant in Indiana at an early date, especially at sites along the National Road in Richmond and Plainfield.

The decade of the 1850s, for all the political discussion regarding slavery and related issues, was primarily a time of progress and prosperity for Hoosiers. The period witnessed enormous economic and technological advances. The war with Mexico had ended, vast new territory had been acquired, and gold had been discovered in California. Most significant to Indiana was its extensive railroad construction, the expansion of agriculture and the development of manufacturing enterprises—particularly new pork packing plants, coal mines, limestone quarries, boat yards, and farm implement plants in northern Indiana.
The Democratic Party’s control in Indiana during most of the 1840s and 1850s (from 1843 to 1860 gubernatorially), was weakened by factionalism and the Civil War. A new party to succeed the defunct Whig Party, known as the Fusion or Peoples’ Party initially but then as the Republican Party, rose during the war years. The new party was essentially a coalition of groups opposed to the extension of slavery. Many events throughout the 1850s had contributed to its growth, including the switch of many former Democrats (such as Oliver P. Morton) and various third party members. The new Republican Party was victorious on both state and national levels in the election of 1860; it remained dominant for some years thereafter, particularly on the national level. After the Civil War a more balanced political situation existed in Indiana during the 1870s, when two Democratic governors were elected—Thomas A. Hendricks in 1872, and James D. “Blue Jeans” Williams in 1876.

Indiana’s contribution to the war effort was large and important—some 129 infantry regiments in addition to several cavalry and artillery units. About 200,000 Hoosiers took part, which was about 10 percent of the Northern troops. Most of the Indiana regiments served in the West but some—most notably the 19th Indiana, part of the famed Iron Brigade—served in the eastern campaigns. Indeed, Indiana soldiers participated in every major battle of the Civil War. Governor Morton, a controversial but energetic and effective leader, helped mobilize every aspect of the state’s military and economic resources, in the process becoming one of President Lincoln’s most loyal supporters and advisers. On one occasion, Indiana was the scene of a cavalry invasion by Confederate troops commanded by General John Hunt Morgan. His raid through Corydon, Salem, Vernon, and other southern Indian towns in July of 1863 coincided with General Robert E. Lee’s movement into Pennsylvania prior to the battle of Gettysburg. Its primary purpose seems to have been diversionary as well as to secure fresh mounts for his men and to engage in general plunder. Chased into Ohio and captured, Morgan himself later escaped from prison in Columbus, Ohio, and returned to the war where he was killed.

Politics continued to be volatile in Indiana during the war years. The Republicans, led by their aggressive governor (Oliver P. Morton), charged that the Democrats were unpatriotic or worse and attempted to link the party leaders with alleged treasonable activities of various secret societies—the Knights of the Golden Circle, the Sons of Liberty, the Order of American Knights. This effort, deplored even by some Republicans, culminated in the questionable tactics employed in the election of 1864 and the Indiana Treason Trials of the same year. The Democrats for their part berated Morton for his high-handed methods, and for his support of President Lincoln’s abridgements of individual freedom through arbitrary arrests, conscription, and the use of military force.
of military courts for civilians. Clearly, there was exaggeration on both sides and members of both parties were not far apart in their views concerning slavery, abolitionism, and white supremacy.

The wounds of war, literal and psychological, healed slowly; politics during the postwar era—the Reconstruction period—were laden with this burden. In addition to the slow political process of re-establishing and recognizing new state governments in the South, which also involved ratification of three amendments to the Constitution, there was the problem of a major economic readjustment following the war as the nation shifted back to a peacetime footing. The questions over how much, if any, paper currency to leave in circulation (the Greenback issue) and how best to reconvert the manufacturing establishments and to resume railroad construction in the latter 1860s were replaced with the more serious problem of a full-scale depression after 1873. As the country emerged from the Panic of 1873, the Grant scandals, and the celebration of the centennial, renewed attention was focused on ways of regulating the railroads and helping the farmers enjoy the fruits of their labors.

Pioneer manufacturing was based principally on products from farms and forests. Although organized manufacturing as it exists today was unknown among the pioneers, a considerable amount of small-scale manufacturing was done. Manufactured goods came mainly from household processes, from trades or crafts, and from mills. The household processes occurred within families or neighborhoods and ranged from butchering, quilting, spinning, weaving, and furniture-making to the making of farm implements, apple butter, nails, meal, flour, harness, and other necessary items. Tradesmen established shops in which they made shoes, hats, guns, and leather goods. Some tradesmen made items in their homes and traveled from neighborhood to neighborhood selling their products. Blacksmiths were common, and they performed many services for various tradesmen, along with early grist and lumber mills. The task of grinding of corn into meal and wheat into flour was soon transferred from household to miller in most neighborhoods, making milling the first major industry to develop in Indiana.
Chapter 10: Indiana Society, 1865-1920
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To the teacher: Following the Civil War, life in Indiana changed as did life in the rest of the nation. Indiana was faced with the same challenges of the late 19th century industrialization and early 20th century problems.

Corollary to U.S. History
- Post Civil War reconstruction and industrial growth
- Building the transcontinental railroad
- Development and growth of steel and oil industries
- Industrial growth; new social problems
- Beginning of the Progressive Era
- World War I

GENERAL COMMENTS

The years 1865 to 1920 brought a variety of significant changes in Indiana society, particularly with respect to urbanization, race, and ethnicity. Yet, continuity with the past was the dominant theme of the state's social history for that period. While the size and importance of cities increased, most Hoosiers were still identified with rural areas and small towns. The number of Negroes grew notably, but black Hoosiers continued to total less than 3 percent of all residents. Likewise, while immigrants located in Indiana in significant numbers, the foreign born in Indiana remained less than 10 percent of the state's total population. Meanwhile, traditional patterns of family life persisted for most Hoosiers.

POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

In the late 19th and the early 20th centuries, the construction of railroads and the rise of industry facilitated migrations of rural Hoosiers, southern blacks, and European immigrants to cities. Indiana's urban population, less than 9 percent of the total in 1860, increased to 34 percent by 1900 and 51 percent by 1920. The rate of
urban growth varied by region of the state, being least rapid in the southern section, excepting Evansville, and most rapid in the central and northern parts where industry and railroads were most concentrated. Towns experiencing particularly notable growth were Indianapolis, Terre Haute, Anderson, Kokomo, and Muncie in central Indiana and Fort Wayne, South Bend, and Gary (established in 1906) in northern Indiana. The rise of cities was accompanied by an intensification of such urban problems as crime, fire, epidemic disease, muddy streets, and polluted drinking water. In response to such problems municipalities slowly established fire and police departments to maintain public safety, constructed water and sewer facilities to protect public health, provided paved streets and street lights for public convenience, and chartered street railway companies for public transportation. The assumption of public responsibility for basic services formed a trend running counter to the tradition of private responsibility and met resistance. Thus, by 1920 most of Indiana’s electrical plants and waterworks were private rather than municipal enterprises.

Clearly defined residential patterns appeared in the expanding Indiana cities in consequence of the effect of residential clustering, the grouping of neighbors of similar social-economic backgrounds. Urban newcomers who could only afford low-rent housing lived in neighborhoods in city centers or by industrial sites with dense populations and low-quality housing. Separate neighborhoods within these districts were composed of people with distinctive racial or ethnic backgrounds. Each Indiana city had its neighborhoods of native-born rural whites, blacks, and European immigrants. Meanwhile, the extension of electric streetcar lines prompted middle and upper class whites to build large family homes in suburban towns, such as Woodruff Place of Indianapolis, located at some distance from the center of the city. Urban life became more unlike rural life. By 1900 differences of ethnicity, race, and class were more evident in the city than in the country. Also, social activity was more extensive and varied in cities.

In Indiana, by 1920, there was a broad spectrum of urban cultural institutions (libraries, schools, churches, theaters, opera houses), urban organizations (musical and literary societies, women’s clubs and men’s fraternal lodges), and urban public accommodations (hotels, restaurants, playgrounds and amusement parks).

While the growth of cities had a significant impact on the state by 1920, urbanization did not bring a radical break with Indiana’s rural and small town heritage. In comparison with other states in the region and industrial states elsewhere, cities in Indiana were relatively small and none, even Indianapolis, reached the dominating proportions of a Chicago, a Cincinnati, or a Detroit. Thus, city ways were imposed on
Indiana to a lesser extent than in other industrial states. Rural ideas were fostered in Indiana urban centers by the relatively high percentage of native-born Hoosiers who migrated to cities where they retained their affection for their rural and small town heritages. Many Hoosiers lived neither in a big city nor on an isolated farm but in a small town. Although 51 percent of the state's population was urban in 1920, 71 percent of all Hoosiers resided in rural areas or in towns of less than 25,000 persons.

During the 1865-1920 period, which began with an easing of racial proscriptions, the Negro population in Indiana began to increase. The Reconstruction period following the Civil War brought black Hoosiers the rights of citizenship, including the right to vote and to testify in court, previously denied by state law. Also, the Indiana Supreme Court in 1866 voided the 1851 Indiana Constitution's Article XIII which had barred black persons from entering the state. The number of black Hoosiers increased from 11,428 in 1860 to 57,505 in 1900 in consequence of a series of large migrations from the South. The Negro migrations continued in the new century, peaking during the World War I period as a severe labor shortage created new employment opportunities for black workers. Thus, the state's black population was boosted to 80,810 by 1920. Most of these newcomers with origins in the rural South largely located in the industrial towns and cities of central and northern Indiana, particularly Indianapolis, which was the residence of more than one-fourth of all black Hoosiers in 1900. The Indiana Avenue district of Indianapolis became a focus of activity in Negro business, politics, religion, and music. Black institutions and organizations were established to serve expanding black urban neighborhoods. Always at the center of cultural life were Negro churches, particularly Methodist and Baptist churches. Almost as significant were Negro newspapers, of which Indianapolis boasted three—the Freeman, the Indianapolis World, and the Recorder. Black fraternal organizations and lodges were significant adjuncts to social life. This community life was frequently guided by members of a small but expanding Negro middle class composed of business and professional people whose opportunities were enhanced by the growth of their large black clientele. Thus, the number of black clergymen, teachers, lawyers, physicians, newspaper editors, barbers, restaurant owners, and insurance agents increased.

While the events of the period altered the Negro experience, old racial attitudes of white Hoosiers persisted and the colorline in Indiana was maintained. Some small towns, especially in southern Indiana, built reputations for racial antipathy by discouraging Negro home seekers and visitors. Black people were refused service in restaurants, hotels, and other public accommodations. Racial violence increased in the late 19th century, as evidenced by the lynching of 20 Negro men during
the period of 1865-1903. Prior to World War I, Indiana industrial employers tended to hire whites only and blacks were almost entirely excluded from American Federation of Labor affiliates in Indiana. Thus, most Negro men could only find jobs as unskilled laborers and most black women could obtain employment only in domestic service. Meanwhile, the colorline ran through the public schools. In 1869, the Indiana legislature ended the pre-Civil War exclusion of Negroes from common schools, requiring school trustees to provide separate schools for black children or (as stipulated in 1887) admit them to white schools. Yet most black children attended separate and unequal schools through 1920.

European immigrants also swelled the Hoosier population during the period 1865 to 1920. The foreign-born population increased from 118,284 in 1860 to a peak of 159,663 in 1910. Prior to the 1880s most of Indiana’s immigrants came from the countries of Northern and Western Europe. Natives of the German principalities formed the largest foreign-born group in Indiana followed by those from Ireland. As did other immigrants, the Germans reacted to the unfamiliarity of their new lives by attempting to preserve the familiar culture of the homeland. Thus, German language churches, schools, newspapers, musical societies, and social clubs existed in such places as Fort Wayne, Indianapolis, Evansville, and Dubois County, where Germans had settled before the Civil War. In the late 19th century, the sources of immigration shifted from Northern and Western Europe to the countries of Southern and Eastern Europe, which were the homelands of most immigrants from the 1880s to World War I. These “new” immigrants usually settled in northern Indiana, especially in South Bend and the Calumet cities, where employment in heavy industry was available. Few of them located in Indianapolis, Evansville, Fort Wayne, and other previously popular immigrant locales. New ethnic residential neighborhoods, as the west side Polish area in South Bend, were formed as the later European newcomers sought solace in familiar cultural heritages. The cultural diversity of Indiana was augmented by the presence of Slavic, Latin, and Eastern European languages and customs, including religious worship in Catholic, Jewish, and Eastern Orthodox traditions. The immigrations of the period, both “old” and “new”, had the greatest impact on Indiana cities, particularly in the acceleration of urban population growth. The proportion of the foreign born living in urban places rose from half in 1890 to over three-quarters in 1920.

Occurring on a relatively small scale, European immigration did not fundamentally alter Indiana’s social pattern. Fewer immigrants located in Indiana than in any other state in the Old Northwest. In 1920, Indiana had the highest proportion of native-born white population in the nation. As the foreign born usually became city dwellers, the fact that
Indiana received fewer immigrants than other states meant that the magnitude of Indiana's urban population growth was also lower. While Indiana made some public and private attempts to recruit European immigrants, the state may have had a reputation as being unsympathetic to foreign-born newcomers. The Know-Nothing movement of the 1850s stirred an undercurrent of anti-immigrant feeling that persisted and surfaced occasionally afterwards, victimizing the non-Protestant "new" immigrants. During World War I, the German-American heritage was attacked, the German language was removed from schools and German place and street names were changed. The "Americanism" movement of the war years, with its attempt to eliminate "foreignness," regenerated nativist feeling that was a factor in the post-war rise of the Ku Klux Klan.

The family, the most basic social institution, experienced considerable strain in Indiana, as elsewhere during the period. As society became more complex and affluent, social clubs, schools, political organizations, and other new institutions competed with the family to provide companionship, security, nurture, and education. Modern family trends advanced in the late 19th century. The divorce rate rose, prompting passage of an 1873 state law designed to protect the family by making Indiana divorces more difficult to obtain. The separation between home and work grew as industrialization proceeded. Increasing numbers of women entered the workforce. Particularly after the turn of the century, women found new and relatively low-paying employment as sales clerks, stenographers, and telephone operators. With the extension of leisure time, participation in the women's club movement grew. Hoosier women also participated in the reform movements of the era, as social workers in urban settlement houses and as advocates of women's rights. Ida Husted Harper, a Terre Haute newspaper columnist, was among the active Hoosier feminists, many of whom joined the Women's Franchise League of Indiana.

While some observers feared that modern trends placed the home in peril, the family retained its fundamental usefulness and structure. The family continued to be the primary support institution, especially for the poor, in an age when welfare and service agencies were uncommon. Also as in the past, the great majority of Hoosier households consisted of a married couple with or without children. Despite the major trends of the era—industrialization, urbanization, and immigration—the Hoosier family continued to be highly traditional and most Hoosiers remained extraordinarily similar in their social characteristics. In 1920, 95 percent of all Hoosiers were native born, 97 percent were white, 71 percent lived in small towns or rural areas, and almost 75 percent of Indiana church members were Protestant. Perhaps no other state had a more homogeneous population.
To the teacher: At the turn of the century, Indiana enjoyed a golden age. Many changes occurred in the way Hoosiers lived and worked.

Corollary to U.S. History
- Problems in the workplace; changes in agriculture
- National labor movement
- Wave of immigrants from Europe
- Closing of the American Frontier
- Progressivism and New Nationalism
- World War I

GENERAL COMMENTS

While the period 1865-1920 in Indiana has been classed as provincial in cultural terms, in some areas the state enjoyed resounding successes. The Hoosier state blossomed as the home of a number of well-known authors of both fiction and non-fiction, and produced at least one artist of enduring popularity. The most popular leisure-time activities were those also favored in other sections of the country. Opportunities for education improved substantially, both in quantity and quality, for all socio-economic classes.

The period between 1865 and 1920 was marked by rapid changes in agriculture. At the beginning of the era, the vast majority of Indiana’s residents earned their livings as farmers, and many used techniques and tools not far removed from those of pioneer days. By 1920, farming had progressed far towards becoming a modern, specialized business, with advancements particularly in mechanization, the use of scientific knowledge, and in the quality of life for the farmer and his family.

The increasing importance of manufacturing was one of the major economic changes of the period 1865-1920. It contributed much to making life more interdependent and less self-sufficient than previously; to urban in contrast to rural living; to an increased flow of trade to
and from Indiana; to the growth of railroads; to the emergence and rapid rise of factory wage earners as an important new element in the economy; and to increasing wealth and a general, though uneven, rise in living standards. At the end of the pioneer era, manufacturing of products had been mainly small scale and mostly for sale beyond localities in which produced. By the end of the period large factories, often owned by corporations, had increasingly become the norm.

The rapid growth of agriculture and manufacturing would not have been possible without significant and rapid improvement in transportation facilities. Such improvement greatly extended markets within Indiana, between Indiana and other states, and even between Indiana and foreign countries. Transportation was improved in various ways, each developing to meet a particular need, but in the period before 1920, the progress of railroads was the single most important element. The iron horse far outdistanced all other types of transportation until well after the First World War.

As manufacturing increased, especially in factories, the number of wage earners in the state also grew. The anonymity that developed between workers and employers in ever larger establishments created a special set of problems with which the state's economy had to deal. These were answered by social changes, by legislation, and by the banding together of workers themselves in an effort to find solutions to their difficulties. The state and its people responded to these developments in much the same way as did society and the economy in other parts of the country at the time.

POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

In the early 1900s, Indiana boasted more best-selling authors than any other state except New York. Heading the list were James Whitcomb Riley, Booth Tarkington, Meredith Nicholson, and George Ade. Gene Stratton-Porter also caught the attention of readers with novels based on her study of nature. The works of Theodore Dreiser of Terre Haute, who was to become a major figure in American literature as the author of such books as *Sister Carrie* and *An American Tragedy*, were too controversial to be popular in Indiana at the time. As a whole, the favored literature of the period, such as that produced by Indiana's favorite sons, was light, romantic, and nostalgic. By far the single most successful novel by any Hoosier during the period was *Ben Hur*. Written by Lew Wallace of Crawfordsville and published in 1880, the work was said for many years to have sold more copies than any other except the Bible. Perhaps the best known nonfiction writer from Indiana in the early 20th century was Charles A. Beard of Knightstown,
town, who produced a series of classic works on American history, including his *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States.*

Although Indiana was not a leading artistic center at the time, a group of artists known as the Hoosier School gained national recognition as a result of exhibits in Chicago and New York. The most popular artist of the era, and one whose works have maintained their popularity to the present time, was Theodore C. Steele, who did much of his work in and around Brown County. His paintings, portraying covered bridges, tranquil streams, and other rural scenes, captured much of what many felt was best about Indiana. They have been described by one author as "provincial, pleasant, optimistic."

Leisure-time activities favored by the state's inhabitants in the late 19th and early 20th centuries were those common in most regions of the Midwest at the time. Baseball games, picnics, ice cream socials, sledding, and skating parties drew people in rural areas together. In towns and cities, high school and collegiate athletics attracted increasing attention as educational facilities grew and prospered. Major activities such as the state fair and, after 1911, the 500-mile auto race, periodically drew people to the state capital. In the latter part of the period, movie theaters became popular centers for entertainment. Indianapolis boasted 55 theaters by 1920, and the number was growing in smaller towns and villages throughout the state.

Educational opportunities in Indiana began to improve with the passage of the Free School Law in 1852. Perhaps the most important law ever enacted in Indiana regarding public schools, this act created a statewide system of free public schools to be supported by a statewide tax. The two principles: (1) that public schools are a joint responsibility of the state and local areas; and (2) that there be no tuition or subscription charges in them, though now widely accepted, were at first vigorously opposed by many. By 1900, school opportunities in Indiana still lagged behind those in other northern states, but the situation improved with a variety of reforms in the early 20th century. Compulsory attendance was instituted, and reformers worked on professionalizing teacher standards, improving their salaries, and modernizing the curriculum in the high schools. Educational improvements were also aided by the construction of 150 Carnegie libraries throughout the state between 1899 and 1920. Still, with 4800 one-room school houses remaining in operation in 1920, the state was far short of the degree of sophistication extant in today's public schools.
Agriculture was the principal occupation from 1865 to 1910. The value of agricultural products far exceeded the output of any other form of endeavor until 1910 when, for the first time, it was equalled by the value of manufactured goods. Corn, wheat, hay, and potatoes continued to be the principal crops. The number of horses and mules produced increased substantially, primarily for use in powering farm machinery. Hogs were the most important livestock produced for sale, but the quantity of dairy cattle and beef for slaughter had increased substantially by 1920. Production of fruits and vegetables increased, both to supply home and city markets and to supply the canning industry that developed in the 1880s. By the end of the period, Indiana agricultural products had become more diverse, changing to suit the needs of the market place.

Much modernization took place in farming methods and practices between 1865 and 1910; however, many farmers were slow to discard older methods and practices. After the Civil War, new machinery and tools for improving the farmer's production increasingly made their appearance on farms in Indiana, no doubt encouraged by the establishment of several farm implement factories in the state. Plows, reapers, binders, and mowers pulled by horses and mules gave way after a few years to similar equipment powered by enormous steam engines. After the turn of the century, Hoosier farmers began using the gasoline-powered tractor. Scientists and other agricultural experts from Purdue University, the federal agricultural extension service, and elsewhere, provided valuable information with which they persuaded the farmer to modernize his farming techniques. Among the most valuable of the new suggestions were: 1) rotation of crops, with more use of clover and timothy than in pioneer days; 2) the use of better seeds for crops and better breeds of farm animals; 3) additional care and shelter for farm animals; 4) drainage of ponds, swamps, and other wet places; 5) scattering of barnyard manures and limited use of fertilizer on fields; and 6) more effective plowing and cultivation of the soil than before—a development encouraged by the increased use of improved plows and cultivators.

The quality of life for the farmer and his family also improved measurably during this period. The establishment of organizations such as the Grange, the proliferation of publications such as the Indiana Farmer, with articles of interest to the whole family, and the availability of state and federal funds for extension programs gave rural dwellers better connections with the outside world. Institutes conducted by Purdue faculty members provided access to education and the latest improvements in farming and homemaking. Rural delivery of mail and the advent of the mail order catalog decreased isolation, as did the increasing availability of the automobile in the latter part of the period. By 1920, at least some farm families were en-
joying the advantages of electricity and some labor-saving appliances
in their homes. Although the number of actual farm dwellers had
begun to decline by that time, many farm families in the decade
1910-1920 had enjoyed a prosperity and a lifestyle that was unequalled
in previous Indiana history.

During the period up to 1910, milling, meat, lumber, and liquor were
the principal manufacturing industries in Indiana. After 1910, heavy
industry involving the production of iron, steel, glass, electrical
machinery, railroad equipment, and automobiles played an increasingly
greater role in Indiana's economy. The milling industry processed
wheat and corn into flour and meal; the meat industry processed pork,
beef, mutton, and poultry; the lumber industry produced boards, barrel
staves, railroad ties, and eventually fine furniture; and the liquor indus-
try made whiskey and beer. Extractive industries involving the
mining of coal, the production of oil and natural gas, and the quarry-
ing of limestone developed in the period from 1880 to 1900.

By the early decades of the 20th century, Indiana industry was becom-
ing increasingly sophisticated. Much of the heavier industry had begun
to rely less and less on the state's natural resources for its raw
materials. Electricity and internal combustion engines were quickly
replacing steam and water power as major sources of energy. Con-
solidation of small enterprises into major corporations beginning in the
1890s made Indiana industry an increasingly potent force in the
nation's economy.

As the nature of the state's industrial output changed, so did the loca-
tion of the largest manufacturing centers. Iron and steel production
focused on the Gary-East Chicago area, farm implement manufacture
in South Bend, and the assembly of automobiles in Kokomo, In-
dianapolis, and other cities of central and northern Indiana.

Statistics show that by 1920 annual industrial output in Indiana had
grown to exceed farm products in value. The state's central location in
the Midwest, along with its many other advantages, had combined to
make this achievement attainable.

The leading development in transportation in the period 1860-1900 was
the growth of steam railroads. In 1850, Indiana had only 225
miles of track, but by 1920 that figure had grown to 7,812 miles. By
that time Indiana was connected by rail to every state in the Union,
and more than 200 passenger trains per day pulled into Indianapolis' 
Union Station. The efficiency of railroad operation benefited
enormously from the progress of railroad consolidation in the late 19th
and early 20th centuries. At least 28 major corporations owned and
operated rail lines in Indiana by 1920.
By the 1880s various cities had horse or mule-drawn street cars, most of which were succeeded by electric trolleys within two decades. For a brief time early in this century the state's imagination was captured by the development of a network of electric railways designed to connect the major towns and cities. Approximately 2600 miles of interurban track were constructed, but the system suffered from the beginning from competition with rail traffic. With the increasing popularity of the automobile, the interurban was already beginning its decline by 1920.

The widespread manufacture of automobiles in the state early in this century no doubt contributed to their popularity, and after 1910 the numbers of car and trucks in use increased steadily. Roads were gradually improved, many being gravelled, but concrete highways were almost nonexistent as late as 1920. Eventually, demands for better construction, especially in rural areas, were answered with aid from state and local governments.

It is estimated that the number of laborers in manufacturing in Indiana by 1920 was 375,000. Industry in the state attracted not only workers from rural areas, but Negroes from southern farming regions and immigrants from southern and eastern Europe. In order to solve some of the problems they faced as workers in industry that was ever larger and more impersonal, wage earners banded together. Various labor unions, mainly trade or craft, were formed in the late 19th century. Some industrial unions, such as that for miners, were also organized. Labor unions developed local federations, and the Indiana State Federation of Labor was formalized in 1885. By 1900, Indiana had become a strong union state which five years later could boast of Indianapolis as the headquarters of nine international unions. Conflicts inevitably developed between labor and management, resulting in strikes and lockouts and, at times, violence or the threat of violence. One of the nation's best known railway strikes focused in part on Indianapolis in 1877, and the controversial American Railway Union was founded by Eugene V. Debs in Terre Haute in 1890. In 1919, Gary experienced a strike in the steel mills which resulted in the use of martial law to quell strife between the opposing forces.

Late in the 19th century the Indiana General Assembly began passing laws limiting the number of hours women and children could work, establishing safety and sanitary requirements for mines and factories, requiring the payment of wages at regular intervals, and recognizing the right to form unions. Many of these laws were enforced only intermittently, however, as was the case in other parts of the country at the time. For example, child labor in Indiana finally declined in the decade 1910-1920, but not so much because of the efforts to improve labor conditions as because of strict enforcement of school attendance laws. In these matters, the state reflected national opinion concerning liberty of contract and the right to work.

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Chapter 12: Indiana, 1920-1960

Dr. James H. Madison, Associate Professor of History and Editor, Indiana Magazine of History, Indiana University, Bloomington

To the teacher: Following World War I, Indiana was caught up in the same trends that governed national issues.

Corollary to U.S. History
- World War I and the aftermath
- Attempts to form the League of Nations
- Peace and prosperity of the 1920s
- World Depression
- World War II and the aftermath
- Formation of the United Nations
- Beginning of the Cold War Era

GENERAL COMMENTS

The end of World War I brought good times to Indiana as to the rest of the nation. There was bathtub gin and dancing to new music (including that of Hoagy Carmichael), and there were radios, movies, football, and especially basketball. Hoosiers were proud of their new highway system and the substantial achievement in developing state parks under the direction of Richard Lieber. And the state began to set higher standards in public education. But the decade of the 1920s also brought considerable tragedy to Indiana. Indiana’s political leadership in the 1920s was, unfortunately, inept and even corrupt. One governor, Warren McCray, was convicted of misusing his office for personal gain and sentenced to ten years in the federal penitentiary. Another governor, Ed Jackson, escaped jail only because the statute of limitations prevented his conviction for political bribery. Neither Democrats nor Republicans had much of which to be proud in the 1920s.
The great tragedy of the 1920s—perhaps the greatest in Indiana's history—was the growth and dominance of the Ku Klux Klan. In the years 1923-1925, Indiana had more Klansmen than nearly any other state, perhaps as many as 250,000 or about 30 percent of the native-born, white adult male population. The Klan professed hatred for Catholics, Jews, Negroes, and foreigners, reviving vicious prejudice and bigotry. But the hooded order was not just an organization of hatred. The Klan promised to revitalize traditional values, particularly old-fashioned Protestantism and patriotism. Reacting negatively to the popular culture of the Roaring Twenties, the Klan strongly opposed consumption of alcohol, divorce, premarital sex, and leisure activity on the Sabbath. At the same time, it sponsored showy rallies and parades demonstrating its interpretation of "100 percent Americanism." Unlike the original Klan of 1866-1871, the Klan in the 20s seldom used violence as a weapon, but its secrecy and wide appeal made it a threatening presence to recipients of its disapproval. Although there was some opposition to the Klan, many political, religious, and community leaders supported it or remained quiet. Not until after its Grand Dragon, D.C. Stephenson, was convicted of murder in 1925 did opposition to the Klan become forceful. By the end of the decade, the Klan had passed from the scene, to reappear only sporadically and in much weaker form in later decades.

Because of the Great Depression, the 1930s was a very different decade. Indiana suffered the same economic hardships as the rest of the nation. The state's steel and auto factories, which had boomed in the 1920s, cut back production and, in many cases, closed entirely. There were bread lines in such cities as Fort Wayne and Indianapolis. Some urban families attempted to survive by returning to the country and taking up farming. Early relief efforts were local and private, as they had been since pioneer days, but local relief could not begin to meet the need for food, clothing, and shelter.

The national response to the Depression came in the New Deal, which brought to Indiana the alphabet soup of agencies and programs designed to secure relief and recovery. But Indiana had its own "little" New Deal, which offered one of the most energetic state responses to the Depression. At the helm was Paul V. McNutt, who ranks along with Oliver Morton as the most forceful of Indiana's governors. McNutt pushed through state programs intended to ameliorate the effects of the Depression and to move Indiana to a more liberal position. At his insistence the General Assembly increased taxes so that schools could remain open, set up an old-age pension plan, and reorganized state government to make it more efficient. McNutt also expanded Indiana's system of political patronage in an attempt to strengthen his own party.
Republicans complained bitterly about his program of collecting 2 percent of state employee paychecks to finance Democratic party campaigns. Once in office, however, Republicans also adopted the 2 percent system.

The advent of World War II in the early 1940s changed everything. Instead of unemployment there was an abundance of jobs. Indiana's steel, auto, petroleum, and other industrial plants worked at full capacity to produce the materials that would defeat the Axis powers. As Hoosiers went marching off to war there developed a serious labor shortage that necessitated hiring women and blacks for jobs previously closed to them by traditional prejudices. The war underlined the moral incongruities of racism at home and stimulated the state's first serious attention to the problem in the 20th century. By 1949, the General Assembly was ready at last to pass the Indiana School Desegregation Act.

Peace brought prosperity to most Hoosiers. Returning veterans flocked to the state's expanding colleges and universities. Heavy industries boomed in the Calumet Region, in Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, and Muncie. By the 1950s, many cities boasted of middle-class suburbs where families bought a new car every other year, saved to send their baby-boom children to college, and shopped at a new mall. Rural Indiana also underwent great changes. Electrification, telephones, paved roads, and consolidated schools eased the isolation and drudgery of rural life. Agricultural output increased in the 1940s and 1950s, even though the number of farmers declined.

The end of World War II brought new strength to Indiana's Republican Party. Many Hoosiers had reacted against the New Deal liberalism of President Franklin Roosevelt and Governor Paul McNutt by supporting Republican proposals to keep taxes low and limit spending for social welfare programs. Hoosier Republicans were especially vociferous in denouncing federal aid and arguing for state and local control of government expenditures. Indiana's Senator William Jenner became a nationally known proponent of this conservative position and also a leading spokesman for Cold War anticommunism. Jenner and many other Indiana Republicans found President Dwight Eisenhower too liberal. Just as the decade of the 1950s closed, however, Indiana Democrats began a comeback, testifying to the continued vitality of the state's two-party system.
Indiana's population continued its growth during the years 1920-1960, but at changing rates. Particularly important was the drop in population growth in the 1930s, as couples responded to the Depression by postponing marriage and childbearing. This drop in the birth rate was followed by a large upswing in births after World War II, causing a bulge in the population that constitutes one of the most important forces in shaping the late 20th century history of Indiana and the nation. Indiana's demography has also reflected national trends in the growth of urban population and the relative decline of rural population in this period, with the exception of the 1930s.

The 1920s brought a continuation and in some instances an intensification of race prejudice. The Ku Klux Klan's popularity in the early 1920s was part of the prejudice, but racism preceded the Klan and flourished outside as well as within the hooded order. This was most evident in the construction of all-Negro high schools in Indianapolis and Gary in the 1920s. So segregated were these schools that they were not allowed to participate in the state basketball tournament until 1943. Black Hoosiers resisted this segregation, particularly through the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, but not until the 1940s was there significant change. The Indiana Plan of Bi-Racial Cooperation joined government, labor, and business leaders to enhance job opportunities for Negroes during the war. More importantly, the state legislature in 1949 passed the School Desegregation Act requiring an end to segregation in public education. Though the practice continued, Indiana was now at last on record as firmly opposed to separate schools, a position the United States Supreme Court also took five years later. Public places such as restaurants, hotels, theaters, and swimming pools remained closed to blacks in many cities and small towns into the 1950s.

The 1920s were years of significant change in public education. Reformers argued that schools were inadequately staffed and that teachers were insufficiently paid and poorly trained. One-room schools still dominated in rural areas. Rural and city schools were largely financed and controlled by the local community. Responding to reform arguments, the state legislature raised standards for teachers, provided the possibility of tenure, and encouraged school consolidation. Depression and war hampered additional major reforms, but the push for change resumed in the 1950s as the baby-boom population entered school. Most important was the School Reorganization Act of 1959, which forced the consolidation of many small schools and school districts. With consolidation came large schools run by professional administrators and given more forceful direction by state officials. These and other changes, although controversial, often brought substantial
improvement in schools. Throughout the period, however, Indiana lagged behind most other northern, industrial states in many measures of the quality of education, particularly in tax dollars devoted to schooling. During the post-World War II years the state universities also grew rapidly and expanded the variety and quality of their programs.

Farmers declined as a percentage of the workforce, average farm size grew, and agricultural output increased substantially. Fundamental to these changes were new science and technology. Tractors, corn pickers, and grain combines appeared to replace human and horse power, while electrification, particularly in the 1930s, effected labor savings in many chores. Hybrid seeds greatly expanded yields. Corn and hogs remained the major farm products, joined by soybeans after World War II. Farmers became more firmly connected to national and international markets and more involved with government, particularly with the New Deal programs of the 1930s. The Indiana Farm Bureau, formed in 1919, became one of the state’s most important organizations. Though declining in numbers, farmers and rural Hoosiers generally continued to have a large voice in the state, particularly in the General Assembly.

Indiana’s industrial economy matured during these years, and the state became one of the nation’s leading manufacturers. Most important was the strength in durable manufactured goods, including steel, auto parts, household appliances, and machinery. Factories producing these products were concentrated in central and northern Indiana—in Indianapolis, Fort Wayne, South Bend, in the former gas belt towns, and in the Calumet cities. Indiana’s auto manufacturers after World War I included Stutz, Auburn, Duesenberg, Haynes, and Studebaker; all but Studebaker went out of business in the 1920s and 1930s. Auto parts manufacturing remained very important, however. World War II gave added impetus to heavy manufacturing, and the postwar boom enabled continued growth into the 1960s. Many workers shared in this prosperity as the state’s per capita income in the 1940s and 1950s exceeded the national average for the first time. Workers in many heavy industries benefited also from the expansion of industrial unions, particularly with the formation of the Congress of Industrial Organizations in the 1930s. Indiana became one of the nation’s strong union states.

Indiana tended toward moderation in its competitive, two-party political arena through the period 1920 to 1960. The Depression of the 1930s and the strong ambition of Paul McNutt brought an unusual degree of activity and liberalism to state government, but Republicans returned to strength as the Depression waned. McNutt and the Democrats succeeded only partly in building a New Deal coalition of
urban, labor, and black voters. During the 1950s, Indiana was among the most conservative states in reasserting traditions of self-help and limited government. Important also in Indiana's political character was the institutional strength of the parties, which were more organized and powerful than in most states. This strength became especially evident with the intensification of political patronage in the 1930s and after. Hoosiers continued to identify strongly with one or the other of the parties, although declines in voter turnout indicated some lessening of the traditional interest in politics.

Relations between the federal government and Indiana have always been characterized by both cooperation and conflict. The national government has been important to Hoosiers since territorial days. In the period after World War I, Washington became even more important as the relationship between state and federal governments changed. The New Deal was the most significant development in this changing relationship, as it brought a larger federal presence in such areas as social welfare and labor relations. State government was strong in Indiana, especially in areas of social welfare. In 1947, the General Assembly passed a widely-cited resolution rejecting federal aid and condemning Washington's "subsidies, doles, and paternalism." Reflecting this attitude, Indiana was among the states receiving the least amount of federal aid. In this manner, Hoosiers indicated that their attachment to traditions of local control and self-help changes less rapidly than in other states. Hoosiers in the years after World War I became more fully connected to national and international events and processes. They became more integrated into national and international economies, affected by the price of grain in Argentina or of steel in Great Britain. Their political lives looked to Washington as well as to Indianapolis and the local courthouse. Foreign affairs became more meaningful, particularly with World War II and the Cold War. In a process of cultural homogenization, their food, clothing, leisure, and entertainment became more like that of all Americans. Yet Hoosiers remained distinctive, part of their traditions of local control, independence, neighborliness, and individual freedom.
Chapter 13: Indiana Since 1960  
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To the teacher: Indiana entered the 1960s with expectations for peace and prosperity. National issues continue to impact on the state's growth and development.

Corollary to U.S. History
- Impact of a series of domestic problems on urban life
- Development of troubles in Southeast Asia
- Assassination of President Kennedy
- Domestic and foreign problems plague President Johnson
- Vietnam War domination of national issues
- The Nixon Years, end of the Vietnam War, return of the POWs.
- Problems of Watergate
- President's Ford's administration
- The Carter Years, inflation, decline of traditional industries, new international issues such as terrorism
- The Reagan Years, economic stability, renewed military strength, international terrorism, increased problems with international trade relations

GENERAL COMMENTS

The people of Indiana entered the 1960s with a confident expectation of continued peace and reasonable prosperity. Industry and agriculture flourished, jobs were available for almost everyone who wanted to work and prices were increasing at a slow pace. Hoosiers, like most Americans, were optimistic about their futures. The state's population was growing, although less rapidly than in the nation as a whole. Its larger cities were growing also, at least on their suburban fringes, but Hoosiers continued to move away from the countryside and the smaller towns. There was a significant loss of population from the hill country of southern Indiana where small farms on thin soil could not make effective use of machinery.

Decade of the 1960s
On the rich level soil of central Indiana the farms were expanding and the farmers becoming fewer. Larger tractors and combines and heavier use of fertilizers and chemicals made it possible for a single family to operate 600 acres and more. Hoosier farmers became more specialized, as the variety of crops and livestock diminished and the scale of operations became larger. Corn remained the principal crop, just as it had been since the pioneer period, but soybeans were now a strong second and wheat third. Most of the corn was used for feeding hogs and cattle, while the soybeans were processed into a wide range of food and other products.

Hoosier industry was concentrated in the Calumet region and in the larger cities of central and northern Indiana. Most of the mills and factories worked with iron and steel—making it, shaping it, fabricating it into automobiles and machinery. A high proportion of the manufacturing involved the automotive industry; building Studebaker cars in South Bend and International trucks in Fort Wayne, making Cummins diesel engines in Columbus and Chrysler transmissions in Kokomo and General Motors electrical parts in Anderson. No one imagined in 1960 that the great American automobile industry would ever be troubled by foreign competition.

Hoosiers themselves were changing. There was a significant but not yet troubling emigration of younger and better educated men and women to the booming South and West. No one talked about the sunbelt in 1960, but thousands left every year for gleaming opportunities and warmer climates in California, Texas, and Florida. Meanwhile the wartime movement of southern blacks and Appalachian whites seeking high-wage factory jobs continued, bringing troubling changes to Indiana’s larger cities. The state’s black population was almost totally urban and most of it was concentrated in the central cities of metropolitan areas. Change was most dramatic in Gary, already 39 percent black in 1960 but increasing to 71 percent by 1980. While blacks remained the largest minority group among Indiana’s people there were new patterns of immigration. Spanish-speaking residents, chiefly of Mexican origin, increased rapidly. Many came to Indiana as migrant farmworkers and decided to settle, either as permanent workers on large fruit and vegetable farms or in the cities. East Chicago, with its Hispanic tradition going back to the early 1920s, accumulated the largest concentration of Spanish-speaking residents, 42 percent of its total population. There were also growing numbers of Asians, including refugees from the war in Vietnam and Cambodia, scattered in cities throughout the state.
Racial change was not the only influence reshaping Hoosier cities. Shopping centers were beginning to attract suburban residents by 1960, although downtown was still the center of activity for shopping and entertainment. Within the next twenty years enclosed all-weather malls, surrounded by acres of parking space, became the primary retail shopping districts. Downtown department stores moved to the malls or disappeared entirely except for Indianapolis, and a growing number of nationwide chain stores rented space in the malls to the virtual exclusion of locally-owned businesses. Southlake Mall in Merrillville, which opened in 1974, became a focus of a suburban shopping district for the entire Calumet Region. Malls, typically between 90 and 120 stores, required a large population of customers to support such a concentration of shops; they inevitably drew shoppers from nearby small towns as well as the host city.

A college education was brought within commuting distance of most of the population by the growth of regional campuses established by Indiana, Purdue and Indiana State universities. These grew out of extension centers which usually offered evening classes in a high school building. By the late 1960s, they had evolved into degree-granting colleges with their own campuses. Enrollment flourished too at the main campuses as the children of the baby-boom years reached college age. Most students sought an education along with the joy of living on their own, but some young men remained students for as long as possible in an effort to avoid the military draft. By the late 1960s, “student radicals” were demonstrating against American involvement in Vietnam and protesting against university rules and higher tuition. Although Indiana was spared most of the violence which disrupted colleges elsewhere, there were many tense confrontations, hundreds of arrests and considerable damage to buildings. Parents, legislators, and Hoosiers generally wondered how so many of the young could be so violent and so unpatriotic, but circumstances again changed quickly. By the late 1970s, students were as apathetic about politics as the buttoned-down students had been in the mid-1950s. To meet the need for non-academic programs in a wide variety of skilled trades the state established Indiana Vocational Technical College, familiarly known as Ivy Tech, with instruction offered at 20 or more locations.

The way Hoosiers live their daily lives has changed significantly over the past 25 years, but not in the drastic way that the Depression and then World War II altered the lives of their parents and grandparents. The women of today, including mothers of young children, are more likely to work outside the home. Equal rights for women exist in law if not always in practice, but women now work in professions and occupations from which they were largely excluded in 1960. Families are more likely to be spread out, with close relatives scattered across the United States. Young men and women are more likely than their
parents to go to college, and the women may well major in business or science where their mothers would have thought only of nursing or education. Civil rights laws and new attitudes of racial and economic justice have increased opportunities for those who would have been excluded by reason of skin color or lack of money a generation ago.

Together with most other Americans, the people of Indiana have become increasingly attached to their automobiles. Walking survives as a form of exercise but the modern Hoosier drives almost everywhere. High schools provide large parking lots for students and suburban stores can be approached safely only by automobile. Between 1960 and 1983 the human population of Indiana increased by 18 per cent while the number of motor vehicles jumped 90 per cent. Every man, woman and child in the state could be on the road at the same time and there would still be fewer than one and a half persons for each vehicle.

Despite the expenditure of billions of dollars of federal and state money, some of Indiana's roads are still inadequate for the traffic on them and proper maintenance is an endless and expensive problem. Except for the toll road across northern Indiana there were only scattered segments of controlled-access multi-land highways in 1960. The original plan for the interstate highway system was completed in Indiana by October, 1976, providing much of the state with safe and comfortable roads for long trips. Areas not served by the interstate system now generally have four-lane highways which bypass the many towns which formerly so frustrated drivers. Indianapolis remains the transportation hub for Indiana, just as it was in the days of the National Road and later in the era of the railroads. It is surrounded and crisscrossed by interstate highways, but traffic has grown more rapidly than engineers could imagine in 1960 and new roads become crowded almost as soon as they are opened. Only Evansville among Indiana's major cities lacks convenient modern highway access to the state's capital city, and the only remaining interstate project in the state is a spur to connect it with the nearby I-64.

Passenger trains were already in steep decline by 1960; today only four routes remain in long-distance service. While freight railroads continue to carry very heavy traffic within and across Indiana, many miles of track have been abandoned. Major airports at Indianapolis, Evansville, Fort Wayne, and South Bend offer jet service to cities throughout the nation; travelers elsewhere must either drive to the large airports or take smaller commuter planes. Water transportation of bulk commodities such as coal, iron ore, grain, sand and gravel remains as important as it ever was on Lake Michigan and the Ohio River. Hoosiers living more than a few miles from these waterways rarely appreciate the value of this traffic.
Hoosiers long enjoyed a reputation for taking their politics seriously, often in an old-fashioned manner. Especially in southern Indiana, politics was a leading form of entertainment, and voters participated because they enjoyed campaign oratory and election battles. Although general interest has declined along with the loss of party allegiance, Indiana politics in certain respects remains highly personal and many government jobs are still filled by political patronage. Indiana's license bureaus, known as a stronghold of political patronage, are undergoing slow change. Prior to the state takeover in 1987-88, officials of the governor's party controlled the sale of license plates, and both Republicans and Democrats share in the extra revenue from “vanity plates” spelling out a car owner's name or chosen slogan. Party organization remains important in Indiana: Hoosier Republicans are known throughout the nation for the sophistication of their computer-based communications and fund-raising techniques.

In Matthew Welsh, the voters in 1960 elected a governor who promised an active program of reform, but since Welsh’s incumbency the state's governors have been quite conservative, whether Republican or Democratic. Governor Welsh pushed for administrative reform in state government, increased highway construction and expansion of the state universities. In the early 1960s, Indiana began a long-delayed program of school consolidation which brought some hardship and much dispute. Thousands of small schools and hundreds of rural school districts gave way to larger and more efficient units. For many people this meant the loss of a beloved high school and its stirring basketball games, while for the young students it meant longer bus rides and vastly improved educational opportunities. State revenues were by no means adequate for these new programs; in 1963 a Democratic governor and a Republican-controlled legislature agreed after long arguments on a package of reformed personal and corporate income taxes and a new retail sales tax.

The early 1960s was also the period in which Indiana began to share in the nation's struggle for civil rights. Although racial segregation in Indiana schools had been illegal since 1949, many schools remained segregated because of neighborhood housing patterns (and some because of school board policies). Early in 1965, the General Assembly passed several measures concerning housing discrimination and school segregation, but the real arguments concerned local troubles, not state laws. Indiana did not escape entirely from the urban riots of the mid and late 1960s. The scene of greatest difficulty was in Gary, although South Bend and Indianapolis were also affected. The most prolonged school segregation case concerned the Indianapolis Public Schools, found by the federal courts to have maintained separate schools for
blacks and whites as a matter of deliberate policy and ordered to begin a large-scale busing program in 1973. The case was appealed on several occasions until the Supreme Court affirmed the busing order in 1980.

What about the future for Indiana? The old confident spirit of the industrial Midwest has been undermined by the decline of metal-working industries generally and the rise of persistent unemployment. Industry after industry has left Indiana for lower-cost operations in the southern and western states or even overseas, and many which tried to remain failed to withstand the competition and were forced to close. The deepest distress came during the winter of 1981-82, when unemployment in many cities exceeded 15 percent and reached a depression level rate of 21.3 percent in Anderson, a city dependent on automotive parts manufacturing. At the same time, several rural counties in southern Indiana suffered unemployment rates above 20 percent and in Ohio County the figure was 31.6 percent. Many clingers simply gave up the struggle at home and moved to Texas or California, seeking better employment opportunities and warmer winters.

Foreign competition had been unnoticed by Indiana business men in 1960, but 15 years later it became one of their most discussed problems. Japanese and Brazilian steel can be shipped to Chicago and sold for prices below the production costs at Gary. Indiana farmers drive pick-up trucks made in Japan, conscious that soybean exports play an important part in international trade. Governor Robert Orr toured Japan in 1987 to promote Indiana’s farm exports and to encourage Japanese companies to build plants in the state, and Hoosier voters considered this an important part of his duties as governor. Twenty-five years ago no one could have dreamed that a governor of Indiana would find it necessary to make an official visit to Japan. Whether they like it or not, the people of Indiana, like other Americans, find themselves in worldwide competition for jobs and markets.

**POINTS TO EMPHASIZE**

Indianapolis, the largest Indiana city, has the most diversified economy, but it was a troubled city in 1960. Old industries and old neighborhoods were in decline, retailers were leaving downtown and the growth areas were all in the suburbs outside the city limits. Racial tensions were nothing new, but they were becoming more acute. Many residents feared that Indianapolis, like so many other large American cities, would become black and poor at its center, surrounded by prosperous white suburbs.

Indianapolis
and Mayor
Richard Lugar

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A solution often suggested but rarely achieved among American cities is metropolitan consolidation—replacement of the confused overlapping of city, county, and town governments with a single efficient unit. The goal of a unified government for all of Marion County gained the support of local business leaders. The movement was led by Mayor Richard Lugar, a young Republican businessman who had managed to win election as mayor of a normally Democratic city in 1967. He argued forcefully that Indianapolis would flourish only if it could be combined with Marion County, including suburban towns and special districts such as volunteer fire departments.

The state legislature authorized the consolidation—promptly dubbed "Unigov"—in 1971 and Lugar was re-elected mayor by the voters of the combined city-county unit. Under his leadership and that of his chosen successor, Republican Mayor William Hudnut, Indianapolis has enjoyed a vast expansion of convention, hotel and athletic facilities downtown and in connection with the growing campus of Indiana University-Purdue University-Indianapolis (IUPUI). Around the interstate beltway (I-465) there is a suburban ring of offices, shopping malls and motor hotels, marking Indianapolis as one of the most successful Midwestern cities of the early 1980s.

Many of the problems facing Indiana's cities can be seen in their most acute form in Gary. The industrial Calumet Region has always been distinct from the rest of Indiana—more heavily industrialized, more urban, more crowded with European immigrants or blacks moving north. Gary, under the smoke and grime of its steel mills, for years meant high wages as well as dirt and crime. Movement of white steelworkers to the new suburbs south and east of Gary left the central city poorer and increasingly black. Corruption was nothing new in the region, but many people were startled when Gary's popular mayor, George Chacharis, was sentenced to prison in 1963 for income tax evasion. His departure opened the way for black politicians, most notably a young lawyer named Richard B. Hatcher.

Hatcher grew up in poverty in Michigan City, the youngest of 14 children, but managed to attend Indiana University with an athletic scholarship and additional help from his sisters and two black churches. After graduation he attended law school at Valparaiso University and settled in Gary. Elected to the city council in 1963, Hatcher fought for civil rights and against the pervasive corruption. In 1967, he won the Democratic nomination for mayor in a three-way contest and narrowly defeated the Republican candidate who normally would have received only a token vote.
The steel city continues to be troubled by poverty, decay, pollution and crime, but many residents still struggle for a better life in the traditional pattern of American immigrants. Where older whites see only decline, some black residents see improving conditions for themselves and hope for greater opportunities. Until being defeated in the 1987 primary election, Mayor Hatcher had been re-elected regularly every four years even though he had not solved many of the problems. Gary is a troubled city, but it is far from hopeless.

Indiana is known throughout the world of motor racing for the 500-Mile Race at Indianapolis, but for most of its residents the sport that really matters is high school basketball, “Hoosier Hysteria.” Consolidation of rural and small town schools has greatly reduced the number of competitors, yet adults as well as students consider basketball as one of the most important events in their lives.

Nowhere has the racial integration of Indiana schools been more successful than in athletics, for in football and basketball the measurement of achievement shows clearly on the scoreboard. At the college level Notre Dame has most frequently been a national power in football, while Indiana and Purdue compete in the famed Big Ten conference. In basketball all three teams compete vigorously for national rankings. Smaller colleges play with equal enthusiasm but for smaller audiences, and the Wabash-DePauw clash for the Monon Bell is one of the classic rivalries of American college football. Indianapolis, as part of its civic renewal under Unigov, has promoted itself as a national center for both amateur and professional athletics, fully equipped to play host to the Pan American Games in 1987. Although some critics say otherwise, most residents of Indianapolis seem to agree that a modern American city requires a professional football team and a domed stadium to symbolize its status as a member of the “big leagues.” Indianapolis now qualifies.

Indiana’s effort to preserve areas of exceptional natural beauty goes back to establishment of the first state parks in 1916. In recent years the greatest struggle has concerned preservation of the sand dunes along the shore of Lake Michigan between Gary and Michigan City. The dunes offered outdoor beauty and recreation to millions of potential visitors, but steel mills wanted space for further industrial development. For many years the effort to preserve the dunes was led by Chicagoans, most notably Senator Paul Douglas. Most Hoosiers were either hostile or indifferent, and many resented the intrusion of “do-gooders” from Illinois.

For 20 years the leader of the Save the Dunes Council was an extraordinary woman from the dune country itself Dorothy Richardson Buell. She was 65 years old when she joined the cause in 1949, but her...
organizational talent and stubborn persistence brought a great measure of success. She was unable to stop all development, but in 1966 Congress finally agreed to create the Indiana Dunes National Lakeshore and to preserve 6,000 acres of the finest remaining sand dunes, marshes and bogs for the enjoyment of generations to come. Elsewhere, the Nature Conservancy and other quiet but determined conservationists managed to save many smaller but ecologically significant areas, including the last remnants of native prairie grassland and uncut forest in the state. Although much remains to be done, Indiana has a fine record of preserving its surviving natural landscapes as well as endangered plants and animals. Most Hoosiers do not realize how much has been achieved during the past 25 years, but the evidence is safely preserved whenever they wish to look.

The symbolic death blow to Indiana’s proud record as an automobile manufacturer, once the rival of Michigan for leadership of the industry, came at South Bend in 1963. Studebaker was the oldest firm in the industry, having begun as a wagonmaker in 1852, and it was the largest employer in South Bend, with a payroll of more than 21,000 in the early 1950s. Studebaker struggled desperately to compete with the Big Three, and the compact Lark models of 1959 offered renewed hope of success. But soon competitors had their own compact cars and Studebaker lacked the money to design and build distinctive new models. Employment declined steadily, but there were still 8,000 people at work at the beginning of the 1964 model year. Sales were dismal, however, and the corporate management in New York decided to save the company’s other operations and abandon automobile production.

The shock of Studebaker’s closing was a terrible one for South Bend. There was a widespread (but mistaken) opinion that Studebaker was the only business in town. Many older workers were never able to find decent jobs again, and many others lost their hopes for a comfortable retirement. Nevertheless, the city survived and has prospered.

It seemed that Studebaker and South Bend were alone in their industrial troubles in 1963, but by the recession of 1981-1982 the harsh lessons of industrial competition struck factories and workers throughout Indiana. Industries which had existed comfortably for years without modernization and new investment found themselves outmoded and hopelessly behind rivals in the Sunbelt or abroad. From the giant steel mills of the Calumet to appliance factories in Evansville the message was the same: invest in new equipment, work harder, work smarter, or shut down the plant. The lesson was there to be learned from Studebaker, but few studied it in time to save themselves.
When Governor George Wallace of Alabama brought his appeal to racial prejudice to the North in 1964 he expected to find some of his strongest support in Indiana. Every poll of public opinion showed that many of the white voters resented the civil rights laws which had recently been passed by Congress, and Hoosier Democrats were deeply worried about his campaign in the state. Governor Matthew Welsh, who was constitutionally unable to run for re-election, led the effort to stop Wallace by filing as a candidate against him. Welsh had his own troubles because of the tax increases he had sponsored, but he campaigned with great energy in the name of decency and fairness.

Lake County in the Calumet Region was the area of Wallace's greatest strength, and he won there by a narrow margin. Welsh prevailed almost everywhere else and Wallace's national campaign received a devastating setback from the voters of Indiana. Despite their reputation among certain liberal groups in distant states, most Hoosiers were not prejudiced and they did not oppose civil rights for all Americans.

The Democratic presidential primary in Indiana attracted national attention in 1968. This time the issue was the bloody and unpopular war in Vietnam. Lyndon B. Johnson had already been forced to withdraw from the contest when Indiana voted in early May, but three candidates struggled for the right to take his place. Vice President Hubert Humphrey was Johnson's chosen favorite, while Senator Eugene McCarthy was the first who had dared oppose the President in a primary.

The newest candidate was Senator Robert F. Kennedy of New York, younger brother of the murdered President John F. Kennedy. Bobby Kennedy was a man who excited strong passions. Many people loved him and cheered him lustily, while others hated and feared him because he was against the war, because he was for civil rights, because he was so ruthless, or simply because he was a Kennedy. His finest moment came at the beginning of the campaign in Indianapolis on April 4, 1968. He broke the news to a large crowd that Martin Luther King had just been murdered in Memphis. Kennedy's eloquent appeal for quiet and justice, his reference to his own loss when his brother was murdered, helped to calm what otherwise might well have been a riot. More than a hundred cities were torn by riots that terrible night, but not Indianapolis. Kennedy campaigned for racial and economic justice. These were unpopular themes in Indiana, but he forced people to care and he won overwhelmingly. Bobby Kennedy's victory in an unlikely state such as Indiana might well have carried him to victory at the Democratic convention, but less than a month later he, too, fell victim to an assassin's bullet.
No one person could possibly represent the variety found among the five and a half million inhabitants of Indiana, but Dr. Otis Bowen may come close to being the typical, if mythical, Hoosier. He was born in rural Fulton County in 1918, graduated from a small high school and went on to attend the state university. After earning his M.D. degree at the Indiana University medical school in Indianapolis, he interned in South Bend and then joined millions of his fellow Americans serving in the Army during World War II. He came home in 1946 to open his practice as a family doctor in the small Marshall County town of Bremen. His home is still there 40 years later.

Dr. Bowen had no special interest in politics until his fellow physicians prodded him to run for county coroner in 1952. He was elected and discovered a talent and a love for politics which took him to the General Assembly in 1956, to the speakership of the House of Representatives for three terms and then to the office of governor. "Doc Bowen" had the calm and trustworthy manner of the traditional small town family doctor; he listened carefully to what people had to say, gave his advice quietly and never seemed to act like a politician. Party leaders did not understand him and kept him from the nomination in 1968, but the people of Indiana came to know and trust him and he was elected in 1972 by a majority of 300,000 votes over a strong opponent. Governor Bowen was quiet, honest, and efficient. He won new respect for the governor's office, struggled to work in harmony with an expansive and confused federal bureaucracy and in 1973 delivered on his chief campaign promise, a tax reform program which brought significantly lower property taxes at the cost of an increased sales tax. By 1976, a constitutional amendment was in effect that allowed a governor to seek re-election, and Otis Bowen was chosen overwhelmingly for another term.

No political leader in Indiana has ever been so widely admired and respected, and even Democrats who opposed his policies found it difficult to say a word against him personally. When his second term ended Dr. Bowen quietly returned to the practice and teaching of medicine, until called to cabinet status in Washington in 1985 to take over the troubled Department of Health and Human Services. As he was so accurately described by William J. Watt, who worked with the governor as his press secretary, Dr. Otis R. Bowen is "a polite man, utterly without pretense of deeply-held religious beliefs, the genuine article. He is the most Hoosier of Hoosiers."
Chapter 14: Indiana Today—Manufacturing, Agriculture, and Recreation
Dr. Edward E. Lyon, Professor, Department of Geography, Ball State University, Muncie

To the teacher: Manufacturing, agriculture, and tourism are important to the economy of Indiana. This chapter plus the material in Chapter 11 provides educational opportunity to discuss these.

Corollary to U.S. History
• Indiana a crossroad as the U.S. expanded from east to west
• Industrialization in the late 1800s
• Manufacturing and agricultural growth in Indiana

GENERAL COMMENTS

Much of Indiana’s population growth, agricultural expansion and industrial development certainly has been associated with, if not the result of, transportation development within the state and the Midwest. Indiana, today, is among the leading industrial and agricultural states. Its important economic position is in part the result of natural resource endowments and an energetic population. Equally important, moreover, has been the development of a complex transportation system which has made Indiana products and resources accessible to consuming markets within the region and country. Cities and regions grow and develop economically because they are accessible to raw materials and markets. When these conditions prevail, a region or city potentially is capable of carrying on trade and interacting with other regions. And, of course, an adequate and efficient transportation system is necessary for moving goods from one region to another. Indiana has this adequate and efficient transportation system.

The sequence of event in the development of this transportation system—from river and canal boats in southern Indiana, especially along the Ohio River, through the railroad era—brought with it the gradual settlement and successful economic development that moved
northward through the state. Today we reap the rewards of keeping up with the transportation needed to move people and goods, both intrastate and interstate.

The initial phase of transportation network development is characterized by the establishment of a number of small ports or trading centers along the main waterway. Each port or trading center serves a small area (the district inland from a coast or river). The second phase is characterized by the development of penetration lines or links to interior points. These penetration links tap resource areas in the interior, resulting in market expansion. In the third phase, additional links are added to the system, connecting smaller nodes or centers with larger ones. As this interconnection continues, there is a tendency toward specialization of economic activity in the areas and an expansion of markets for urban centers. The fourth and final phase is characterized by the development of high-priority linkages between the heaviest traffic and the most frequent common-carrier schedules. Transportation development in Indiana could be the model for this geographically sound concept of transportation development.

INDIANA'S AGRICULTURE

The countryside, arable for thousands of years, first was farmed by American Indians and then by successive waves of European settlers who produced few surpluses. Accessibility to growing markets and the training of agribusinessmen in more recent times, however, has made Indiana a modern agricultural giant.

Indiana agricultural growth and the development of different kinds of agricultural production within the state are due chiefly to a fortuitous combination of physical and economic factors. Production, of course, also has been affected by various government agencies, laws, regulations and subsidies. Finally, the type of production is heavily dependent upon the personal desires and ideas of individual Hoosier farmers. Years of trial and error, as well as more formal agricultural experimentation, have entered into the development of present agricultural programs in the state.

The major physical factors effecting agriculture include climate, soil, topography, and water conditions. Some agriculturally unfavorable areas exist in Indiana, particularly in the southern part of the state, and many improvements, such as drainage work, have been necessary in other areas. Most of Indiana, however, has generally level terrain, naturally fertile soils and favorable climate which have favored high agricultural production and encouraged the cultivation and growth of a variety of crops and animals.
About 75 percent of Indiana land is in farms, a percentage that continues to decrease as the demand for residential and commercial construction increases and more land is used for highway construction, additional reservoirs (and expansion of existing water bodies), parks and forest reserves. Good agricultural land also is being removed from production for other reasons:

- Hilly land to the south results in less percentage of farm land:

- Farm numbers have shown steady decline for many years with farm size increasing, especially in the better farming regions;

- Part-time farming has increased as more farmers seek non-farm employment. About one-half of the farms in Indiana are operated by individuals holding another job; and

- Tenant farming gradually has declined over the years but remains rather common in the richer, more fertile areas where investment in land and equipment is largest.

**INDIANA'S MANUFACTURING**

Manufacturing in Indiana began long before the state's reality. Early pioneers handcrafted many articles, including furniture, tools and utensils used in the home and on the farm. As population increased in the southern part of the state, small shops and mills were a natural outgrowth of the earlier pioneer cottage industries. By 1860, annual production of manufactured goods in the state totaled nearly $4.7 million and the state ranked tenth in the United States in value of manufactured goods. Although many items still were being made in the home, there already were more than 5,300 manufacturing establishments. Most establishments at this time were quite small, often with but three or four employees working side-by-side with the owner.

In 1900, the value of manufactured goods had risen to about $378 million and Indiana ranked eighth among the states in value of such goods. By this time the greatest growth was in central and northern Indiana. The four leading industries still were meat, flour and meal, lumber and liquor, but production of metal and glass items had become very important. At about the time of World War I, manufacturing surpassed agriculture as the leading occupation of Hoosiers, a position it still retains.

The leading manufactured products now are much less dependent upon local raw materials. The most important of Indiana-produced manufactured products, in rank order, are primary metal products, transportation equipment, electrical machinery, machinery (except electrical), and food and kindred products. Indiana today ranks about tenth in the
United States in number of manufacturing employees and ninth in value added by manufacturing. Although the rank has declined slightly, production and employment figures have remained approximately the same or have increased.

SOME RANKINGS NATIONALLY:

FIRST — Indiana was first in wood kitchen cabinets, vanities and other cabinet work, cut limestone, asbestos friction materials, raw steel, copper and steel rods, bars and shapes, magnet wire, roller bearings, fractional horsepower electric motors, radio and TV receivers, engine electrical equipment, travel trailers and campers, musical instruments and burial caskets.

SECOND — Indiana was second in sweetening syrups, window shades and accessories, book printing, molded and extruded lathe-cut rubber mechanical products, packing and sealing devices, cold rolled steel sheet and strip, wire rope, cable and strand, plumbing fittings and brass goods, non-electric heating equipment, plumbing and heating, household refrigerators and freezers, telephone apparatus, bus and other vehicle bodies, motor homes, military tank components and whiskey.

THIRD — Indiana was third in wet corn milling, mobile homes, wood living room furniture, respirator pharmaceuticals, motor vehicle hardware, parts for internal combustion engines, storage batteries, motor vehicle parts, aircraft and engine parts, heavy truck trailers and outboard boats.

FOURTH & FIFTH — Indiana was fourth and fifth in producing wood office furniture, pharmaceuticals, human vitamins and nutrients, gypsum products, metal fencing and gates, automotive stampings, communications equipment and surgical appliances.

Manufacturing is the largest non-agricultural employer, with more than 1/4 of all Indiana workers. In 1985, there were 621,000 manufacturing workers in the state. The average manufacturing employee in the state earned $449.92/week, including bonuses and overtime pay — ranging from $213 to $616/week.

In 1985, 40% of the manufacturing force was in three industry groups:

— Primary metals (steel mills, foundries, etc.)
— Electrical machinery (communications equipment, electronics components, etc.)
— Transportation equipment (parts for autos, aircraft, recreational vehicles)

These three also were the top three in 1977.
OTHER DATA:

While Indiana is 38th in size in U.S.:

— it ranks 9th in agricultural sales.
— it is 9th in industrial output.
— the 5.5 million population produces $4.3 billion farm products and $63.4 billion in manufactured goods per year.
— it ranks 9th in exports of manufactured goods.
— it is 9th in agricultural products.

— In 1980, Value Added by Manufacturing (the value of finished products less the cost of raw materials and supplies needed for their production) was $26.9 billion — Finished goods shipments were $63.4 billion.

INDIANA
MANUFACTURING STATISTICS FOR COUNTIES: 1982


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTY</th>
<th>EMPLOYEES</th>
<th>PAYROLL</th>
<th>VALUE ADDED BY MANUFACTURING</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thousands</td>
<td>Millions</td>
<td>Millions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marion</td>
<td>95.2</td>
<td>2,279 0</td>
<td>4,460.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lake</td>
<td>63 8</td>
<td>1,726 8</td>
<td>2,547.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Allen</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>781.1</td>
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<td>34.6</td>
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<td>511.8</td>
<td>991 3</td>
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<td>16.8</td>
<td>430.7</td>
<td>845 9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vanderburghi</td>
<td>22 5</td>
<td>461.1</td>
<td>1,104 1</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>LaPorte</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>244 5</td>
<td>594 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bartholomew</td>
<td>14 6</td>
<td>379 0</td>
<td>510 2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10 4</td>
<td>245 6</td>
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<td>177 8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Porter</td>
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<td>332 2</td>
<td>691 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tippecanoe</td>
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<td>137 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Clark</td>
<td>6 6</td>
<td>131 4</td>
<td>511 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kosciusko</td>
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<td>522 3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Henry</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Noble</td>
<td>5 2</td>
<td>78 5</td>
<td>198 3</td>
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</table>

Figure 1. Value Added
Because of the uncertainties of supply and demand in the 1980s, inflation, strikes, and other economic vagaries, there are many employment problems—especially in the steel and automobile manufacturing areas (including subsidiary industries). Thus figures quoted from time to time may not always be up-to-date.

With these limitations in mind, the following tables and charts can be used to make comparisons of the state's various manufacturing industries. These are reproduced as representative of the type of materials available about Indiana manufacturing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTY</th>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>ESTABLISHMENTS</th>
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<td>Wayne</td>
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<td>Noble</td>
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<td>Hamilton</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marshall</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cass</td>
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Figure 2. Manufacturing rankings
### Indiana County Business Patterns, 1984 (through 12 March 84)

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<tr>
<th>MARION COUNTY</th>
<th>ELKHART CO</th>
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<td>MANUFACTURING = 91,479</td>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 46,676</td>
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<tr>
<td>Foods and Kindred Products = 6,020</td>
<td>Food and Kindred Products = 1,337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apparel and Other Textiles = 311</td>
<td>Apparel &amp; other Textiles = 1,003</td>
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<td>Lumber &amp; Wood Products = 575</td>
<td>Lumber &amp; Wood Products = 4,087</td>
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<tr>
<td>Furniture &amp; Fixtures = 2,219</td>
<td>Furniture &amp; Fixtures = 3,179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper &amp; Allied Products = 2,631</td>
<td>Rubber &amp; Misc Plastics = 2,976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing &amp; Publishing = 8,507</td>
<td>Stone, Clay &amp; Glass Prod = 1,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum &amp; Coal Products = 398</td>
<td>Fabricated Metals Products = 5,049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber &amp; MISC Plastics = 1,462</td>
<td>Machinery, exc Electrical = 1,722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather &amp; Leather Products = 20-99</td>
<td>Elect. &amp; Electronic Equip = 1,659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stone &amp; Clay Products = 500-999</td>
<td>Transportation Equipment = 13,451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Metals Industries = 3,361</td>
<td>Misc Manf Industries = 1,272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabricated Metals Products = 7,376</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery, excl Electrical = 11,430</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elec. &amp; Electronic Equip = 8,172</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Transportation Equipment = 21,018</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruments and Contr. Dev. = 2,768</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumber &amp; Wood Products = 4,067</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misc Manf Industries = 694</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LAKE CO</th>
<th>VANDERBURGH CO.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 56,499</td>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 80,918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods and Kindred Products = 1,396</td>
<td>Food and Kindred Products = 3,447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apparel &amp; Other Textiles = 1,081</td>
<td>Furniture &amp; Fixtures = 1,463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing &amp; Publishing = 1,307</td>
<td>Printing &amp; Publishing = 1,677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals &amp; Allied Ind = 1,662</td>
<td>Chemicals &amp; Allied Products = 2,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Metals Products = 36,944</td>
<td>Fabricated Metals Products = 1,661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery, exc Electrical = 3,049</td>
<td>Machinery, excl Electrical = 1,277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabricated Metals Prod = 1,439</td>
<td>Elect/Electron Eq = 5,000-9,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation Equipment = 2,601</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALLEN CO</th>
<th>TIPPECANOE CO.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 35,208</td>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 18,868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods and Kindred Products = 2,194</td>
<td>Foods and Kindred Products = 1,712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing &amp; Publishing = 1,450</td>
<td>Machinery, excl Electrical = 1,563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber &amp; Misc Plastics = 3,057</td>
<td>Elect &amp; Electronics Equip = 8,19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Metals Products = 2,457</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabricated Metals Products = 2,055</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery, excl Electrical = 4,930</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elect &amp; Electronic Equip = 9,762</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Transportation Equipment = 3,997</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST. JOSEPH CO</th>
<th>VIGO CO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 24,053</td>
<td>MANUFACTURING = 8,718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing &amp; Publishing = 1,588</td>
<td>Food and Kindred Products = 1,015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber &amp; Misc Plastics = 4,102</td>
<td>Paper &amp; Allied Products = 1,202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabricated Metals Prod = 2,098</td>
<td>Chemicals &amp; Allied Products = 1,382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Machinery, excl Electrical = 3,711</td>
<td>Machinery, excl Electrical = 1,187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elect &amp; Electronics Equip = 1,827</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3: County business patterns**
## Table: Indiana County Business Patterns, 1984 (Cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County</th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Manufacturing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HOWARD CO.</td>
<td>35,220</td>
<td>19,857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BARTHOLOMEW CO.</td>
<td>27,201</td>
<td>15,588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING</td>
<td></td>
<td>all areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laporte CO.</td>
<td>30,534</td>
<td>11,916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grant CO.</td>
<td>26,358</td>
<td>12,182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING</td>
<td></td>
<td>all areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Porter CO.</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>11,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wayne CO.</td>
<td>23,543</td>
<td>9,074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING</td>
<td></td>
<td>all areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monroe CO.</td>
<td>29,227</td>
<td>8,859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MANUFACTURING</td>
<td></td>
<td>all areas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table: Indiana Manufacturing Employment — 1985 Average

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Metals</td>
<td>80,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Machinery</td>
<td>91,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation Equipment</td>
<td>83,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Electrical Machinery</td>
<td>65,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fabricated Metals</td>
<td>54,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Processing</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rubber and Plastics</td>
<td>39,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals and Drugs</td>
<td>29,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing and Publishing</td>
<td>31,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stone, Clay and Glass</td>
<td>18,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>20,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumber and Wood Products</td>
<td>19,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruments</td>
<td>12,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper Products</td>
<td>12,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apparel and Textiles</td>
<td>10,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum Refining</td>
<td>4,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2,300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure 3 (Cont.)

SOME SPECIFIC AREAS OF MANUFACTURING PRODUCTION

The following manufacturing descriptions arbitrarily have been restricted to counties having 5,000 or more manufacturing employees. Although these counties contain by far the greatest portion of the state’s manufacturing, every county in Indiana has some manufacturing and although the amount may be very small, it is large enough for its products to be well known. Tell City chairs, Bedford limestone products, Berne furniture, aluminum from Warrick County, and Scott County canned vegetables are several examples of widely-known manufacturers.

Marion County (Indianapolis): The most significant manufacturing area in the state. Manufacturing employment in excess of 100,000. Very diverse products including transportation equipment, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, electric and electronic equipment.

Lake County (Gary, Hammond, East Chicago): The second most significant manufacturing county in the state. Manufacturing employment is in the 100,000 range. Manufacturing production includes the primary metals, petroleum refining, and chemicals—particularly soaps and detergents.

Allen County (Ft. Wayne): The state’s third largest manufacturing center. Important production of electrical machinery and transportation equipment, especially trucks and four-wheel drive vehicles, and truck trailers. Aerospace, military and naval electronic devices and systems, power hoists and cranes, wire, tool and die, and foods and beverages also are important.

Elkhart County (Elkhart, Goshen): The major Indiana center for the manufacture of modular homes, motor homes, travel trailers, mobile homes, and other recreational vehicles including boats. Probably no other city in the United States has a greater concentration of this kind of manufacturing. Also important is the manufacture of components for these trailers, homes and boats as well as manufacture of musical instruments, pharmaceuticals, and machine tools.

St. Joseph County (South Bend, Mishawaka): Important products include trucks, buses and other vehicles, aerospace missiles, missile systems, wheels, brakes and landing gear, electric products, lawn and garden equipment, and abrasives.

Madison County (Anderson, Elwood, Alexandria): Manufacturing here emphasizes production of motor vehicle parts, particularly generators, distributors, coils, horns, and headlamps. Also important are printing and publishing, manufacture of glass-making machinery, files, fire trucks, containers, mattresses, food products, insulation materials, and jet engine equipment.
**Vanderburgh County (Evansville):** Evansville is best known for the production of household electrical appliances, especially refrigerators and air conditioners. Other manufactures are varied and include pharmaceuticals, health foods, farm and garden machinery, foods and beverages, construction machinery, and furniture.

**Howard County (Kokomo):** One of the earliest manufacturers of automobile parts in the U.S., Kokomo still makes motor vehicle equipment and accessories, especially transmissions, radio and tape players. Until recently, the town has been a major producer of steel and steel products, including wire, nails, fencing, and barbed wire. Other products include agricultural machinery, metal alloy products, and food. Printing and publishing also are important.

**LaPorte County (LaPorte, Michigan City):** One of the few important manufacturing counties which contains two separate industrial centers. Michigan City produces adhesive tape, curled hair products, men's and ladies' clothing, plumbing supplies, seat belts, air compressors, windshield wipers, boilers, kitchen utensils, and other products. LaPorte production includes farm machinery, clothing, meat scales and slicing equipment, and gear motors and reducers.

**Bartholomew County (Columbus):** This area is known world-wide for the production of diesel engines used in stationary power plants and in trucks and tractors. Other manufactured products are auto parts, housewares, electrical appliances, castings, furniture and bathroom equipment, and gear motors and reducers.

**Delaware County (Muncie):** The most important of the diverse manufactured products in Delaware County are electrical transformers, automobile transmissions and batteries, zinc jar lids, foods, fabricated steel products, tool and die, components for turbine engines, and medical equipment.

**Grant County (Marion):** The best known products of Grant County are automobile bodies and parts, TV picture tubes, plumbing items, insulated wire and cable, outdoor Christmas decorations and other plastics, propeller shafts, and universal joints.

**Vigo County (Terre Haute):** Major manufactured products here include aluminum products, phonograph records and tapes, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, containers, plastics, castings, foods, and steel buildings.

**Wayne County (Richmond):** Wayne County claims to be the school bus manufacturing capital of the world and to make the world's finest coverlets and bedspreads. Other manufactures include automobile engines and other parts, mineral wool, cabinets, machine tools, electric wire and cable, and power mowing equipment. Although technically an agricultural industry, some 20 million roses are raised and sold annually in Richmond.
Porter County (Valparaiso, Portage): This area is important in the production of steel and steel products. The nation's largest and most modern steel mills have been erected here. Electrical and metal products also are important to the economy of Porter County.

Tippecanoe County (Lafayette, West Lafayette): Production includes aluminum extrusions and tubing, microelectronic equipment, electric meters, antibiotics and animal health feeds, prefabricated homes, safes, auto and farm machinery components, and recreational materials.

Monroe County (Bloomington): Once known mainly for Indiana University and limestone production, Monroe County since World War II has had a rapid growth in manufacturing. Major products are refrigerators, elevators and escalators, television receivers and components, electrical equipment, foods, and limestone products.

INDIANA'S RECREATION

Since World War II, Indiana citizens have increasingly been participating in outdoor recreation activities. This trend is related to increased amounts of leisure time, greater amounts of disposable income, better transportation facilities to reach outdoor recreation areas and increasing population in Indiana.

Hoosiers, like other, seek to recreate and refresh themselves physically, psychologically, spiritually and mentally, needing revitalization from their working time. Outdoor recreation has provided for much of that renewal through camping, fishing, hunting, skiing, boating, swimming, and related activities.

Outdoor recreation facilities owned by the state are operated and managed by the Indiana Department of Natural Resources. Origins of the Department are traced back to 1837 when David Dale Owen, of New Harmony, was appointed state geologist. A state park system was created with McCormick's Creek and Turkey Run becoming the first and second state parks, respectively, in 1916. Expansion continued until, today, the Department administers outdoor recreation facilities in state parks, recreation areas, reservoirs, state forests, historic sites, and fish and wildlife areas. The U.S. Forest Service controls recreational facilities in the Hoosier National Forest and the U.S. Park Service at the Lincoln Boyhood National Memorial, George Rogers Clark National Memorial and the Dunes National Seashore. Hoosiers also have access to outdoor recreation opportunities on privately-owned land such as camps, picnic grounds, resorts, boat clubs, ski areas, shooting preserves, vacation farms, and riding stables.
There are about 767,000 acres of recreational land and water in Indiana. This represents approximately 3.3 percent of the total area in the state. (Three of the four adjacent states—Michigan, Ohio and Kentucky—have a higher percentage of total acreage dedicated to park and recreation purposes.) Outdoor recreation facilities in Indiana are distributed throughout the state.
Chapter 15: Indiana Government
Carl W. Henn, Jr., Director of Communications, Indiana State Chamber of Commerce, Indianapolis

To the teacher: This chapter can be used with a variety of chapters in U.S. History or U.S. Government classes. It discusses the origins of state government as well as its structure.

This chapter may be used in conjunction with the more detailed materials about Indiana Government found in Here Is Yo' Indiana Government available from the Indiana Chamber of Commerce.

ABE MARTIN: Now an' then an innocent man is sent t' legislature. — Kin Hubbard

GENERAL COMMENTS

''We live under republican institutions, where the whole power of the government is in the hands of the people, and where every act of sovereignty is but an emanation of the public will'' — James Hall

Moderation in state government a keystone

Today, more than 150 years after Editor James Hall published that statement in Western Monthly magazine, its truth remains constant in Indiana. Hoosiers hold strongly the reins of self-government, and this allows them to enjoy the fruits of moderation... the benefits of not being over-taxed or over-regulated.

The legislative branch of Indiana government has shown restraint in the creation of new laws, and it has kept its annual sessions short. The part-time members of our citizen legislature must earn their living under the laws they make, so they make relatively few.

Indian people are quick to join in voluntary action to meet a need or solve a problem. Civic groups and business organizations, such as chambers of commerce, make use of this trait as a form of self-help. They appoint committees that work to meet both their own needs and the needs of the whole community. Alexis de Tocqueville in his book Democracy in America (1835) made much of the willingness of

Volunteer spirit is strong Hoosier tradition
common folk in this country to join together for action of mutual benefit. It might be said that their willingness to do this helped them create a nation. This characteristic is, of course, not unique to Indiana. However, its benefits are very apparent in this state, and they may well contribute to the efficiency of our Hoosier government at all levels.

During the first 35 years of its existence as a state, Indiana had as its constitution a brief document that was very democratic for its age. Its authors had borrowed heavily from the constitutions and practices of neighbors Kentucky and Ohio, as well as from the federal constitution. They agreed with the Jeffersonian philosophy that that government is best which governs least; in consequence, they adopted a constitution having a simple structure.

The state's first constitution created the offices of governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, plus senators and representatives—who together made up a bicameral legislature, called the General Assembly—and Supreme Court and Circuit Court judges. (All of these offices are retained today.) Only the governor, lieutenant governor, senators and representatives were elected by the voters. The General Assembly appointed all other officers, including United States senators (until 1913), except for the justices of the Supreme Court, who were appointed by the governor. The legislature met annually; there was no limit on the length of its sessions.

The governor's powers were limited, and he had only a suspensive veto over acts of the General Assembly. That body was the most powerful branch of the new government. It had few express limitations, it was allowed a preponderant role in the naming of persons to key judicial and executive posts, and it possessed the power to round out the structure and determine the provisions of local government. The state's secretary, treasurer and auditor were independent of the chief executive but largely responsible to the legislators which selected them.

The document prohibited slavery (in accordance with the Northwest Ordinance of 1787) and made it the duty of the state to establish a free public school system, including a "state university." It required holding periodic referendums on the question of calling a convention to draw up a new constitution.

The first state elections were held on August 5, 1816. Jonathan Jennings, of Charlestown, then only 32 years old, was elected governor at an annual salary of $1,000. He had been put before the voters with help from only a few of his fellow Jeffersonian Republicans, because there was no system in existence to determine who could run. There
were no caucuses, no primaries, no conventions to choose party candidates. Those who wished to contend for office merely made formal announcement of their candidacies and proceeded to campaign for election.

The situation underwent a gradual evolution. Caucuses made their appearance first and then, around 1832, the convention system began to be adopted. Party conventions have survived on the national and state levels. Around the turn of the century the primary election made its appearance as a means of choosing those who would run for local offices, and a statewide primary law was enacted in 1915.

Because of the national push westward, Indiana’s population grew rapidly, almost explosively, in the early days. But in 1820, there were still fewer than 150,000 settlers—mostly farmers, with a smattering of artisans and tradesmen who were concentrated in the southern part of the state. Few of them had hard cash in any quantity or reliable sources of income. Most could not afford to pay much in taxes. There were many rugged individualists and some of these resented any call for taxation.

The obtaining of tax revenue was a central problem of both state and local governments. Land purchased from the federal government—which is how most pioneer property ownership was established—was exempt from taxation for the first five years, and this added to the difficulty of raising revenue. In the first decade of statehood, Indiana’s annual revenues and expenditures averaged only about $25,000, derived almost entirely from property taxes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples of typical tax rates from the early 1800s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tax Rates</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.00-25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Constitution of 1816 created the county offices of sheriff, coroner, clerk of the Circuit Court (county clerk), and recorder, and created the township office of justice of the peace. (All of these are retained today except for justice of the peace.) Each of these county offices was elective.
The constitution further stated that “all town and township officers shall be appointed in such manner as directed by law.” This conferred the authority which the General Assembly exercised to set up further organization of local government.

There was little semblance of “home rule.” Towns and cities received an individual charter (or organization) from the General Assembly. Many towns actually existed for a number of years before receiving their charters. Rates of development varied widely; some trading posts and business centers that flourished in the era of flatboats and canals lost importance with the development of roads and railroads.

The constitution allowed the General Assembly to create new counties, in addition to the 15 existing when statehood was achieved, and this included the power of altering county boundaries. The governing body for the county was a board made up of the justices of the peace until 1832, when it was replaced by a board of commissioners, consisting of three county commissioners serving staggered terms. The county clerk was the clerk of the board; the sheriff, as the administrative officer, was the most important single official in the county.

The constitutional convention had included a mandate that Corydon was to remain the seat of state government until 1825 and until removed by law. The New Purchase Treaty of 1818 cleared the way for relocation of the capital. Two years later a committee appointed to seek a suitable location proposed the site of what now is the capital city near the geographical center of the state. The site was almost unbroken wilderness, but it had the advantage of occupying an area through which the east-west National Road (later U.S. 40) was expected to pass when it reached Indiana.

The General Assembly early in 1821 approved the location, appointed a commission to lay off the actual site of the capital, provided for the sale of lots (which began promptly in October of that year) and gave the new city a name. The announcement that the new state capital “shall be called and known by the name of Indianapolis” was received with derision by a newspaper in Vincennes. It said:

“One of the most ludicrous acts of the sojourners at Corydon, was their naming of a new seat of government. Such a name, kind readers, you would never find by searching from Dan to Beersheba; nor in all the libraries, museums, and patent-offices in the world. It is like nothing in heaven nor on earth, nor in the waters under the earth. It is not a name for a man, woman or child; for empire, city, mountain or morass; for bird, beast, fish, nor creeping thing; and nothing mortal or immortal could have thought of it, except the wise men of the East who were congregated at Corydon.”
The move was made following the approval early in 1824 by Governor William Hendricks of a law establishing Indianapolis as the new capital, effective on the second Monday of January, 1825. This occasioned a delay in the next legislative session so it could be convened on the chosen date at the new courthouse in Marion County. State Treasurer Samuel Merrill loaded the property of the state into one wagon and his family into another: a third held the possessions and family of the state auditor. The caravan took 10 days to cover the 125 miles, such was the state of the roads. At that time, the population of Indianapolis was just over 1,000.

By 1780, all of the original 13 states had adopted written constitutions. The federal constitution, which was written in 1787, has been in effect longer than any similar document in human history. Each of the new commonwealths that came into existence subsequently adopted a constitution. All this has afforded the people of the United States an uncommon attachment to such documents as constitutions, and Hoosiers are no exception.

Article VII of the Indiana constitution adopted in 1816 had stipulated that a poll be held every twelfth year for the qualified electors to express whether they were in favor of calling a convention which "shall have it in their power to revise, amend, or change the . . . constitution." No great demand for a new constitution was visible until the fourth such poll was taken, in 1846, when those who favored a new document were found to be in the majority. This was likely the result of calls for numerous reforms in the 1816 document coupled with a trend toward political democracy. The constitution that it produced, therefore, was a product less of the liberal Jeffersonian spirit of 1816 and more of the Jacksonian democracy that sought to bring the government close to the people, to limit tenure, to extend to more offices the benefits of popular election (as contrasted to election by legislators) and to write restrictive details into the basic charter.

Prior to and during the debate on a new constitution, many complaints were directed against operation of the General Assembly. It was deemed to meet too often and the meetings ran too long; it passed too much special and local legislation; it granted divorces; to add to its other shortcomings, it was blamed for the debt, corruption, and inefficiency which had accrued from the state’s disastrous internal improvements program of 1836. (That canal-railroad-turnpike program, having collapsed in a welter of unpayable state debts after the Panic of 1837, was responsible for the ensuing constitutional prohibition against state debt.)
The complaints bore fruit. The new constitution called for biennial (every other year) legislative sessions lasting only 61 calendar days. It restricted the ability to enact local and special legislation, but made the amendment process easier by abolishing the requirement for a special convention. State officials such as the secretary, treasurer and auditor were to be elected by the people, rather than by the legislature. The granting of divorces was restricted to the courts. The old constitution limited the vote to white males; the new document gave that right to every adult male except for Negros and mulattoes. The education law, banking and corporation laws and the length of some office terms underwent changes.

Not everyone was happy with the new document. Many critics were convinced that the authors had emerged with a product that was more complicated and less effective than the Constitution of 1816, even though obvious problems had been addressed. Historians John D. Barnhart and Donald F. Carmony, in their two volume history on Indiana, Indiana: From Frontier to Industrial Commonwealth (1954), cite pre-convention advice (not followed) that the constitution be a document of principles rather than one of restrictive details. And they quote Logan Esarey’s subsequent evaluation:

“Taken as a whole, it is not a great constitution. It suffers in comparison with the one it displaced. Its departures from that instrument in most cases are of very doubtful value. Its justification rests on the substitution of biennial for annual assemblies and abolishment of private and local legislation. On the other hand its critics rightly insist that the judiciary was weakened and a vast field opened for sinister partisan politics.”

Ensuing amendments have been made to correct obvious wrongs, such as racial bias, and to allow government more latitude, such as restoring annual sessions of the General Assembly. In its current form, the Indiana constitution is short and simpler than that of most other states.

Whatever its faults in 1851, the new constitution spurred other changes. A year after its adoption, a tax-supported public school system was created. Authors of the new school law were Robert Dale Owen of New Harmony and John I. Morrison of Bloomington. Caleb Mills, a professor at Wabash College, helped marshal favorable public opinion for tax-supported schools; Mills later became state superintendent of public instruction. The outbreak of the Civil War in 1861 delayed the development of the school system, however, because resources were devoted mostly to the war effort.
Higher education made progress. It had taken root in 1825 with the opening at Bloomington of Indiana Seminary, later to become Indiana University. Indiana in 1855 became the second state to have a coeducational college with the admission of women by Northwestern Christian College, later to become Butler University. Women had won the right to make wills in the 1840s, a progressive measure that ranked with the opening of the state’s first mental institution (Central State Hospital at Indianapolis) and creation of special schools for blind children and deaf children.

Industry’s use of machinery had grown sharply during the Civil War, and farming was made more efficient by introduction of the reaper, binder and mower. When hostilities ended, industry was armed with new techniques and was prepared to manufacture many new articles for America. Mechanization of farming was reducing the need for farm workers, causing a rapid increase in movement to the cities. Such developments, along with new ideas on social responsibility, contributed to the growth and complexity of state government.

Some of the government offices created in this period were mine inspector (1879), oil inspector (1881) and factory inspector (1879). Making their appearances were the State Board of Charities (1889), whose functions are now carried on by the Department of Public Welfare, and the Labor Commission (1899), Board of Pharmacy and Board of Embalmers (1901) and Board of Nurses Registration (1905).

Two other significant trends in legislation during this period following the Civil War were the conservation movement and the establishment of government agencies to improve the Hoosier way of life. Indiana was a decade ahead of the federal government in 1881 when the General Assembly created the offices of commissioner of fisheries and state geologist. Indiana created the State Board of Health (1881), the Library Board and the Park Commission (1895) and the Board of Forestry (1901). However, there were no state parks created until 1916.

A constitutional amendment that restricted the debts of local units of government to 2 percent of assessed valuation was adopted in 1881. As a result of vote buying scandals, use of the standardized paper ballot-tally sheet was introduced into Indiana elections in 1889 to protect secrecy in voting. A general revision of the state’s system of taxation was enacted in 1891 after an aroused public called for reform. The State Board of Tax Commissioners was created and the “Indiana Plan” of setting local tax rates and making appropriations was inaugurated to promote equalization of property taxation. The first compulsory education law, requiring attendance at school for children of ages 6 to 14, was enacted in 1897.
As Indiana prepared to celebrate its first hundred years of statehood (the Centennial Commission eventually became the Indiana Historical Bureau), Hoosiers vociferously expressed their interest in politics. A new constitution was drafted in 1909-11 but it was invalidated by the Indiana Supreme Court. The General Assembly then adopted 22 amendments to the 1851 constitution (called the Stotsenburg Amendments, after their sponsor) in 1913, but they failed to be readopted in the 1915 session and the movement died.

A governor's investigation of alleged embezzlement on the part of state officials resulted in the formation in 1909 of the State Board of Accounts. The board has since audited the records of state government and all local governments.

The state entered further into the regulation of business through creation in 1913 of the Public Service Commission for the regulation of rates and services of all public utilities, supplanting the Railroad Commission. The Workmen's Compensation Act, to provide compulsory compensation for employees injured on the job, was passed in 1915. In 1917 came the State Highway Commission. In 1919, the various agencies dealing with natural resources were consolidated into the State Conservation Department, which in 1965 became the Department of Natural Resources.

World War I brought a war boom which lasted until the advent of a recession in 1921. Following this period, the intensification of mass production methods and other technical advances resulted in a growing level of prosperity. Indiana, whose location as the "Crossroads of America" had given rise to a network of railroads, and whose northwestern corner by now supported a great steel industry and the world's largest oil refinery at Whiting, was the natural choice of factory locations to supply an insatiable demand for automobile parts and other metal products. More state agencies were created: Board of Agriculture and Budget Department in 1921; Deep Water Way Commission in 1923; Board of Podiatry Examiners in 1925; Architects Registration Board and State Library Building Commission in 1929.

Motorists were demanding better roads. In 1923, the General Assembly enacted the first gasoline tax of 2 cents per gallon. (Yield during fiscal 1924-25 was $6,792,532). Many county roads were incorporated into a state highway system and many of the present state highways were constructed. Automobile theft had become a problem which in 1921 brought enactment of an auto registration law, to be enforced by a newly created state police system at first run by the secretary of state. In 1925, the State Police were given authority to enforce traffic regulations and in that year arrested 2,265 motorists for exceeding the speed limit of 35 miles per hour.
Until 1933, the executive branch of Indiana state government could have been described as a board and commission type; that is, the governor appointed a (usually) bipartisan board in which was vested the authority to operate a department (such as conservation) or commission. But the Great Depression had plunged the economy into the depths, Republican leaders had been replaced by activists, Democrats both nationally and in Indiana, and the time was at hand for widespread governmental changes to meet new demands and cope with changes in the social fabric.

At the urging of Governor Paul V. McNutt, the General Assembly in 1933 enacted a state government reorganization plan of major proportions. All state agencies were grouped into eight departments (nine in 1936). The result was a strengthening of the governor's office as McNutt attempted to operate government more efficiently and economically.

Three new tax laws were enacted, largely because the depression conditions had made it impossible for state and local governments and schools to get sufficient funds from the property tax. A state gross income tax was levied which from 1933 to 1963 provided the principle source of state tax revenue. Another levy adopted was an intangibles tax on certain stocks, bonds and notes. And with the end of Prohibition at hand, the state enacted gallonage taxes and license fees on the manufacture and sale of alcoholic beverages.

Accompanying the new taxes, and made possible by them, was a vastly expanded program of state aid to public schools. Since 1905, the state had levied a property tax for general distribution to schools and for special help to needy schools. In 1933, the need became so widespread that the state began distributing general funds to all local schools for operating purposes.

The national defense effort of the early 1940s vitally affected Indiana because of its inland location and industrial resources. Thousands of new workers and their families came into the state to work in factories producing goods for use during World War II. That half-decade completed the elevation of Indiana to the front ranks of industrial states, but it caused the suspension of efforts to expand state institutions and to make needed highway improvements. Thus, following the war Hoosiers faced the need to overcome the effects of postponed action as well as to meet the challenges of the 1950s and 1960s.

To meet federal requirements when Social Security was introduced in the 1930s, the state had enacted a merit system of employment in the Welfare Department and the Employment Security Division. In 1941, the merit system had been broadened to include some other state...
departments. The Public Employees' Retirement Fund was established in 1945 to help attract and retain qualified state employees. Another important development was creation in 1947 of the Indiana Department of Revenue to consolidate the administration of major tax laws.

The 1950s saw the creation of the Department of Correction, the Toll Road Commission, and a milestone plan for local communities to survey their public schools in order to reorganize them into more efficient units. Construction of a 13-story state office building in Indianapolis was completed in 1961. The entry of a new decade then touched off another round of governmental action.

A new governor, Matthew E. Welsh, got from the 1961 legislature the creation of a Department of Agriculture, a Department of Administration and an Indiana Port Commission. In 1963, he gained the first major change in state tax structure in 30 years. A marathon session that ran 101 days (including a 4f-day special session) met the problems of deficit budgets and growing demand for services by enacting a 2 percent sales tax and a 2 percent adjusted gross income tax on individuals and on corporations. In 1965, the legislature expanded state support for public schools and the state universities, and enacted an economic growth measure by allowing cities and towns to issue revenue bonds to construct industrial facilities for lease or sale.

The major issue in 1967 was property tax relief, largely because of school costs. More state money was the answer—a return to counties of 8 percent of adjusted gross income tax and sales tax collected therein. Another innovation was the enactment of a law (replaced some years later) mandating annual inspection of motor vehicles. Indiana Vocational Technical College, which had been established in 1963, was given additional funds to expand post-high school training.

In the 1970s, the state met demands for limiting property taxes by placing them under strict controls while doubling the sales tax, increasing business and individual income taxes and introducing optional local taxes. An Environmental Management Board was created and the General Assembly reduced to 18 the age of adulthood for most activities except use of alcoholic beverages. The General Assembly recognized and regulated collective bargaining for school teachers and most other public employee but did not allow bargaining by police and fire personnel. In addition, a two term limit was placed on the office of governor.

New strains were placed on government by the recession ushering in the 1980s. Declining revenue pinched the general fund. Governor Robert Orr and Lieutenant Governor John Mutz with the legislature launched a program of economic development. To meet the threat of a
huge state deficit, legislators in special session late in 1982 raised the state sales tax, increased the individual income tax and suspended for two years an ongoing phaseout of the corporate gross income tax. The new funds made possible the expansion of aid to schools and creation of new educational programs.

Indiana has in certain respects been forward-looking in local government affairs. Our state originated the County Council as a body to share the burden of government with the Board of Commissioners. Our state replaced the justice of the peace with a more formalized court structure, and combined the structures of Marion County and Indianapolis to attain a more efficient government unit for a metropolis.

Indiana has remained strong in agriculture while becoming an important state for manufacturing. It has kept its costs of government relatively low (for example, having relatively few state employees per 1,000 of population) while nurturing its economy through economic development and by taking into account the problems of business and the constant need for creation of jobs to insure prosperity.

The Hoosier style of government—basically honest, frugal, efficient—has helped keep the image of Indiana before the people of this nation as a welcoming and hospitable state that will always be "back home" to millions of Americans.

**POINTS TO EMPHASIZE**

Indiana's legislature, called the General Assembly, consists of a Senate of 50 members and a House of Representatives of 100 members. Members of both chambers are elected from districts whose boundaries are to be re-set every 10 years following the taking of the nation's general census. The candidates are selected in the May primary in even-numbered years and win office in the general election held the following November.

Senators are elected for four-year terms, with half of the members elected every two years. House members are elected for two years.

A new legislature is created every two years and exists for two regular sessions. The first session occurs in odd-numbered years and by law is given 61 working days from early January through April 30 to complete its business. The second, or "short" session is allotted only 30 working days in even numbered working years and must be concluded by March 15.
The governor has power to call a special session at any time. A special session ordinarily is devoted to one issue. It can last for up to 30 working days within a period of 40 calendar days.

The General Assembly has broad powers to enact laws; it is restricted only by the Constitution of the United States, federal laws, and the Indiana Constitution.

The legislature decides what kind of taxes can be levied on citizens and businesses. It creates and abolishes agencies of state government, and determines how much may be spent by each agency. It tells us how to nominate and elect state and local governmental officials.

In addition, the legislature has the sole power to create or abolish local units of government, such as counties, townships, cities, and towns. It sets the rules under which these local units may operate, and gives or withholds authority for them to levy local taxes.

To create a new law, a bill must pass both Senate and House and be presented to the governor. He is allowed seven days in which to sign it, veto it, or ignore it. If he signs or ignores it, it becomes law. If he vetoes it, it is returned to the General Assembly where the lawmakers vote on whether to override the veto; if they do override, the bill becomes law despite the governor's opposition.

The General Assembly has created a Legislative Council, consisting mainly of appointed legislators, to recommend certain issues for study between sessions and name the committees for this purpose. The General Assembly is also supported by a Legislative Services Agency whose employees perform such services as bill research, drafting of bills, suggestions for revision of the Indiana Code (state body of law), and fiscal, budgetary, and management analysis.

The executive arm of state government consists of hundreds of offices, departments, divisions, boards, commissions, bureaus, and other functional units. Directing the most significant of these are certain elected officials whose posts were created in the Indiana Constitution.

The Governor, as the state's chief executive, holds a position comparable to that of our President in the federal system. In Indiana, the governor's position is a powerful one because it bestows the right to name persons to remunerative positions, make appointments to the boards of governmental units, and create (and abolish) certain kinds of agencies. The governor in Indiana also performs ceremonial duties, serves as chairman of various units and activities, and is the titular head of the governor's political party.
Candidates for the four-year office of governor are chosen by registered voters who vote in party primary contests held in the spring of even-numbered years. Candidates for lieutenant governor and other top elective state posts are chosen at state political party conventions several months after the primaries. The nominees for governor and for lieutenant governor run as a team in the general election.

Selected in November by popular vote, the new governor assumes office on the second Monday of January following the election. The governor may serve two consecutive terms, but may not serve more than eight years in any period of 12 years.

Department of Fire Prevention and Building Safety. All state building regulations and fire safety actions are consolidated in this agency. Inspectors enforce state building codes, elevator safety, and the regulation of boiler and pressure vessels.

Indiana Port Commission. This body maintains and operates three facilities. They are Burns International Harbor on Lake Michigan near Chesterton, Clark Maritime Centre near Jeffersonville, and Southwind Maritime Centre near Mount Vernon, both of the latter on the Ohio River. Burns Harbor has 500 land acres and 250 water acres with 10 ship berths, two transit sheds, a refrigerated warehouse, and two acres of paved storage and dock aprons. Southwind Maritime Centre has rail and interstate highway access for its 100 acres of port space, a 650-acre industrial park, several cargo piers, barge moorings, and facilities for storage of grain and dry and liquid fertilizer. The newest facility, Clark Maritime Centre, went into operation in August of 1985 on 500 acres.

Department of Labor. The department administers laws covering employment standards, child labor, industrial hygiene, statistics, building and factory safety inspections, construction safety, public employees, mines and mining, and safety education and training. A major function is administration of the Indiana Occupational Safety and Health Act.

Department of Employment and Training Services. In 1935 and 1936, the federal and state governments created a broad social security program to help place unemployed people in jobs. If workers lose their jobs through no fault of their own (for example, if the employer has no work for them), the department pays them weekly benefits from a fund maintained by taxes paid by all employers within the state. The department also supplies information and statistics on the labor market, manpower supply, hours and earnings, labor turnover, and economic trends.
In addition, the department administers within Indiana the job training program created by Congress in its 1982 Job Training Partnership Act. This act gives the private sector responsibility for designing and running the programs. Indiana also has a Jobs Training Program of its own to retain workers dislocated from jobs in declining occupations or industries.

Utility Regulatory Commission. Utilities that provide electricity, water, gas, and telephone service are granted territorial rights in Indiana. In exchange, they must gain permission from the Utility Regulatory Commission to set or alter the rates they charge their customers. This body also regulates the rates charged by intrastate railroads, steam providers, rural sewage-disposal utilities, natural-gas and related pipeline facilities, for-hire motor vehicles, and other operations. In general, Indiana's rates for industrial and commercial electricity compare favorably with such rates in other states.

Department of Highways. This department is responsible for the construction, maintenance and operation of the state highway system, including toll roads and toll bridges. Its major sources of funding are the gasoline tax, which in 1985 was 14 cents per gallon; the diesel fuel tax of 15 cents per gallon, and vehicle registration fees, licenses, and permits.

State Board of Tax Commissioners. This board supervises the administration of Indiana's property tax system and reviews the budgets of local units of government. It supervises the reassessment of real estate and personal property statewide, and the equipment and inventories of farmers, retailers, and manufacturers. For taxing purposes, personal property is assessed annually, and real property—such as land and buildings—is reassessed periodically. The standard is for land and buildings to be assessed at 33 1/2 per cent of true cash value. The average effective property tax rate is about $7.50 per $100 of assessed valuation. The state allows businesses to use one of two methods for determining the true cash value of inventory. Almost all of the revenue from property taxes goes to support the operation of local units of government and public school systems.

Department of Revenue. Most state taxes are collected and administered by the Department of Revenue. The Indiana tax program is relatively stable, having undergone major revision three times. In 1933, Indiana enacted a gross income tax for both individuals and business. In 1963, the legislature heeded calls for property tax relief by adopting a state sales tax and an individual and corporate adjusted gross income tax, and making the gross income tax apply only to corporations. Another change in 1973 brought new relief for the property tax program and an effort to make the state more attractive for
business expansion. The 1973 program provided a refund to business and individual taxpayers for 20 percent of their property tax payments; limited further increases in property tax levies or rates, and began a long-term phase out of the corporate gross income tax. At the same time, it increased the 2 percent sales tax to 4 percent (with food exempt); raised the 2 percent corporate adjusted gross tax to 3 percent; enacted a new corporate supplemental income tax of 4 percent (based on the corporation's adjusted gross income apportioned to Indiana, minus the state income tax liability resulting from either the corporate adjusted gross or the gross income tax, whichever is greater), and authorized counties to adopt a local individual income tax of up to 1 percent.

In late 1982, to ease the fiscal impact of a severe recession, the Legislature increased the sales tax to 5 percent and the individual adjusted income tax to 3 percent. The 1979 property tax controls, which were modified in 1977, 1979, and 1981, have enjoyed success and widespread popularity. Average property taxes per $1,000 of personal income fell from $54.30 in 1972-73 (17th highest of any state in the nation) to $36.65 in 1977-78 (31st highest in the nation and $8 below the national average). Although business taxes are comparatively high, Indiana's individual tax burden ranks low among the 50 states. In 1985, Indiana's state and local tax total as a share of personal income ranked 9th from the bottom among all states (10.1 percent compared to a national average of 11.2 percent).

The Lieutenant Governor is required by the Indiana Constitution to preside over the Indiana Senate and act as governor if that official is unable to serve or if the office is vacant. However, the General Assembly has also assigned the lieutenant governor to serve as executive director of the Department of Commerce and as commissioner of agriculture, and to head or be a member of many state boards and commissions.

Department of Commerce. The Department of Commerce is responsible for assistance to business and industry, agriculture, international trade, and tourism. The department is expected to make long-range plans for state economic needs, offer economic development help to local communities, and make financing information available to existing business and industry and new enterprises. The department offers a wide range of information and assistance programs, including economic analysis, promotion and encouragement of energy conservation, industrial training programs, and industrial development grants and loans.
The Secretary of State attests official documents, administers statewide elections, administers the laws that regulate the sale of trading of securities, issues charters of incorporation, and provides a central location for filing of instruments on commercial transactions.

The Treasurer of State is the receiver and custodian of all state revenue, invests state funds to earn interest, and pays out money upon proper warrant.

The Auditor of State is the bookkeeper and auditor of all state receipts and disbursements. Payments cannot be made out of the treasury except upon a warrant prepared and signed by the auditor, who also maintains a centralized accounting record and payroll records.

The Attorney General, as chief legal officer, must represent the state in every lawsuit in which the state has an interest. The attorney general also supplies official opinions to the governor, members of the legislature, and other officials upon request; operates a division of consumer protection, and administers an abandoned property section. However, he is not a law enforcement officer and does not prosecute offenders. In Indiana, this is carried out by county and municipal prosecutors.

The Superintendent of Public Instruction is chairman of the State Board of Education and directs the activities of the Indiana Department of Education. He is the state's chief school officer.

The Clerk of the Indiana Supreme Court and the Indiana Court of Appeals receives and keeps records of cases, and administers the oath to, and keeps the roll of, attorneys admitted to practice law within the state.

A Supreme Court, consisting of five justices, exists by direction of the Indiana Constitution. By statute, the state has also created a Court of Appeals, consisting of 12 judges, and a one-judge Indiana Tax Court.

Local government in Indiana consists of governmental units, districts, and jurisdictions that frequently interlock or overlap. The major units are counties, townships, cities, and towns. Until recent years, these units possessed only the powers that were specifically authorized by the General Assembly; they were dependent on the legislature to resolve their individual problems by passage of special laws. Then, beginning in 1978, the General Assembly granted them the right of "home rule." The keystone of this program was the enactment of a law stating that local units of government may exercise any powers that are specifically denied to them or reserved to the state.
Indiana has 92 counties, a relatively large number for a small state. They average 395 square miles in size but a few are smaller; Ohio County, for example, has a total area of 87.18 square miles.

Counties are responsible for law enforcement in rural areas by the county sheriff and sheriff’s deputies; maintenance of county highways; operation of county institutions; collection of local taxes; conducting of local voter registrations and elections; administration of public welfare programs, and related services.

Each of the state’s 92 counties (except Marion) is governed by a board of three commissioners who are elective officials holding four-year terms. The financial powers of counties are placed in the County Council, whose members also are elective. Other elective county officials are the auditor, treasurer, recorder, surveyor, sheriff, prosecutor, coroner, assessor, and clerk of the Circuit Court. In addition, each county has a court system that includes the Circuit Court and a combination of Superior, County, Probate, and Domestic Relations courts.

Within the 92 counties, Indiana has 1,008 townships. This is an extraordinary number for a state the size of Indiana, which is smaller than any state west of the Allegheny Mountains except Hawaii. The Indiana Constitution provides that “township officers as may be necessary shall be elected or appointed in such manner as prescribed by law.”

The township has a chief administrative officer called the trustee. Elected to a four-year term, the trustee serves as township clerk and treasurer, prepares the annual budget for submission to the Township Board, is overseer of the poor (provides relief to indigent families), serves as administrative officer for township schools (if any) and, in townships having a population of less than 8,000, serves as township assessor.

There are 115 cities in Indiana. They are divided into three classes set up on the basis of population:

- First Class: 250,000 and over
- Second Class: 35,000 to 250,000
- Third Class: below 35,000

Indiana’s only city of the first class is Indianapolis, with a 1980 census population of 700,807 (metropolitan area, 1,166,575). The legislature in 1970 created a special governing system that combined most of the mechanisms of Indianapolis and Marion County into one operating unit, dubbed Unigov, with the mayor as its chief executive.
The mayor is elected for a four-year term. The legislative body is a City-County Council of 29 members—25 elected from districts and four elected at large to four-year terms. The boundaries of the city coincide with those of Marion County. The Marion County treasurer, auditor, and assessor serve both the county and the city and function ex-officio as the county commissioners. The mayor, assisted by deputy mayors, operates the city through a system of boards and commissions headed by officials appointed by the mayor.

Indiana's cities of the second and third class also are headed by elected mayors. They elect Common Councils to pass ordinances and oversee financial matters, and they are similarly operated through boards and departments.

Towns are defined as incorporated units of municipal government having a population of less than 2,000; there are 450 incorporated towns in Indiana. Each town is headed by a board of trustees whose members are elected to four-year terms. The board may select a town manager to be the administrative officer and a marshal to maintain order.

Indiana is represented in Washington, D.C. by two members of the U.S. Senate and ten members of the House of Representatives.
Chapter 16: Indiana, Economic Development Toward the 21st Century
Joseph A. Rueff, Coordinator Program Evaluation and Career/Economic Education, Elkhart Community Schools, Elkhart
Peter Harrington, Director, Indiana Council for Economic Education, Purdue University, West Lafayette

To the teacher: Leaders in Indiana are very much concerned about the state's economic development. Studies have been conducted to predict what changes will occur during the next 20 to 50 years. This chapter discusses some of the results of these studies as they relate to three general areas of demographics, the relationship between Indiana and the U.S. economic structure, and our relationship to international trade and the global economy.

Several suggested student activities are included at the end of this chapter to provide opportunities for class discussion.

GENERAL COMMENTS

The term “demographics” refers to various ways in which population is distributed. What changes are going to occur in Indiana’s population that will effect the state’s labor force? Here are some trends the Indiana Economic Development Council has forecast in its publication “The Future of Indiana”.

Population and Household Structure

• Aging population as a consequence of low birth rates combined with advances in medicine and health care.

• Increased percentage of minority population in the younger age groups.

• Continued increase in single parent households and a similar increase in children from such households.
Labor Force: Composition and Participation

- Small entry age group with larger minority representation and larger numbers entering the workforce who come from single parent households.

- Slowing growth rate of female participation.

- More years of formal education for the labor force.

- Higher age level for the labor force.

- For younger workers, slower advancement because of larger senior group.

- Lower numbers leaving Indiana due to aging.

The Council further states that Indiana's population growth will continue to decline into the 21st century. While the national population will likely increase by 20 percent, Indiana's will gain 610,000 persons, an increase of only 11.1 percent between 1980 and 2020. By the year 2020, Indiana's population is projected to be 6,101,000.

The median age of Indiana's population is expected to increase from 29 in 1980 to 38 in 2020. The under-20 population will decrease, and the over-40 population—especially those over 65—will increase.

Indiana will continue to experience an outmigration, which will help hold population growth down into the 21st century. During the past 20 years more and more people have been moving to the South and West. This will continue. A net outmigration of 300,000 is expected by the year 2000. In addition, population within the state will be redistributed. Some areas will grow faster than others.

- Central metropolitan counties will change very little in population.

- Suburban counties will continue to grow rapidly, but not rapidly as in the past.

- After a century of decline, some rural areas will experience slow growth, continuing the pattern developed in the 70s.
Study Figure 1. What does it indicate about Indiana's population to 2020? What factors contribute to increases and decreases in population?

**Figure 1**

Percent Change in Population of Indiana

![Bar graph showing percent change in population of Indiana from 1910 to 2020.]


A major reason for Indiana's declining growth rate is the aging of the baby boomers. In the years immediately after World War II, there was a large increase in the nation's birth rate. Today that population is moving through middle age. The 35-44 age group will grow 40 percent through the 1980s to the end of the century. During the 1990s, senior citizens will begin a rapid rise, doubling their numbers during the first 50 years of the next century. Look at Table 1. How could these changes affect what Indiana's economy will produce in 2020?

**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>1980 Percent</th>
<th>2020 Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-19</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-39</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-79</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80+</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We will lose 17 percent (over 300,000) from the school-age population. We will lose another 55,000 from the 20-39 age group. All gains will occur among residents over 39 years old. We will gain almost one million residents over the age of 39, with 500,000 of these being over 60.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The studies of the Indiana Economic Development Council indicate the following effects of these population changes:

- Since there will be a redistribution of the population within the state, funding policies will be necessary which will make it possible to redistribute resources efficiently.

- With decreased enrollments of traditionally school-aged children and an economy expected to be increasingly literacy-dependent, the opportunity may exist to expand educational opportunity and increase educational achievement for older segments of the population.

- An “affordability” issue emerges when the demographic data of this section interact with the data presented in the next section. In brief, an aging population must be supported by a disproportionately smaller and younger work force. This situation is occurring in a state which relies more heavily upon a manufacturing economy when compared to the rest of the nation. This economic fact of life raises the issue of what the Indiana of the next century will be able to afford. Indiana’s perceived capacity to finance government has already declined during recent decades. While the percentage of Indiana government expenditures which is devoted to education once was higher than the national average, the amount of money appropriated for education is likely to remain a lively issue for state government.

- There are also data which indicate that the outmigration of Indiana population may be disproportionate among those with higher levels of education and among those with technical and scientific educations. If there is an “Indiana brain-drain,” there are strong implications for both education and the economy.

- Consistent with our decline in population growth rate, there will be a decrease in school enrollment into the next century. Nationally, there is an “echo” of the baby boom which is being reflected in enrollment increases in higher grades later. If current trends continue, this will not be true of Indiana. On the contrary, Indiana school enrollments are expected to decrease until the early 1990s, level off during the 1990s, and continue to drop into the next century. If these predictions are
true, children born in 1985 will occupy Indiana schools with 100,000 fewer students than are there today. These data are illustrated in Figure 1.

**Figure 1**

Enrollment Trends To 2003


**INDIANA'S RELATIONSHIP TO THE FUTURE U.S. ECONOMIC STRUCTURE**

The structure of the American economy has begun a major shift away from the heavy industry manufacturing base that has dominated its growth for the past century. A greater proportion of its production is moving into services. In the area of manufacturing more and more importance will be placed on the development of products which cannot be produced offshore and cheaply transported to the U.S. market and products which are produced for national security purposes in the U.S.

Indiana could suffer because of these shifts. Manufacture of standardized products, the kinds which can be moved easily overseas, makes up a large part of its economic base.

Will the large plants that manufacture these products here be able to compete?
Will Indiana be able to shift away from this kind of manufacture to that which produces less standardized products?

Answers to these questions are important because so many Hoosiers earn their livelihoods in manufacturing jobs. In 1981, 29.1 percent of the Hoosier workforce was employed in manufacturing, compared to 21.2 percent nationally. The concentration in Indiana is, in part, in segments which are declining—steel and automobiles. Indiana lost over 10 percent of its employment in the metals industry during the last decade and about 20 percent of its jobs in the auto industry during the same period. Other parts of the manufacturing sector are also lagging behind the rest of the nation.

Indiana also lags behind in its portion of service sector jobs. With 2.5 percent of the national population and 2.4 percent of personal income, Indiana has only 1.5 percent of the national service sector employment.

Agriculture is undergoing changes. Indiana’s farmers are facing increasing competition from overseas. Furthermore, farms are getting larger; the result is fewer farmers are needed. Where will these displaced farmers find employment?

In summary, what does this indicate about the future employment patterns in Indiana?

- The number of manufacturing jobs at best will increase slightly but more likely decrease.

- Manufacturing jobs involving largely manual or repetitive tasks will decline significantly.

- Remaining manufacturing jobs will require different skills, including computer-aided design and manufacturing (CAD-CAM) and the maintenance of flexible automation equipment.

- Job growth will occur in the non-manufacturing, service-oriented sectors.

- Job declines will continue in the agricultural sector.

- In the non-manufacturing sectors some jobs will require significant education and be high paying while others will require little education and be low paying.

- Some manufacturing jobs will require fewer skills than currently required.
Because of these possibilities some people are predicting the development of a "two-tiered society." The middle class would decline in size. There would be a relatively small tier of highly skilled, highly educated workers earning high incomes. The remainder of the workforce would have to settle for lower paying jobs as service and trade workers. These people would be the less educated, often displaced workers from the old semi-skilled manufacturing production sector. New entrants to the labor force would join the upper tier only if they have the education to master new technologies. If they don't have these skills they would join the lower tier. The implications of this for Indiana's future is enormous, considering the special structural problems the state faces.

INDIANA'S RELATIONSHIP TO THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

The past fifteen years have seen the rise of global economic interdependence. Increased trade among countries and the movement of capital across borders have characterized the period. Less developed countries have developed an ability to manufacture both standardized and more technologically complex products and now have policies of expanded basic research and development (R&D) activities. This worldwide competition both in standardized manufacturing and in the application of R&D to manufacturing and goods production will further intensify over the remainder of the century.

Until very recently, less developed countries have had the capacity to manufacture only labor-intensive products such as textiles and related apparel. Imports of these products to the U.S. have affected areas of the country (primarily the South) which have textile and apparel manufacturers. Indiana was little affected. Since the mid 70s, however, less developed countries such as Korea and Taiwan have increased their ability to manufacture additional products such as radios, TVs, VCRs, and steel and auto parts. Imports of these products to the U.S. directly affect Indiana. As these less developed countries continue to increase their capability, Indiana's durable goods manufacturers will face mounting competition.

While attention has focused on the worldwide competition in manufacturing, less attention has focused on the gains made in many less developed countries to provide a greater portion of their population's food need through domestic agricultural production. Moreover, there have been significant gains in several industrialized countries in developing an agricultural export potential. The result will be a smaller and increasingly competitive market for U.S. agricultural products. These agricultural products include not only food and fiber commodities but also fertilizers and seed and herbicide/pesticide systems.
as well as agricultural machine equipment. Over the next fifteen years these developing countries will continue their efforts to either feed their populations and further develop an export potential. Export-oriented countries will increase their crop production capabilities and will also attempt to develop their own processing facilities.

As the growth of export markets for American farm products slows, farmers may move to fill domestic market niches which could develop as a result of population and lifestyle trends, placing greater emphasis on a healthy diet and the use of convenience food products. To meet these requirements farmers may need to become more market oriented than they have been in the past with increased attention to small and potentially more volatile market niches.

Many less developed countries have made rapid advances in manufacturing and agriculture, but many have also incurred huge foreign debts. These debts will affect their economic relations for a number of years to come. Basically, these debtor countries will attempt to limit imports and expand their exports. This will make it difficult for the U.S. to export to these debtor nations. If U.S. manufacturers want to serve these markets, they may have little choice but to locate production facilities in these countries. If these Third World countries fail to effectively address their debt situation, the result could be little or no economic growth in these countries. If this should occur in such Latin American countries as Mexico, continued large scale immigration to the U.S. will occur.

Despite the Third World debt problem, the next 15 years will very likely find international trade playing a larger role in the U.S. economy. Trade occurs when both trading parties feel they will be better off by trading for what they want rather than by producing it themselves. This is true whether it is two people, two cities, two states or two nations. In the long run, increased international trade should mean better standards of living for many more people. In the short run, however, problems can result when imported goods or services displace American workers. The argument of relatively free international trade versus increasing trade barriers to protect American workers is likely to continue for the rest of the century.

Indiana has a large stake in this argument. The state is a major exporter of manufactured goods and farm products—especially corn and soybeans. Increasing worldwide economic competition could have a devastating impact on the state if our producers cannot compete. Some argue that this potentially adverse impact could be reduced by a protectionist trade policy. Others argue that a protectionist approach would only encourage Indiana manufacturers to be non-competitive. In addition, a protectionist policy could lead to retaliatory efforts by other countries, in essence closing their markets to Indiana exports.
Traditionally, the U.S. has had a strong free-trade perspective. If this perspective continues, Indiana’s providers, farmers, and general population must develop an international perspective in doing business. This perspective includes doing business in a world market and supplying markets wherever they exist.

International trade is usually thought of in terms of products as opposed to services. Many services are provided to a fairly small area. For example, a dry cleaner serves customers within a city or perhaps a part of a city. However, some services can be provided to a larger market area. The internationalization of the economy suggests that some services can be traded among countries. These opportunities will increase over the next 15 years.

FACTORS AFFECTING INDIANA’S INDUSTRIAL VITALITY

The following matrix includes excerpts from “Choosing a Future, Steps to Revitalize the Mid-American Economy of the Next Decade”, AricTrust Corporation, 1984. It is especially relevant to understand how shifts in the national and global economy will affect industries currently very important to the state’s prosperity. One should review these statements in terms of both short- and long-run predictions. What changes have occurred since their publication in 1984 that might alter these predictions?
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Economic Cycle</th>
<th>International Trade</th>
<th>Changing Markets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>STEEL</td>
<td>Very cyclic and slow growth; domestic production takes brunt of cycle.</td>
<td>Imports keep growing, now from Third World</td>
<td>Traditional markets disappearing new value-added markets being defined; products more specialized.</td>
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<td>MOTOR VEHICLES</td>
<td>Demand declines sharply during recession; cycles impact mainly domestic sales.</td>
<td>Dollar value helps imports; increasing loss of small car market to imports; oil price jumps can disrupt sales of domestic upscale cars.</td>
<td>Move to high performance; changing values split the market into many segments.</td>
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<tr>
<td>HEAVY EQUIPMENT</td>
<td>Lags behind economy but revival has started.</td>
<td>Already 1/4 to 1/2 exports; good export growth potential, but new competitors entering the market; poor sales in LDCs due to international recession and U.S. $ cost; offshore ventures may help entry to new markets.</td>
<td>Market shifting to exports; consumers usually sophisticated and sensitive to price and performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGRICULTURE</td>
<td>Has its own boom-burst cycle; slow revival</td>
<td>Highly vulnerable to strength of J.S. $; vulnerable to trade embargoes; growing foreign competition from Brazil, Europe.</td>
<td>Domestic markets stable.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
DEMOGRAPHICS

Review the following questions with the students. Elicit how much they can conclude about the change that will occur in Indiana’s population, prior to any study in class. Then have them read the narrative, “Demographics”. After they have finished, use the questions again, this time to further stimulate discussion and clarify ideas.

1. What are the factors that affect the size and structure of population? (birth rates, life expectancy, and migration)

2. What are some of the major factors that affect birth rates? (age structure of the population, life style, economic conditions)

3. What are the current trends in each of these areas and how would they affect the birth rate in Indiana over the next three to four decades?

   a. Age structure of the population: The population is getting older, so that proportionately there will be fewer women of child bearing age.

   b. Life Style: Families are tending to have fewer children. They are weighing the opportunity costs of larger families.

   c. Economic Conditions: The perceived need to have two incomes in a family implies that women will be spending more time working and less time in child rearing.

Conclusion: These factors lead one to conclude that Indiana will experience a declining birth rate.

4. What are the major trends affecting a shift toward a growing older population?

   a. “Baby Boomers”: Those born in the “baby boom” of the 1950s will be moving into the 60 to 70 age brackets after the turn of the century.

   b. Medical Technology: Medical advances are increasing life expectancy.

Conclusion: These factors combine to predict a much larger older population.

5. What are the major trends with respect to migration in Indiana?

   a. Economic Attractions: Economic opportunities in other parts of the country may attract more Indiana citizens than Indiana attracts from other states.

   b. Life Style: People may opt for a different life style — the mountains of Colorado or the shores of California.

Conclusion: It is predicted that Indiana will have a net outmigration.

6. Summarize in your own words what is likely to happen to Indiana’s population over the next 30 to 40 years.
GRAPHS

On the following pages are several graphs. These were developed from data provided in *The Indiana Factbook, 1985*, prepared by the Indiana University School of Business. Duplicate and have the students study each one. Use these questions as guides to discussion.

Graph No. 1. *100 Years of Population* (See page 170)

1. Approximately what was Indiana's population in 1920?

2. What is the projected population for 2020?

3. Interpret the curve that describes population increases. In what decades were there the greatest increases?

4. Where do the greatest increases in population occur?

5. Where do the greatest decreases occur?

6. Summarize in your own words what the information on this graph forecasts for Indiana's future.

Graph No. 2. *Population Changes, 1980-2020* (See page 171)

1. What does each bar in the graph stand for?

2. Which group has the largest population in 1980? In 2020 projections?

3. Which group has the smallest population in 1980? In 2020 projection?

4. Where do the greatest increases occur?

5. Where do the greatest decreases occur?

6. Summarize in your own words what the information on this graph forecasts for Indiana's future.

Create Graph No. 3. Look at the table on pages 172-173 titled "Twenty Year Changes in Population." Find your county. Create a graph illustrating the changes occurring in the years from 1920 to 2020. Then summarize whether these data agree with the statements on pages 157-159 of the chapter.
INDIANA'S RELATIONSHIP TO THE FUTURE U.S. ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

Graph No. 4. Distribution, Earnings, '83 (See page 174)

Explain the headings for each bar in the graph.

AG = Agriculture
Mining
F.I.RE. = Finance, Insurance,
Real Estate
SER. = Services
MFG. = Manufacturing
WH&RET. = Wholesale and Retail
TRANS. = Transportation
G^V. = Government

1. What do each of the bars stand for?
2. How are the earnings calculated?
3. Why is there no bar for agriculture? (The percent of the state's total earnings was too small to register as one percent.) Does this mean that agriculture is unimportant in the state's economy? (No, the value of the goods produced is great. The jobs agriculture supports in related services is high in many parts of the state.)
4. Which category has the highest percent of state earnings? By how much?
5. From what you have read, what problem does this forecast for Indiana's future?
6. Draw a similar graph indicating what you think the distribution might be in 2020.

Lead questions and discussion:

1. What effect will shifts in age groups have on overall production and consumption of goods and services? (For example, population will require more health care services, recreation activities, and retirement communities.)
2. What types of jobs will be needed to support an aging population?
3. What trends are leading to the aging of the population over the next 15 years?
4. What effect will this trend have on raising revenue (taxes) for school and other governmental services?
5. What effect will the rapid changes in technology in the workplace have on the jobs people hold? (There will be need for retraining and re-skilling in the workplace as the demand for labor resources change rapidly.)
6. What effect would the out-migration of young adults have on the Indiana economy? (There would be less demand for formal education; it could reduce the rate of innovation, and might discourage new industries from entering the state.)
POP. CHANGES, 1980-2020

0.75 1.00 1.25 1.50 1.75

MILLIONS

1.25 1.50

15-24 25-44 45-64 65+

AGE GROUPINGS

0-14

1980 CENSUS 2020 PROJECTED

Chapter 16/171
Twenty Year Changes in Population

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Change % Rank: 4-28.70 10-20 40-60 60-70 70-90 90-100

GRAPH 3

Chapter 16/172
Changes in Population Continued

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GRAPH 3 (cont.)

Chapter 16/113

In: na Factbook, 1985, Indiana Business Research Center, Indiana University School of Business, Indiana University.
Additional activities:

1. Check with your local Indiana employment office, your local Chamber of Commerce, and the want ads in your newspaper over the past six months to investigate the trends in job opportunities in your community.

2. Make a survey in your community using one or more of the following organizations as a chief resource: Private Industry Council, labor unions, job placement services. Seek answers to the following questions:
   - What are the trends in job opportunities?
   - What emphasis is being placed upon retraining or updating skills?

3. Write a short essay on what impact a new business of 100 employees would have on your community. Check your local Chamber of Commerce for background information.

4. Organize a panel discussion on the following topic: What impact will large global surpluses have on the consumer, farmer, taxpayer, and local businesses?

5. Write an editorial for your local or school newspaper stating what actions should be taken in the near future to insure that Indiana's educational system will be able to meet the needs of the 21st century.

6. Divide your class into two groups. Have one group make a list of as many jobs as they can think of in their area of the state that are related to manufacturing production. Have the other group do the same with jobs in services sector.

   When the lists are completed review each job with the class regarding 1) its wage level, 2) level of education needed, and 3) its possible future in light of both foreign and domestic competition. When both lists have been reviewed ask the students to summarize their findings.

   - Which list has the highest current wage levels? (probably manufacturing, unless service jobs are primarily professional)
   - Which list has the most jobs that could be jeopardized by competition outside of Indiana?
   - What does this forecast regarding future employment opportunities in your region of Indiana? Is this a similar forecast to that described in the chapter?

For excellent background material, check with your local Indiana employment office for information related to wage levels and future demand for various jobs.
INDIANA’S RELATIONSHIP TO THE GLOBAL ECONOMY

After reading the section of the chapter dealing with Indiana’s relationship to the global economy, use the following activities for reinforcement of the basic ideas.

1. Have the students name various kinds of products in the local market that are produced overseas. Which of these come from developed countries, such as European nations, and which come from less developed countries (LDCs), such as Hong Kong, Taiwan, or Brazil? In each case how important is the price of the good in determining its demand? Are there other factors? (French wines and Italian shoes are relatively more expensive than their American counterparts. Shirts from Singapore or television sets from Korea are less expensive.) Help the students conclude that the price of the good, and consequently the production costs, are very important in produced items for which there is a great deal of competition, such as VCRs, TVs, cameras, and autos. In some cases, countries with lower wage levels have an advantage if their workers can produce as efficiently as workers in this country.

2. What kinds of goods or services could be produced in Indiana that would not suffer from foreign competition?

3. Have students debate the topic: “Resolved: The United States should impose higher trade barriers on imported goods.” They might interview local labor leaders, business persons, and farm leaders in the community to obtain varying opinions, and materials. Statements from the Indiana Chamber of Commerce, Indiana A.F. of L/C.I.O., and Farm Bureau would also be helpful. They could also consult economics texts, the Wall Street Journal and other publications on economic issues for additional opinions.

4. Ask a representative of the County Extension Service to review with the class the impact of foreign agricultural production on U.S. agricultural exports, especially as it relates to Indiana’s agriculture.

FACTORS AFFECTING INDIANA’S INDUSTRIAL VITALITY

Review the matrix on page 186. Use the following questions as guides to discussion.

1. Which of the industries listed have major problems when the economy is not doing well?
2. Which industries are most in danger from foreign competition?
3. Which industries are hurt by a strong dollar in foreign exchange?
4. Which industries are very sensitive to changing market conditions?
5. Summarize how these data reflect the problems facing Indiana’s economy as we move toward the 21st century.
Sources

BOOKS FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES

There are a number of books about Indiana which should be available in school libraries for use in the teaching and study of Indiana History. Moreover, quite a number of these books are also useful in the teaching and study of American History.

Public libraries of Indiana have collections of books on Indiana History. In fact, some of them have large collections of Indiana items. However, many of these books are out of print and in some cases the copies at the library are available only for use at the library. Many of these volumes are too scarce and valuable for circulation. In fact, special permission is generally required to use scarce and valuable items, and such permission is at times granted only to scholars. Nevertheless, public libraries have various books on Indiana History which circulate, and encouraging students to use these books is desirable for all concerned. Such use gives libraries an excellent opportunity to help develop and guide the reading of interested students.

Every school library should seek to acquire books and booklets regarding the history of its local area. The collection and use of such items afford opportunities to relate local history to both state and national history. Some teachers have developed lessons to prepare books, booklets, scrapbooks, and other materials to tell the history of the county, town, city, or other local area. Such materials enrich the classroom experience and help to illustrate relationships between local history and state and national history.

A source of reprint of books about Indiana is the “Hoosier Book Club”, Indiana University Press, 10th and Morton Streets, Bloomington, 47405. Also contact other universities and/or colleges in our area as a resource.

Two recent single-volume histories of Indiana are:


A two-volume anthology of brief selections from works about Indiana is:


**BIBLIOGRAPHY TO INDIANA: A HANDBOOK FOR U.S. HISTORY TEACHERS**

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Esslinger, Dean R., *Immigrants and the City: Ethnicity and Mobility in a Nineteenth-Century Midwestern Community (South Bend)*, Associated Faculty Press, Port Washington, N.Y., 1975.


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Johnson, Hildegard Bender, et. al., This Land of Ours: The Acquisition and Disposition of the Public Domain, Indianapolis, 1978.


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Watt, William J., Bowen: The Years as Governor, Indianapolis, 1981.


BIBLIOGRAPHY TO PREVIOUS EDITIONS OF THE HANDBOOK ON INDIANA

The following list of books were the primary sources used for the original Handbook on Indiana. Many of these are out of print and available only at libraries. A few of these are being reprinted by Indiana University Press.


Barnhart, John D., Henry Hamilton and George Rogers Clark in the American Revolution (1951).


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Clark, Thomas D., Frontier, America, the Story of the Westward Movement (1959).

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Cockrum, William M., Pioneer History of Indiana, Including Stories, Incidents, and Customs of the Early Settlers (1907).


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Dunn, Jacob Piatt, True Indian Stories (1903).

Esarey, Logan, A History of Indiana (2 vols., various editions).

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Lindley, Harlow, (ed.), Indiana as Seen by Early Travelers (Indiana Historical Bureau, 1916).
BIBLIOGRAPHY TO PREVIOUS EDITIONS OF THE HANDBOOK ON INDIANA (Con't.)


Pence, George and Nellie C. Armstrong, *Indiana Boundaries: Territory, State, and County* (Indiana Historical Bureau, 1933).


Stampp, Kenneth M., *Indiana Politics During the Civil War* (Indiana Historical Bureau, 1949).


Thornbrough, Gayle and Dorothy Riker (comps.), *Readings in Indiana History* (Indiana Historical Bureau, 1956).


FICTION

A number of fictional works from the Golden Age of Hoosier writing in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries are worth reading for their historical as well as dramatic value. Many of these are being reprinted and are available through book outlets. The following are a few which have been listed by contributors to this text.


Riley, James Whitcomb, (Many of the writings of Riley are currently being reprinted and are available through book outlets.)


FILM AND VIDEO ON INDIANA

An excellent source for films and videotapes is the Indiana Committee for the Humanities. For further information and to receive a catalogue contact: The Indiana Committee for the Humanities, 1500 N. Delaware Street, Indianapolis, Indiana, 46202.

A list of films and video tapes is available from the Indiana State Library. These films and video tapes are available statewide through interlibrary loan within the state library system. They are limited to a 3-day borrowing period and often must be scheduled several weeks in advance. For further information about these: call 317/232-3694 or write Indiana State Library, Audiovisual Services, Room 402A, 140 N. Senate Avenue, Indianapolis, Indiana, 46204.

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RESOURCES

For a more extensive list of resources about Indiana write for a copy of "Indiana Heritage Resources Handbook" from the Indiana Historical Bureau, 140 N. Senate Avenue, Indianapolis, 46204.

- The Indiana Historical Society, the oldest historical society west of the Alleghenies, is a rich storehouse of rare materials on Indiana. Memberships in the Indiana Historical Society are available at a remarkably low cost of $15.00. This includes a subscription to the Indiana Magazine of History and to the Society's newsletter; also, at least one book each year. Occasionally there are other benefits as well, such as the prize-winning phonograph record, Indiana Ragtime. The Society's address is 315 West Ohio Street, Indianapolis, Indiana 46202. History teachers may be interested in joining the Indiana Association of Historians. Membership is open to anyone who earns his or her living from history in a teaching or non-teaching capacity. It is not limited to just those interested in Indiana History. Information about the Association can be obtained from the Indiana Historical Society.

- Two excellent booklets available from the Indiana Chamber of Commerce are Here Is Your Indiana Government and Let's Talk Politics. Both of these are updated with each election. For further information or bulk rates for classroom sets contact: The Indiana Chamber of Commerce, One North Capitol, Suite 200, Indianapolis, 46204.

- Discover Indiana is a new game for Hoosier citizens of all ages which is being prepared by the Indiana Committee for the Humanities, 1500 N. Delaware Street, Indianapolis, 46202. The Committee for the Humanities is an excellent resource for a variety of items on Indiana as well as a source of funding for development of local projects.

- The Indiana Historical Bureau has recently produced materials on Indiana such as: Folklore in the Classroom: A Workbook, Indiana Resource Guide, and Broadsides (a project of document packets for fourth grade Indiana history teachers. The Bureau co-sponsors the REACH bus with the Indiana State Museum, co-sponsors the Indiana Junior Historical Society, and coordinates the Indiana program of National History Day. Recently the Bureau, in cooperation with the Indiana Committee for the Humanities has made available a "write-on/wipe-off" map of Indiana. For information about the map or the many resources of the Historical Bureau write to: Indiana Historical Bureau, 140 Senate Avenue, Indianapolis, 46204, or call: (317) 232-2537.

- One of the best resources available on Indiana art and artists is from the Greater Lafayette Museum of Art. Called Art Smart, the resource consists of a series of colored slides with narration about art by Indiana artists. This project was completed through a partnership with the Indiana Historical Bureau and information about the series can be obtained from the Greater Lafayette Museum of Art or from the Indiana Historical Bureau (see above).
RESOURCES (Con't.)

- Division of Tourism, Indiana Department of Commerce, One North Capitol, Suite 700, Indianapolis, 46204 (317) 232-8860, publishes materials about activities and festivals throughout Indiana. The Department of Commerce also sponsors the Indiana Main Street Program to encourage development, redevelopment, and improvement of downtown areas throughout Indiana to ensure a community's overall attractiveness for new investment.

- The Indiana Division of the Indiana State Library has the most extensive collection of Indiana materials in the state including newspapers, pamphlets, manuscripts, books, state government publications, photographs, and indexes. Many books and other items are for reference use only, but citizens may borrow circulating items through interlibrary loan or directly from the State Library, 140 N. Senate Avenue, Indianapolis, 46204, (317) 232-3675.

- The Division of State Museums and Historic Sites is a part of the Department of Natural Resources. Information about the Indiana State Museum and historic sites throughout the state can be obtained by contacting the State Museum at 202 North Alabama Street, Indianapolis, 46204, (317) 232-1637. In addition, a variety of information about Indiana's resources can be received by contacting the Department of Natural Resources, State Office Building, Indianapolis, 46204. They publish Outdoor Indiana, a monthly publication about Indiana which is a valuable resource for teachers.

- Historic Landmarks Foundation of Indiana was founded by Eli Lilly in 1960 to increase public awareness of the benefits of preserving our Hoosier architectural heritage. They have a variety of information sources and other general resources on many of the counties as well as the state. Contact them at 3402 Boulevard Place, Indianapolis, 46208, (317) 916-2301 about information in general, membership or for the address of regional offices.

- ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS) is one of 16 content-specialized clearinghouses in the ERIC system. It provides teachers with a database in all areas of history and social studies in general. Contact them at: ERIC, 2805 E. 10th Street, Bloomington, 47405, (812) 335-3838.
Maps and Illustrations

Credit Lines

Distribution of Indian mounds in Indiana
Prepared by Donald R. Cochran, Ball State University, Muncie

Geographer's line and seven ranges
The survey of the public domain

Maps of the Old Northwest Territory

DNR property map
Used by permission of the Indiana Department of Natural Resources

Twenty year changes in population
Used by permission from the Indiana Factbook, 1985, Indiana Business Research Center, Indiana University School of Business, p. 140.

Lake region, 1688-1753

New states in the Old Northwest as proposed by Thomas Jefferson
Reprinted from Early Maps of the Ohio Valley: A Selection of Maps, Plans, and Views made by Indians and Colonials from 1673 to 1783 by Lloyd Arnold Brown by permission of the University of Pittsburgh Press © 1959 by University of Pittsburgh Press, p. 68.

Indian Land Cessions, 1795-1840

Land Treaties of Indiana (1811)

Indian treaties which opened land to settlers

The maps on pages 44-47, 192, and 198-212 as well as the charts on pages 127-130 are due to the generosity and courtesy of Dr. Edward E. Lyon and the Department of Geography at Ball State University, Muncie.
52. A sketch of the new states proposed by Jefferson and others, 1783-84.
1. G. R. Clark's Grant, 1783
2. Greenville, 1795
3. Fort Wayne, 1803
4. Vincennes, 1804
5. Grouseland, 1805
6. Fort Wayne, 1809
7. Fort Wayne, 1809
8. Maumee, 1817
9. New Purchase, 1818
10. Chicago, 1821
11. Mississinewa, 1826
12. Mississinewa, 1826
13. Carey Mission, 1828
14. Tippecanoe, 1832
15. Tippecanoe, 1832
16. Wabash, 1834
17. Wabash, 1840

INDIAN TREATIES

Which Opened Land To Settlers

Boundaries of present day counties shown by dashed lines
Clay and shale, composed of sediments from ancient streams, are used to manufacture brick, tile, sewer pipe, pottery, and many other ceramic products. Often the color of these products is important, and color is commonly related to the presence of iron in the raw clay. Clays with relatively high percentages of iron turn red, brown, or orange when heated or "burned." Clays with low percentages of iron, such as the underclay found below coal seams, burn pink or even white. By using certain clays or by mixing clays with differing iron content, the desired color can be achieved in a given clay product.

Information from the Indiana Geological Survey files aids Hoosier ceramic industries in locating clays with suitable percentages of iron.

Some rocks, limestone and dolomite in particular, are soluble in water. Weakly acidic rainwater seeping into joints and fractures of underlying carbonate rocks gradually enlarges them and eventually forms caves and other solution features. A region in south-central Indiana is noted for these characteristic landforms, known as "karst" after a similar region in Yugoslavia. Sinkholes are perhaps the most widespread karst feature. These funnel-shaped sinks may be broad, dish-shaped depressions or may have steep sides where surface materials have collapsed into underlying caverns. As many as 1,022 sinkholes were counted in 1 square mile in southern Indiana, each draining into a subterranean stream. Only a few of the largest streams can maintain their flow across the sinkhole plain and cave-riddled uplands. In the karst region, streams enter swallowholes, leaving blind valleys and dry streambeds and emerging as springs miles away.

Solution-widened joints, usually filled with soil, are called "grikes" and can be seen in most road cuts and quarry walls. Upward projecting, usually very irregular surfaces of limestone in southern Indiana's karst area are called "lapses."
The bedrock of our state is composed of 3,000 to 14,000 feet of sedimentary rocks which rest on the ancient igneous and metamorphic rocks of the Precambrian basement complex (more than 600 million years old). This block diagram resembles a huge lopsided layer cake; each layer represents the rock formations of a different period of geologic time. If this huge cake could be sliced, one would encounter younger rocks at the top and older rocks at the bottom. The sedimentary rocks, limestones, sandstones, shales, and dolomites, are composed of sediments that formed on ancient sea floors, deltas, lake beds, etc.

The oldest rocks exposed in Hoosierland are those of the Ordovician Period (more than 400 million years old) which crop out in the southeastern part of the state. From this region the rock formations dip to the southwest and to the north and northeast. Traveling in any direction from the Ordovician area of outcrop, therefore, one encounters younger rock formations that overlie these ancient sediments.

Each geologic period is characterized by one or more mineral resources. For example, the Pennsylvanian rocks contain coal, petroleum, and clay and shale; building stone, crushed stone, gypsum, shale, and petroleum are found in Mississippian rocks; crushed stone is the chief mineral resource of Devonian, Silurian, and Ordovician rocks.

Research done on Indiana's bedrock formations by the Indiana Geological Survey enables this organization to assist Hoosier industries or interested individuals in finding and developing new deposits of mineral resources—raw materials vital to the economy of any state or nation.
THE TRENTON FIELD: Scene of Indiana's First Big Boom

Natural gas was discovered at Eaton in Delaware County in 1886. And commercial oil was discovered in Wells County in 1889. The boom was on, and intensive drilling followed for several years.

Everyone believed that the new resource was inexhaustible. But gas was wasted, and the tremendous gas potential of the Trenton Field soon dissipated. Although gas production peaked in 1902, gas pressure in the field dropped alarmingly by the mid-1890's. Oil production peaked in 1904 but declined sharply in 1906. By 1910 the boom was over and the Trenton Field was essentially defunct.

The Trenton Field was a giant gas field, but its product—life was cut short by the wasteful practices of man.

INDIANA GEOLOGICAL SURVEY, DEPARTMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES

LPG STORAGE IN INDIANA

Hoosier homes, farms, and industry consume great volumes of energy each day. One energy source is Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), which is used to heat homes, to cook, to dry grain, etc. Propane is the most common LPG.

In its constant struggle to supply growing needs, the LPG industry has gone underground. In Gibson, Huntington, and Lake Counties are underground manmade caverns filled with LPG—reserves to supply consumer needs during periods of peak use. These storage caverns are in non-porous rock, generally shale or siltstone, where LPG is stored at 100 lbs. per square inch until needed. Explosions are impossible because there is no oxygen. Underground storage of LPG is safe, cheap, and ecologically pollution free.

Geologists at the Indiana Geological Survey have helped search for underground storage sites.
FACTORS INFLUENCING SOIL FORMATION

PARENT SOIL MATERIALS
- Water-Load
- Ice-Load
- Wind-Load
- Residual Material

GEOLOGIC TIME PERIODS
- Past Wisconsin
- Wisconsin-Mississippian
- Pre-Illinoian

NATIVE VEGETATION
- Timber
- Grass

LANDFORMS
- Level Lowland
- Uplanded to Rolling Upland
- Smooth Upland with Steep Slopes
- Rolling Upland with Siloslopes
- Forest

CLIMATE

MEAN JANUARY TEMPERATURE

MEAN JULY TEMPERATURE

MEAN ANNUAL PRECIPITATION

LAST SPRING FROST

FIRST FALL FROST

GROWING SEASON

Sources (Maps I, II, IV) Visher, Climate of Indiana, Indiana University, 1944
(Maps III, IV, V) Schaal, "Climate", Natural Features of Indiana, Indiana Academy of Sciences, 1966
PHYSIOGRAPHIC REGIONS

NORTHERN LAKE AND MORAINIC REGION
- Lacustrine plain
- Morainal area

CENTRAL DRIFT REGION
- Tipton till plain

SOUTHERN UPLAND & LOWLAND REGION
- Wabash Lowland
- Crawford Upland
- Mitchell Plain
- Norman Upland
- Scottsburg Lowland
- Muscatatuck regional slope
- Dearborn Upland
NATURAL VEGETATION

CLIMAX ASSOCIATIONS

- Oak-Hickory
- Beech-Maple
- Western Mesophytic
- Wetlands
- Dry Prairie
MAJOR LAKES AND RESERVOIRS

NATURAL LAKES
- Bass Lake
- Lake James
- Lake Maxinkuckee
- Lake Wawasee

ARTIFICIAL LAKES
- Brookville Reservoir
- Cataract Lake
- Geist Reservoir
- Huntington Reservoir
- Lake Freeman
- Lake Lemon
- Lake Monroe
- Lake Shaffer
- Mansfield Reservoir
- Mississinewa Reservoir
- Morse Reservoir
- Patoka Reservoir, Proposed
- Salamonie Reservoir
"CONTINENTAL DIVIDE" separating the drainage of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi River Systems

DRAINAGE BASINS
St. Lawrence Drainage
Calumet River
St. Joseph River Basin
Maumee River Basin
Mississippi Drainage
Kankakee River Basin
Wabash River Basin
Ohio River Basin
TRANSPORTATION ROUTES
CIRCA MAJOR 1835 - 1850

MAJOR ROADS
1. Michigan Road
2. National Road
3. Lafayette and Jeffersonville Turnpike
4. Vincennes and New Albany Turnpike

CANALS
5. Wabash and Erie Canal
6. Whitewater Canal

PROPOSED CANALS
7. Central Canal
8. Fort Wayne and Lake Michigan Canal

MAJOR RAILROADS
9. Madison Railroad

From Esarey, A History of Indiana, Vol. 1, 1918.
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Today, I announce a plan—an event—which can be our rallying point. It will be called Hoosier Celebration '88.

Today, I invite every Hoosier to celebrate Indiana—to celebrate the best of our past and our highest expectations for the future.

Hoosier Celebration '88 will be a celebration of our heritage and, most of all, of our potential. It will be a unique event in each Hoosier city and town, but a celebration common to us all.

I am convinced that each of 5 1/2 million Hoosiers can find a place in such an effort, each discover a means to spark a spirit of success, each find a way to stimulate Hoosier pride.

It will take the better part of four years to plan and execute the program for Hoosier Celebration '88.

In 1985 we will explore our heritage and organize to celebrate the future.

In 1986 we will see each community establish a project which is linked to that unique heritage and which expresses its vision for the future.

In 1987 those projects will be completed all across the state and tailored to the characteristics and individuality of each community.

Then in 1988 we celebrate!

From across the nation each community will invite anyone and everyone who ever lived there to come back home again to Indiana. Such a homecoming celebration will remind us that Indiana is a great place to be and will signal to the rest of the world that our future will be even brighter.

I see it as a unique opportunity for all of us to raise our sights and our pride and self-esteem. We will build concepts for the future upon the quiet self-confidence that is so characteristic of the citizens of this great state.

What exciting prospects lie before us! Any challenge becomes more inviting as purpose becomes more clear. Surely the achievement of superior education and dramatic economic growth, leading to greater opportunity for all, is the most worthy of purposes.

What I seek for Indiana is not vague or theoretical. It's as real as the bright eyes and expectations of thousands of kids in hundreds of elementary schools in everybody's hometown.

Those kids can accomplish miracles for themselves and Indiana in their own exciting future if we but act with vision and boldness and common sense as we lead Indiana toward a more exciting future in our own time.

Governor Robert D. Orr
Second Inaugural Address
January 14, 1985

Indiana: A Handbook for U.S. History Teachers was completed in celebration of the restoration of the State Capitol and Hoosier Celebration '88.