



ILLINOIS HISTORICAL SURVEY

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EARLY CHICAGO

As Seen by a Cartoonist



Cartoonist RALPH E. WILDER

Author CHARLES S. WINSLOW Copyright 1947

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by

CHARLES S. WINSLOW

PRINTED IN U.S.A.

Publisher CHARLES S. WINSLOW 1344 N. Dearborn Parkway Chicago 10, Illinois

Printed by BLOOM PRINTING COMPANY 216 Institute Place Chicago 10, Illinois Superior 3384

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JUST A WORD

0^N SEPTEMBER 26, 1903, Chicago began a week's celebration to commemorate the founding of Fort Dearborn a hundred years earlier. Friends of Chicago from all over the West came to join in the celebration. Chicag, chief of the Chippewas, sat on the same platform with descendants of John Kinzie, of Captain John Whistler and of Lieutenant Swearingen. A reproduction of the first Fort Dearborn was placed in the Public Library. Scenes of early Chicago were reproduced. The city gave itself wholeheartedly to memories of earlier days.

Prior to this Ralph E. Wilder, a commercial artist, had drawn a series of cartoons for Swift and Company to portray in a humorous way some of the events of the preceding century. The company issued these cartoons first in connection with advertisements for one of their brands of soap. They attracted such favorable attention that the company then re-issued them in a small booklet, as a contribution to the more general celebration of this centennial. The original cartoons were presented to the Chicago Historical Society by Swift and Company in 1905.

Ralph Everett Wilder, the cartoonist, was born in Worcester, Massachusetts, February 23, 1875. He received his education in the public schools of Chicago and in Morgan Park Academy, then in the Art Institute of Chicago and in the Chicago Art Academy. As a commercial artist he won recognition, and on June 6, 1903, joined the staff of the Record-Herald. He became their front-page cartoonist and remained with the paper until 1914. In that year he gave up his art work and turned to farming. His death occurred suddenly at his farm near Coldwater, Michigan, on February 19, 1924.

These cartoons of Ralph Wilder on Early Chicago are the keynote to this volume. They point the way to a different but interesting approach to the reading and study of history. All honor to the artist — Ralph Everett Wilder.

The cover design follows fairly closely that of the cover of the original booklet. In this two symbols of Chicago are prominent. The "Y" represents the division of the city into three parts through the joining of the north and south branches to form the main stream. This "Y" symbol was designed in 1892 by A. J. Roewad, winner in a contest for a municipal design. The other symbol, the goddess bearing the motto "I WILL," was also the outcome of a contest in March 1892, in which the winner was Charles Holloway. Of him it was said, "Charles Holloway was the first interpreter of the genius of Chicago to associate with an artistic personification of this city an expression of the dominant power of its soul."

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CHAPTER I

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1673 *"In 1673 Louis Joliet explored the Chicago — then known as the 'Wild Onion' — river.'"*

Early Chicago



L OUIS JOLIET the explorer and Jacques Marquette the priest, with their companions, passed through the Chicago river on their return from the long voyage of discovery down the Mississippi. It was the month of September in the year 1673. Very affecting to Joliet and to his companions must have been the sight of this future metropolis of the Middle West, and even more affecting evidently was the odor of the wild onion that grew so plentifully along the banks of this beautiful little stream.

Ralph Wilder doubtless knew that the wild onion, which may still be found in the Chicago region, does not as a flowering plant have the pungent odor associated with the onion when cooked, nor have the power to make one's eyes water through the strong oil it contains. However, the suggestion by the artist of an odor and of tears conveys the idea of wild onions most vividly.

In the year 1673, and for many years to follow, the Wild Onion river was an innocent, sweet-smelling, little stream flowing gently into Lake Michigan. Possibly the artist was hinting at a later time when part of this little stream was well and unfavorably known to Chicagoans as Bubbly Creek, constantly effervescing because of the decomposing animal matter from the neighboring Stock Yards. Possibly he had in mind the condition of the river when as the main sewer of the city it forced people to construct the Sanitary and Ship Canal in their efforts to secure pure drinking water and to prolong their lives. Joliet and Marquette had set forth from St. Ignace, at the northern end of Lake Michigan, on the seventeenth of May, 1673. With them were five French companions and two canoes. Discovery of a water route across the continent was very important to the French. They wanted an easy trade route to the rich countries of the Orient — India and China. The Indians, as they brought their furs to the trading posts of New France, had spoken rather vaguely of a great river to the west. So Joliet was recommended by Talon, Intendant of Canada, and commissioned by Governor Frontenac to discover this unknown river and to determine its course. As it was usual for priests to accompany such exploring parties, Jacques Marquette was selected as Joliet's companion.

Louis Joliet (spelled Jolliet in early times) had been born in Quebec in the year 1645, the son of a wagon maker. He was accordingly twenty-seven years of age at the time of this adventure. He had first studied with the Jesuits for the priesthood, but had early decided that he was better fitted for the adventurous life of a fur trader. In 1669, under the direction of the Intendant Talon he had explored the Lake Superior region for sources of copper ore, of which the Indians had spoken. In this quest he was unsuccessful. As he was returning to Montreal, along the shore of Lake Erie, he met La Salle, who was just starting on his tour of exploration of the Ohio valley.

Late in the fall of 1672 Joliet started for the Lake of the Illinois, Lake Michigan, to join Father Marquette, and to prepare for his trip into the unknown country in search of the "Great River." In early December, as ice was beginning to form, he reached St. Ignace. Here he found Marquette in his little cabin, and he reported his mission.

The young priest was delighted to receive his guest and to learn of the intended journey. It seemed to him an especially good omen that Joliet had arrived on the day of the celebration of the Immaculate Conception of the Holy Virgin, whom he had often implored to direct him to the land of the Illinois.

Jacques Marquette was born at Laon, in northern France, in 1637. When seventeen years of age he joined the Jesuits, and in 1666 was sent to the missions of Canada. Two years later he went to Lake Superior and then to the mission at Point St. Ignace. Among the Indians he learned to speak six of their languages with ease. To these missions each year came the Illinois Indians. Their name meant "real men." Marquette thought these savages to be of better physique and of nobler character than were the other tribes. They told him of their country and of the "Great River." This made him eager to meet them in their own villages and to teach them the meaning of the white man's religion. It was therefore a real pleasure to greet Joliet on that December day in 1672 and to learn that his cherished hopes of entering the country of the Illinois were about to be realized.

The two young men made their plans for the journey. They drew maps as best they could of the country to which they were going. They laid in a supply of smoked meat and of Indian corn. They provided two birchbark canoes. Marquette later wrote, "I placed our voyage under the protection of the Holy Virgin Immaculate, promising that if she grantd us the favor of discovering the great river, I would give it the name of Conception."

Five hardy French voyageurs paddled the two canoes westward on that spring day of May 17, 1673, westward along the north shore of the Lake of the Illinois into Green Bay. They stopped to visit the "Wild-rice Indians" on the Menominie river, which flows into Green Bay. Here the friendly savages tried to persuade them to go no farther.

Early Chicago

The banks of the Great River, they said, were peopled by ferocious tribes who put to death by the tomahawk all who were strangers to them. In a certain part of the river was a terrible demon who would be certain to engulf them in the abyss where he lived, if they succeeded in getting that far. Moreover, the heat in the south was so great that they could not possibly endure it. Father Marquette taught them a prayer, and the travellers then departed.

With two Indian guides they paddled up the Fox river from Green Bay, across the portage, and down the Wisconsin. Just a month after they had started, they floated out upon the Mississippi. For two weeks, as they paddled and floated down stream, they saw no signs of man. But they did see great herds of buffalo, and each night they anchored in midstream lest they might be attacked by unseen enemies.

Finally, on the west side of the river, they discovered a path, evidently made by man. Joliet and Marquette decided to follow this path, leaving their men with the cances. A walk of about six miles through the forest and across the prairie brought them to an Indian village. As they had not been discovered, they stepped out into the open and shouted to attract attention. This created great excitement in the village. Soon four of the chief men came to meet them, holding up two peace pipes adorned with feathers. Marquette spoke to them and learned that they were Illinois. Together they smoked the pipe of peace and went into the village. The chief here welcomed them in these words: "Frenchmen, how bright the sun shines when you come to visit us! All our village awaits you; and you shall enter our wigwams in peace."

The following day they visited the great chief of the Illinois at a village not far distant. Again they were cordially received, and were here presented with a calumet, or peace pipe. They were also treated to a banquet of four courses — corn meal porridge, fish, roast dog and buffalo meat. They continued their voyage the next day.

Down the river, past the mouth of the Illinois, they glided. On the rock bluff, later the site of Alton, they saw carved and painted two figures of the terrible piasa bird. This was a mythical character of the long ago. It had a large scaly body, about which was wrapped its long tail ending like the tail of a fish. Its four feet were webbed. Its head was somewhat like that of a bearded man, but with horns like those of a deer.

Indians passing this way either kept as far from the rock as possible or shot their poisoned arrows at the painted monster. To them it was an evil spirit. In life, according to cheir belief, it had feasted on the flesh and blood of Indians, but had finally been killed by an Indian chief and his warriors who attacked it under the direction and protection of a good manitou, or spirit. The Frenchmen could not forget the appearance of this ugly monster. Marquette, though himself frightened, made and preserved a sketch of it.

Farther down the river the two canoes were almost upset when they came to the meeting of the muddy and turbulent Missouri with the Mississippi. As they approached the mouth of the Arkansas, they saw a number of wigwams on the west bank. The savages saw them about the same time. Giving their war whoops, the young warriors put out in their canoes to attack the Frenchmen. Marquette held his calumet above his head. The excited savages paid no attention to the peace pipe, until the older men caught sight of it and urged the strangers to land. After a friendly conference and a feast the Frenchmen spent the night with their new friends. These Indians were the Metchigami, or Michigans, one of the tribes of the Illinois.

A few miles farther down the river Joliet and Marquette

were welcomed at a village of the Arkansas Indians. Here they were told that the Mississippi farther south was peopled by hostile Indians who were armed with guns secured from white men, evidently Spaniards. Thereupon the Frenchmen decided to return. They had learned that the Great River flowed into the Gulf of Mexico and not into the Gulf of California as they had hoped. It did not lead to the Orient, but it might prove a means of communication with their own France. It seemed better to return with this information than to run the risk of capture by the Spaniards or of death by hostile Indians.

So they turned back and struggled against the current in the heat of the summer's sun. When they came to the mouth of the Illinois river, they turned up this stream, for the Indians had told them that this was a shorter and better route back to their starting place. Finally, only a mile west of what later became known as Starved Rock, they came to a large Indian village, Kaskaskia. Here they were gladly received. As Marquette preached to them of his religion, they made him promise to return to them at a later time.

Then the Indians guided the little party up the Illinois and up the Desplaines till they reached the little Portage creek. At that point they turned eastward through Mud Lake and entered the South Branch of the Chicago river. Joliet remarked that it would be a very simple matter to dig a little canal from the South Branch to Mud Lake, which would allow boats to go from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi and so to the Gulf without making any portage.

It was late in the fall of 1673 when they arrived at Marquette's new mission assignment on Green Bay. Joliet and Marquette spent the winter together here, Joliet preparing his report to the governor and Marquette carrying on the duties of the mission, writing reports to his superior and trying to recover from a serious illness brought on by the exertions of the trip.

The next spring, as Joliet was approaching Montreal on his return, his canoe was upset in the rapids, his maps and notes of the trip were lost, and he himself narrowly escaped death. Knowledge of their exploration has been gained from the accounts written by Marquette and published in France in the Jesuit Relations.

Joliet never again passed this way, but Father Marquette returned a little more than a year later with two French companions on his way back to the town of Kaskaskia on the Illinois river. Because of a serious attack of dysentery he was obliged to spend most of the winter of 1674-75 in a little log cabin on the South Branch, about where Damen street crosses the stream. Finally, in March he went on to Kaskaskia, but his days were numbered. As he was returning shortly after Easter in that year of 1675 his strength failed, and he died on the opposite shore of Lake Michigan.

A grateful city has erected numerous memorials in honor of her early discoverers. The northeast pylon of the Michigan avenue bridge portrays the two men surrounded by a group of friendly Indians but under the guidance of a heavenly visitor. Across from the Harrison Technical High School, at Marshall and Twenty-fourth street boulevards, stands a colossal monument with the figures of Joliet, Marquette and an Illinois Indian. This monument has been placed close to the old Chicago Portage over which they passed in September of 1673.

Marquette boulevard crosses the city on the South Side. Two public schools have carried the name of Marquette. The first, at Wood and Congress, was opened in 1879, but has recently been razed. The present school stands at 6550 South Richmond and was opened in 1925. In some respects the most interesting memorial is the Marquette building on the northwest corner of Adams and Dearborn. Over the entrance and around the lobby is a series of glass mosaics and of bas reliefs in bronze that portray many of the incidents in the voyage of these two explorers.

Joliet is honored in this city by no separate monument. Yet only forty miles distant is the city of Joliet on the Desplaines river through which the two men passed. Strange to say, the place was first named Juliet by James B. Campbell, founder of the city, in honor of his daughter. Connected with this name was that of Romeo, a town only a few miles farther up the river. It was in January 1845 that the city changed its name to Joliet through an act of the legislature. President Van Buren was said to have expressed a wish that the city be renamed Joliet in honor of Louis Joliet.

Just southwest of the city of Joliet was formerly a large mound of sand and gravel that early gained the name of Mount Joliet. One of the more obscure legends relates that here Pontiac was tomahawked by an enraged Indian of the Illinois tribe. Mount Joliet has disappeared. Its later history was sad. Chicago coveted the material for the improvement of some of her streets, so in May 1858 the gravel was brought to this city and spread over Michigan avenue. No question of honoring or of dishonoring the name of the intrepid explorer entered the minds of the City Fathers.

In this cartoon the artist raises, if he does not settle, the question of the origin of the name "Chicago." Historians have long disagreed and continue to disagree as to its origin.

Writing from Chicago to a friend in France, La Salle said in 1682: "After many toils I came to the head of the great lake and rested for some days on the bank of a river of feeble current now, flowing into the lake, but which occupies the course that formerly the waters of the Great Lakes took as they flowed southward to the Mississippi river. This is the lowest point on the divide between the two great valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. The boundless regions of the West must send their products to the East through this point. This will be the gate of empire, this the seat of commerce. Everything invites to action. The typical man who will grow up here must be an enterprising man. Each day as he rises, he will exclaim, "I act, I move, I push," and there will be spread before him a boundless horizon, an illimitable field of activity; a limitless expanse of plain is here — to the east water and all other points land. If I were to give this place a name, I would derive it from the nature of the place and the nature of the man who will occupy this place — ago, I act; circum, all around; Circago."

In a romantic little story written in 1851 about the courtship and elopement of Chicagou, chief of the Metchigami tribe of the Illinois, and Tonika, princess sister of the great chief of the Natchez Indians, is this closing sentence, "They both lived to be old — to be respected by the red man and white man alike — and dying left their name to be perpetuated by the flourishing city of Chicago."

Mrs. John H. Kinzie, in her story "Wau-Bun," gives a similar derivation. "The Indians all agree," she says, "that the place received its name from an old chief who was drowned in the stream in former times, which must have occurred in a very remote period."

There are many indications, however, that the name is derived from the Indian word which in some of the dialects meant "wild onion." Cadillac, writing in 1695 from Michillimackinac about the various French posts and Indian villages, says: "The post of Chicagou comes next. The word signifies the 'River of Garlic,' because it produces naturally, without any cultivation, a very large quantity of it." A deed to an extensive tract of Illinois land was given to William Murray by the Indians, in which the boundaries are given thus: "Then up the Illinois river, by the several courses thereof to Chicagou, or Garlic Creek." And La Salle himself in 1683 said, with reference to the Chicago portage, "The land there produces naturally a quantity of roots good to eat, as wild onions."

It may be wise to agree with the artist and to accept his wild onion theory as the true explanation of the origin **of** the name "Chicago."

CHAPTER II

1682 "In 1682 Robert Cavelier La Salle visited this portage. La Salle street was named in his honor."



WHAT WALL STREET is to New York City and what Threadneedle street is to London, La Salle street is to Chicago. If the ghost of La Salle, accompanied by the shade of Nika, his faithful Shawnee slave, had visited Chicago in 1903, he would have seen tremendous changes in the place which he knew in life only as a marshy waste at the lake end of the Chicago Portage. A street which did not exist during his lifetime had become the financial center of the West, with a magnificent Board of Trade building at the south end of the street and an equally magnificent Lincoln Park at the north end. The rush and worry of city men in their efforts to make fortunes would have seemed very strange to La Salle, nor would he have understood the uplifted hand of the bluecoat, he whom only armed bands of hostile Indians had been able to check.

John Wentworth, editor of the Chicago Democrat in the early days of the city, said on one occasion: "He (La Salle) went immediately into commerce with Hennepin as chaplain and Tonti as chief superintendent. Thus, whilst Marquette was our first elergyman, La Salle was our first member of the Board of Trade — the first of that large number of men who make such slow progress toward the Kingdom of Heaven that they let the camel beat them in getting through the eye of a needle. Hence, it is very proper that the street upon which our Board of Trade stands should be named for him."

On the twenty-second of November, 1643, a babe was born in France who later made a great name for himself in the Illinois country. It was Robert Cavelier. Both his father and his uncle were wealthy merchants. One of the estates owned by Robert's father was called La Salle. This is the name by which he became generally known.

As a boy he was very bright and was given a good education. He liked science and mathematics, especially arithmetic and geometry. When he became older he entered a Jesuit monastery for further study and to prepare for the priesthood. He even taught for a time, but he was not satisfied with the dull life of a monastery, with the same things happening day after day. He was too active in body and mind to be acting under the orders of some one else. He wanted to be free to come and go, to be a leader himself, so he left the monastery. According to the laws of France, when he entered the monastery he lost the right to receive any of the property of his father, who had died not long before. The purpose of the law was to keep the priests poor so they would think of religion instead of wealth.

Canada, or New France as it was then called, was the great land of adventure for the French. In the spring of 1666 La Salle set sail for this new land to join his older brother, the Abbe Jean Cavelier, a Sulpician priest in Montreal. At this time Montreal was just a small village owned by the Sulpician priests. It was a place of danger, too, for the Iroquois Indians of the Hudson Valley to the south could reach it easily and might attack at any time. They were not on friendly terms with the French.

So these priests were very glad to give this young man of twenty-three a large portion of land, an island about eight miles farther up the St. Lawrence river. La Salle with his little colony could stand between them and danger. At least he could warn them when the Indians were likely to attack. On this island La Salle built a little fort and sold land to

La Salle

those who wished to join him. This was also a central place from which to trade with the Indians for furs. After a time the place became known as La Chine. The name means China, and was given in ridicule of La Salle's known desire to find a passageway across the continent to China.

One winter a band of Seneca Indians, one of the tribes of the Iroquois, camped near him. They told him of the Ohio river. This river, they said, flowed into the sea, but at such a distance that it would take eight or nine months to make the journey to its mouth. La Salle thought the sea into which this river flowed might be the Vermilion Sea, the present Gulf of California. If so, this river would lead across the continent and open up a new way to China, that country rich in silks and spices.

He determined to find and to follow this great stream. First he went to Quebec to get permission of Governor Courcelle and his minister of finance, the Intendant Talon. They were both in favor of the idea and gave him the right to go ahead with his plans. In order to raise money he sold his property at La Chine. He bought four canoes and the supplies that he needed. He also hired fourteen men to go with him.

La Salle set out on this journey to find the Ohio river on the sixth of July, 1669, paddling westward along the south shore of Lake Ontario, past the mouth of the Niagara river, to the Indian village at the west end of the lake. Here La Salle was given the present of a captive Shawnee Indian, Nika, who became his faithful companion and hunter until the time of his death. Nika said he could guide the party to the Ohio, an undertaking which would require six weeks.

Before they left this Indian town Louis Joliet arrived, a young man almost La Salle's own age. Joliet had been exploring the Lake Superior region in the hope of finding copper mines, but had been unsuccessful. He showed La Salle a map he had drawn of the Great Lakes region through which he had passed.

La Salle spent the next two years in the Ohio region. He found a stream flowing southward into the Ohio river, and followed this stream and the Ohio as far down as the rapids at Louisville. It is believed that he also discovered the Illinois river. His men deserted him and he had to give up his hope of going farther toward the sea.

His discoveries led him to have visions of a new France in the rich and pleasant country of the Ohio and the Illinois, a land much more agreeable in climate and products than the land of Canada. He believed the rivers flowed southward into the Gulf of Mexico. If so, a fort at the mouth of the great river would enable him to carry on trade between France and this new country throughout the entire year.

After La Salle had returned to Canada from his trip to the Ohio river, he met Governor Frontenac, who had lately come from France to replace Governor Courcelle. The governor planned a trip, partly to make friends with the Indians and partly to get control of the fur trade. He sent La Salle ahead to invite the Indians to meet him at a certain place on the north shore of Lake Ontario not far from the St. Lawrence. Then with four hundred men and one hundred twenty canoes and two flatboats he made his way up the rapids of the St. Lawrence to Lake Ontario. It was a regular war party that thus paddled along the shore of the lake. When Governor Frontenac received the Indians in council, he had them march between two lines of his soldiers. He wanted the Indians to know that the French were ready and able to fight.

While these councils were being held, the soldiers were building a fort of logs. It was to be a trading post where the Indians could bring their furs and trade them for cloth, for guns and for other things they might like. A guard of soldiers was left in the fort when the governor returned to Quebec. La Salle and the governor had become warm friends. In the meantime Joliet and Marquette had made their voyage of discovery down the Mississippi and back through Illinois.

In the fall of 1674 La Salle went back to France. He was received graciously by the king, who made him a noble and gave him the fort which the governor had built on Lake Ontario, together with a great deal of land about the fort. La Salle promised he would rebuild this fort with stone and would always keep a certain number of men in it. He named it Fort Frontenac, in honor of Governor Frontenac. When he got back to Canada he took charge of the fort and built up a great fur trade there.

While he was at the fort one of his men tried to kill him by putting poison in his salad. The man had done this at the urging of a married woman who had tried to make love to La Salle, but with whom he would have nothing to do. La Salle made money in his fur trading at the fort, but he wasn't satisfied. He hoped to have a chance at greater things.

In the fall of 1677 he left the fort in charge of his lieutenant and sailed again for France. He asked the king for the right to build more forts and to form colonies in the land south of the Great Lakes. He promised to do this at his own expense, but he asked the control of the fur trade and the right to govern any country he might discover and colonize. This new country to the southward he described as beautiful and fertile, free from forests, and with plenty of fish and game. Canada, on the other hand, was poor in soil. Its forests were dense, its climate harsh. Snow covered the ground for half the year. The king gladly granted most of his request. La Salle didn't have money enough of his own, so he borrowed large sums, offering to pay as much as forty per cent interest annually.

While in France he was introduced to a young man by the name of Henry de Tonti. Tonti was an Italian and had lost his right hand in one of the wars of Sicily. In place of it he wore a metal hand, which was usually covered with a glove. He thus became known as the "Iron-Handed." Tonti wanted to join La Salle in his enterprises, and La Salle was glad to have him. Tonti became his best friend and his lieutenant.

When La Salle reached Quebec he found Father Louis Hennepin, a Sulpician, or gray-frocked, priest, who seemed never so happy as when on some adventure or when he was relating stories of his adventures. As a young man he had become a priest, but he had always enjoyed travel. He said of himself: "I hid myself behind tavern doors while the sailors were telling of their voyages. The tobacco smoke made me sick at the stomach, but, notwithstanding, I listened attentively to all they said about their adventures at sea and their travels in distant countries. I could have passed whole days and nights in this way without eating."

Hennepin had come to New France in 1675 on the same ship with La Salle, and had been sent as a missionary to Fort Frontenac. When La Salle met him at Quebec in 1678, he gave the priest a letter from his superior granting him permission to go with La Salle on his great adventure.

La Salle was now ready to start. He sent some of his men across Lake Ontario to the mouth of the Niagara river. Here they made friends with the Indians and built a fort a few miles back from the shore of the lake. This they called Fort Niagara. It would help to prevent the Indians of the Great Lakes region from trading with the English and the Dutch farther east. Several men were sent on in advance to the northern end of Lake Michigan to gather furs.

Under Tonti's direction the men in January, 1679, built a sailing vessel in the river above the Niagara Falls. They called this the "Griffin," because a griffin was the emblem of Governor Frontenac. La Salle tramped back to Fort Frontenac, two hundred fifty miles, to get more supplies, for one of his boats had been wrecked by a careless pilot, and he needed anchors and other things for the new vessel.

Early in August, 1679, they set forth on the first sailing vessel ever to be seen on Lake Erie. Part of the voyage was very stormy, but they sailed on and on till they reached Point St. Ignace, the very place from which Joliet and Marquette had set out a little more than six years earlier. Here they found a Jesuit mission and a center for the Indian tribes. Some of the men whom La Salle had sent ahead to secure furs had run away with his goods. He sent Tonti in search of these men. The furs that had been collected he loaded on the new vessel. The Griffin then started back for Fort Niagara, with orders to return to the southern end of Lake Michigan as soon as possible.

La Salle with fourteen men set out in four canoes, carrying a forge, tools, goods for trading, and weapons. They paddled southward along the west shore of Lake Michigan, taking their canoes onto the shore at night. Several times they almost starved. Once they found the body of a deer that had been killed by wolves, and they feasted on this, after driving away the buzzards. They went on past the mouth of the Chicago, the first time that La Salle had been here, on to the mouth of the St. Joseph river in Michigan. Here they built Fort Miami while waiting for Tonti and his party to come up the eastern shore.

The Griffin should have arrived, and they began to fear

that something had happened to her. Two men were sent back to St. Ignace to meet her on her arrival. The rest of the party started up the St. Joseph to cross the portage to the Kankakee and so on down to the Illinois country. It was the beginning of winter, December third, and ice was already to be seen on the streams.

Nika, the Indian hunter, was away from the party, hunting game. Without his sharp eyes they passed the beginning of the portage trail without seeing it. When La Salle left the party to hunt the trail he became lost and didn't return until four o'clock the next afternoon. After Nika had found the portage trail, they camped for the night. La Salle and Hennepin slept in a wigwam covered with mats woven of reeds. Their wigwam caught fire that night, and both sleepers barely escaped with their lives. The next day while on the march the man walking behind La Salle raised his gun to shoot him in the back, but was stopped by one of his companions. These incidents show some of the dangers of this adventure. There were still more in store for this daring man.

They had difficulty in finding game for food. When they reached the Indian village of Kaskaskia not an Indian could be found. The entire village was away at the winter hunt. They opened pits in the ground and took some of the corn which the Indians had stored in them. La Salle planned to pay for this corn when he should find the Indians.

On down the river they paddled in their eight canoes until they reached a point near the present city of Peoria. Here they saw wigwams on both sides of the river. La Salle had the canoes brought into line side by side. Then the men seized their weapons. The Indians were in a panic when they saw the Frenchmen. "Warriors whooped and howled; squaws and children screeched in chorus. Some snatched their bows and war clubs; some ran in terror." La Salle and his band
of Frenchmen landed and stood with their guns in hand, ready for war or for friendship.

Soon the Indians made signs of friendship. Then the white men were seated and given food. La Salle made the Indians a present of tobacco and hatchets and promised to pay for the corn he had taken from the pits in the Kaskaskia village. He told them he wished to build a fort to protect his men, and also wished to build a great "wooden canoe," in which to go on to the sea and to get the goods they might need. The rest of the day they spent in feasts and dances.

That night a stranger chief, Monso, appeared and told the Indians in secret council that La Salle was a spy of the Iroquois, who were enemies of the Illinois, and that he was trying to stir up the other tribes against the Illinois. When La Salle learned of Monso's statements, he persuaded the Indians that he was really their friend.

Not far below, on the bank of the river, he built his fort and called it Fort Crevecouer. Then he began his boat. Since many of the supplies needed for the new boat were to have been brought on the Griffin and since no news had been received from her, he planned to go back to Canada on foot to learn what had happened and to get the needed supplies.

Before he started, he sent Father Hennepin and two companions in a canoe to explore the lower part of the Illinois river and then to go up the Mississippi to its sources. Hennepin wasn't at all eager to go on this dangerous canoe voyage, but on the last day of February 1680 he said goodbye to his friends and started on what proved to be a trip full of adventures and one that almost ended in his death.

The next morning La Salle started on his long journey of a thousand miles back to Canada. He had with him four Frenchmen and his faithful Nika. The river was frozen, but the snow on the ground was slushy, so the men often waded knee-deep in the snow, carrying their canoes and other burdens. When he reached Fort Miami he learned that nothing had been heard of the Griffin. To this day it isn't known whether the ship was destroyed by Indians, by the crew, or by a storm on the lake. When he reached Fort Niagara his companions were exhausted, so La Salle took three fresh men and went on to Fort Frontenac. He had traveled on foot for sixty-five days, the hardest journey ever made by a Frenchman in America. He had a frame of iron and a mind that would not admit of defeat.

From Montreal he got the supplies he needed, then returned to Fort Frontenac. Here he received a letter from Tonti saying that soon after he had left Fort Crevecouer nearly all the men had deserted. They had also destroyed the fort and had thrown into the river what they couldn't carry away. Soon other messengers arrived telling La Salle that the deserters had destroyed Fort Miami on the St. Joseph, had seized furs belonging to him at St. Ignace and had robbed Fort Niagara. Twelve of them in their canoes were headed for Fort Frontenac, according to the report, to kill La Salle.

With nine men La Salle went to meet these deserters who were planning to kill him. He surprised them, killed two in the fight that took place, and took ten of them prisoners to Fort Frontenac. Here he left his prisoners for the governor to deal with.

He was worried about Tonti, and wondered whether he had been able to save the vessel they had started and the tools they needed. With twenty-five men he started again for the Illinois region, going around the Great Lakes to Fort Miami. From here he hurried on to the Kankakee river and the Illinois, down to the village of Kaskaskia. The place was deserted. Even the graves had been opened and the corpses had been dragged out. It was evident that the Iroquois Indians had attacked and destroyed the Illinois.

There were no traces of Tonti and his party, so La Salle went on to Fort Crevecouer. Nobody was here, though the boat still remained as it was, except that the iron nails and spikes had been pulled out by the Indians. Down to the mouth of the Illinois, where it empties into the Mississippi they went, and still found no sign of Tonti. They painted a message in Indian signs on a board for Tonti in case he should come this way. Then they started back. This time they followed up the Desplaines river. Near the water's edge they saw a rude cabin of bark. When La Salle examined it he found a board that had been cut by a saw. He was sure it had been done by white men, and he felt sure it must have been Tonti's party on its way north to St. Ignace.

La Salle now went across country to Fort Miami. Here he spent the winter. During his stay at this fort he changed his plans somewhat. He saw that the Iroquois must be stopped from attacking the Indians of this region if his plan of settling the country should ever be successful. So he made friends with different tribes near by and told them he would help to protect them from the Iroquois, but they must be friendly among themselves. He planned to build a fort on the Rock, now Starved Rock, and to make it a great trading center, with the Indians settling nearby. To make this plan a success he saw he must find the mouth of the Mississippi so as to be able to ship his furs easily to Europe.

Towards the end of May 1681 he set out in canoes for St. Ignace, where he found Tonti. They then paddled their canoes over a thousand miles to Fort Frontenac. That fall he started back to the Illinois country. At Fort Miami he chose eighteen Indians to go with his twenty-three Frenchmen. As the Indians insisted on taking their ten squaws and their children, the entire party was fifty-four persons.

On the twenty-first of December, 1681, Tonti with some of the party set out from Fort Miami in six cances for the little Chicago river. Here near the mouth of the river La Salle and the rest of the party joined them in a few days. As the streams were covered with ice they made sleds. On these they dragged their cances, the baggage, and a Frenchman who had been hurt. They crossed the Chicago portage that Joliet and Marquette had crossed eight years before. They dragged their sleds till they reached open water near Peoria. In their cances they then paddled down the Illinois to the Mississippi, and then followed this stream downward.

At one place the hunters went out to look for game. All returned but one, Prudhomme. They spent several days searching for him. Finally he was brought in, half starved. He had lost his way. The fort they had built while waiting for Prudhomme was named in his honor, and here with a few others he was left as the rest of the party went on their way.

They passed various tribes of Indians and were entertained royally by them. At one place they visited the village of the Natchez Indians, whose chief was the Brother of the Sun. The temple was made of sun dried brick. Within it was the sacred fire.

On the sixth of April, 1682, the party reached the place where the river divided into three broad channels. La Salle followed the one to the west, Dautray the one to the east, and Tonti the one in the middle. After they had reached the Gulf of Mexico they turned back. On a spot of dry ground not far from the mouth of the river they put up a column with the arms of France, also a cross. Near by they buried a leaden plate. La Salle then laid claim to all the land drained by the Mississippi, and named it Louisiana in honor of the king, Louis the Fourteenth. This was on the ninth of April, 1682.

On the way back, as they paddled up the Mississippi, La Salle became very sick. Tonti hastened to St. Ignace to send word to Canada of the success of their voyage, but La Salle stayed at Fort Prudhomme. In one of his letters he wrote, "On the way back I was attacked by a deadly disease which left me in danger of my life for forty days, and left me so weak that I could think of nothing for four months after." As soon as he was well enough he came back into the country of the Illinois. On top of the great rock near the Indian village of Kaskaskia he and Tonti built a fort. This was in December 1682. They cut away the trees on top of the rock, built a storehouse and homes, and then built a fence of logs, a palisade, around the edge of the rock. La Salle called this place Fort St. Louis. It is now called Starved Rock.

The Illinois Indians, as many as six thousand, came back to their village Kaskaskia. Other Indians made their villages near the foot of the rock. La Salle reported there were about twenty thousand Indians around his new fort. He planned to protect these Indians against the Iroquois. He also planned to trade the furs he got from them for goods from France. Another fort and a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi were included in his plans, so that it might be possible to go to France and back again without going through Canada, the land of ice and snow.

As long as Frontenac was governor, La Salle had an opportunity to work out his plans, but Frontenac was recalled by the king. La Barre was sent out as the new governor, and La Barre didn't like La Salle. He ordered La Salle to return to Canada, and he sent another man to take his place. But La Salle had already started back.

He went on to France and talked to the king himself about this new country. He told the king also that if he would provide a vessel with thirty guns and two hundred armed men he himself would build a fort near the mouth of the Mississippi, or Colbert as he called it, and would then drive the Spanish out of northern Mexico.

The king was greatly pleased with La Salle and with his plans. He sent word to La Barre, governor of Canada, to give back everything he had taken from La Salle. The king helped to secure four vessels. A hundred soldiers and a number of workmen joined the party, also men of a better class, and a number of young women.

Beaujeu the captain and La Salle quarreled frequently in the trip, as each thought he ought to be in command of the men while at sea. One of the four vessels was captured by pirates. When the other three vessels reached the island of St. Domingo, La Salle and several others became very sick with a fever, and La Salle almost lost his mind. Finally they sailed away into the Gulf of Mexico, but they went too far to the westward and landed on the low wet shore of Texas. Two of the vessels anchored here. The other sailed back to France, leaving La Salle and his party.

Now began more hard times for this little party of Frenchmen. It was hard to get good water for drinking. Indians killed some of the men. Both of their vessels were wrecked, one in a storm, the other when trying to run into a shallow harbor. The loss of these ships meant the loss also of their clothes and of other goods on board. It was enough to make even the strongest men give way, but La Salle kept his own courage and tried to cheer the others.

They built a fort not far from the gulf coast. Then with

a few men La Salle started to find the mouth of the Mississippi, in the hope of getting help from Tonti in the Illinois country. They had no shoes, so they made moccasins of buffalo hide, but these rude shoes had to be kept wet or their feet would be hurt by the rough hide. After a time they were able to get softer deer skin from some of the Indians. From this they made much more comfortable moccasins and so could travel much better.

One day La Salle sent a few of his men in search of food. His own nephew was one of the men. There was a quarrel among some of the men that night, and three of La Salle's most faithful men were killed in their sleep by the others. The next day La Salle became anxious at the absence of his nephew and started out himself to find the party. When the murderers saw him approaching, all but one hid. This man answered La Salle's questions in an impertinent manner. When La Salle in his anger started toward him, he was shot and killed by the men in ambush. La Salle was but forty-two years old when he was killed. He had done more than any other man to make of this country another France. He had dreamed great dreams, but his plans had failed because of savage white men in this new wild country.

Tonti, who was at Fort St. Louis in Illinois, heard of La Salle's death months afterwards. Then, with some of his men, he tried to find the rest of the party that La Salle had left on the gulf. They couldn't be found. For several years Tonti, the Iron-Handed, lived at Fort St. Louis. He was in the Chicago region on several occasions. Finally he, too, died near the Gulf of Mexico.

La Salle street is a monument to the memory of Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, a man whose vision was marvelous, but whose life and death were tragic.

Between the 30's and 40's business crossed the river from

the North Side and hummed most loudly about the intersection of Lake and La Salle streets. On July 9, 1836, the "American" called the attention of its readers to a pond of water at the corner of Lake and La Salle streets which was inhabited by frogs. The item states, "It smells strong now, and in a few days will send out a horrible stench."

La Salle street was made a plank road in 1849. Altogether three miles of this paving were laid at this time at a cost of \$31,000. In 1862 the La Salle street side of the Court House Square was made up largely of forsaken residences. Several years later, when the Chamber of Commerce was established at Washington and La Salle, this region came into demand for business purposes.

P. F. W. Peck put up a small building of ash and walnut in the spring of 1833 on the corner of South Water and La Salle for a store and real estate office. It was said to have been the third frame building in town. Rev. Jeremiah Porter organized the First Presbyterian Church in its second story in June 1833. Mr. Peck made his home on the southwest corner of La Salle and Washington. At one time he remarked that he would have to move as he was too close to the Baptist Church. The difficulty was that on rainy Sundays people took advantage of his home and went there in large numbers for Sunday dinners, and he couldn't well prevent it. He later moved to Clark and Jackson, then to Terrace Row. For some vears before his home at La Salle and Washington was torn down it was used as the headquarters of the police department, with a calaboose in the basement. It was destroyed in 1867.

During the 60's, at the southwest corner of La Salle and Randolph, was a time-worn, two-story frame house, known as "The Sharp Corner," Ibach was the proprietor, Gottlieb was the factorum. It was an old-time Bohemian eating-house, "where the food was ever savory and the beer of the best." Ibach played the zither with rare ability and played as a soloist at some of the summer night concerts of Theodore Thomas.

The Chicago Board of Trade was first organized March 13, 1848, and was incorporated by the legislature April 13, 1850. The Chamber of Commerce was erected in 1865 at the southeast corner of Washington and La Salle. In the second story of this building the Board of Trade had quarters. Here they stayed until April 28, 1885, when they dedicated their own new building at Jackson and La Salle. The dome and clock were prominent features of this building until their removal in the 90's. The new building, topped by Ceres, was completed on the same site in 1930.

Prominent among the names of those who have run corners on the Board of Trade, or have tried to run them, are Ed Pardridge, Joseph Leiter, Philip D. Armour, B. P. Hutchinson and James A. Patten. The history of these deals spelled wealth for some and ruin for others.

The name of La Salle street recalls many financial ghosts of the past, the past of long ago and of recent times. Chicagoans have passed through the financial panies of 1837, 1873 and 1893. They survived the series of depressions and recessions constituting the panic of 1929. They have seen the parade of unpaid teachers of their public schools. They have read of a government loan of ninety millions to preserve the integrity of one of their banks. They remember that most of the neighborhood banks were closed to maintain the standing of the larger loop banks. They recall that through the Reconstruction Finance Corporation of the government the banks secured a mortgage on all the school real estate not used for school purposes in order to allow the Board of Education to pay back salaries. They remember, though less vividly, that the banks secured the low numbers of the Board of Education tax warrants, which have already been redeemed, while holders of high numbers saw their hopes of redeeming their tax warrants receding farther and farther into the distance.

On the other hand Chicago citizens have been glad to recognize that their banks, centering in La Salle, have been greatly responsible for the development of Chicago and of the Middle West.

CHAPTER III

1776 "The first flat in Chicago."

Early Chicago



THE FIRST FLAT of 1776 very evidently was not of the type so popular today. Nor was this flat first established in 1776. The artist has merely indicated that the flat existed at this time and has left to others the problem of its antiquity.

Mr. Wilder has here seized upon a word that has meant much to local dwellers. Neither the word "apartment" nor "tenement" was much used in Chicago when the sudden increase in population led to stacking families one above another in flat residences instead of in houses. Flat is not a euphonious word, nor is "flat life" always pleasant. Cartoonists and humorous writers alike often make use of the unnatural situation of one family living so within sight and sound of another family that privacy is impossible.

The flat sands on which the city was built, only to be rebuilt on successive higher levels, were the first flats of Chicago. Separation of families, however, from Mother Earth dates back to the tree-dwellers and lake-dwellers. It is continued in savage countries overrun by snakes and other foes and in modern cities overrun by enemies of a different kind.

Geologists have said that the glaciers from the north invaded this region some fifty thousand years ago. As the last glacier withdrew, the melting ice first formed ponds and then a lake between the receding ice and the ridges of clay and boulders that had been deposited at the limits of the ice. Later the water withdrew to its present boundaries, and this vast plain was left, from twelve to fifteen miles in width and extending like a crescent about this south end of the lake.

Early Chicago

Over the flat low plain the Indians hunted the wild game and each other. White men hesitated to make their homes in a place so marshy and unhealthful. The first "white man" to make a permanent settlement here was a mulatto, Jean Baptiste Pointe de Saible. This was in 1779, or more likely in 1784. He chose as his home a site near the lake, just north of the river, and built for himself a log cabin. It was he or his successor, Jean Lalime, who set out the four Lombardy poplars in front of the cabin. The artist was therefore slightly amiss in his dates when he portrayed these poplars as full grown in 1776. Such is poetic, or artistic, license, and calls for no criticism.

When the early settlers began coming from the East, after the publicity northern Illinois had received from the soldiers returning to their Eastern homes from the Black Hawk War of 1832, most of them went on through to the higher, healthier lands farther west or farther south. Yet some remained here where the river combined with the lake to make a water passageway into the interior. They may have been dazzled by the same visions of future greatness that appeared to Joliet and to La Salle a century and a half earlier.

Charles Cleaver has given an account of some of the difficulties due to the mud as late as the 30's. "The country immediately around the village," he said, "was very low and wet, the banks of the river not being more than three or four feet above the level of the water. More than a third of the river was covered with wild rice, leaving but a small stream in the center."

In describing a drive of a mile and a half northwest of town to the Elston home one spring, he said: "It was with the greatest difficulty that two good horses could pull the empty wagon through the two feet of mud and water across the prairie we had to pass. I once heard Mr. Elston's place called 'The Mud Farm,' not an inappropriate name for it at that time.''

"A year or two later," he said, "I saw many teams stuck fast in the streets of the village. I remember once a stage coach got mired on Clark street opposite the present Sherman House, where it remained several days with a board driven in the mud at the side of it bearing this inscription, 'No bottom here.' "

Quaife has said it was necessary for farmers hauling loads to Chicago to go in companies, for the stalling of a wagon in a slough was of frequent occurrence, and the aid of fellow teamsters in unloading the wagon and drawing it from the morass was indispensable. Such aid was rendered as a matter of course, for every driver knew that it might soon be his turn to call for help. The Hoosier wagoners even developed a well-recognized law of the road whereby he who succeeded in extracting a stalled wagon with the same number of horses as his unfortunate neighbor drove, was entitled to appropriate the string of harness bells of the latter by way of signalizing his triumph and the prowess of his steeds.

Smallpox first created a scare in Chicago in 1848. Cholera was brought to the city April 29, 1849, by the canal boat John Drew. The captain of the boat himself was the first victim. There were 678 deaths from cholera during that year, one in thirty-six of the entire poulation. People using well water suffered more generally than those using hydrant water brought in from the lake. Other epidemics of smallpox and of cholera emphasized the need of better sanitation.

A Board of Sewerage Commissioners was created by the legislature in 1855, and E. S. Chesbrough was appointed chief engineer. He had surveys made and drew up a system of sewerage. He insisted that the sewers should discharge into the river by gravity. This called for the raising of the level of the streets. Grades in the streets and down-town lots were raised from four to seven feet during the following year. Much of this filling was said to have been with material excavated from the Illinois and Michigan Canal. Thus Chicago began pulling herself out of the mud by her boot straps.

If the artist intended to convey the idea that the favorite sport of the Indian brave was to hurl spears or to shoot arrows at his neighbor, his historical accuracy may be questioned. The Indian seldom quarreled with his acquaintances, and then only when inflamed by the white man's whiskey. Such sudden drunken quarrels were settled by the scalping knife or the tomahawk, not the arrow and spear.

Moreover, it was the Scotchman of the 1890's, not the Indian of 1776, who introduced the expression of "Fore." The Scotchman who brought golf to this country is said to have made more widows than the Indian with all his ferocity.

The Indian really enjoyed friendly sports. Indian etiquette, or custom, forbade the brave from indulging in hard work. That was reserved for the squaw. Sports were, therefore, a necessity to keep him toned up for hostilities with other tribes. Wrestling and running were among their favorite sports, and the braves were skilled in both. Gurdon S. Hubbard was honored with the Indian name of Papamatabe, the Swift Walker, because of his winning a long distance walking race against an Indian competitor.

They were great gamblers too. Dice of plum stones were favorites with the braves, and with the squaws too. The greatest of all sports, though, was la crosse, introduced by the French and closely resembling hockey. This was played with a small ball of hard wood and with small racquets, somewhat like tennis racquets, only with longer handles and with smaller heads. Twenty or more took part on each side, sometimes one whole village against another. The game started in the morning after a night spent in dancing as a preparation for the great event. The players wore no clothes except their loin cloths. They sometimes wagered their blankets, their ponies, all their possessions, on the outcome of the game.

From the time the ball was thrown up in the middle of the field between the two goals, until near sundown the game went on furiously, each side trying to drive the ball between the opposite goal posts. Shins were banged and muscles were bruised, but that was part of the game. The Indian took his sport seriously.

CHAPTER IV

1779 ''In 1779 General George Rogers Clark wrested the Illinois country from the British. Clark street now bears his name.''



THE CLARK STREET of business houses, of flop houses, of the sign of the three gilded balls, of the Chinese quarter, would have seemed a strange place to Clark. There was no enterprising salesman trying to sell him a Masonic Temple, or other gold brick, in those early days in which he lived. Clark, in fact, never came into the Chicago region. He was busy farther south in the State, across the Wabash in Indiana, and across the Ohio in Kentucky.

The Middle West had a part, and an important part, in the winning of the Revolutionary War. On the Fourth of July, 1778, George Rogers Clark, with a small force of frontiersmen, took Kaskaskia from the British. General Hamilton, the British commander, surrendered Vincennes to Colonel Clark on the twenty-fifth of February, 1779. These were the outstanding events of the Revolutionary War in the West. Their importance cannot be stressed too strongly.

George Rogers Clark, the hero, was born in Virginia November 19, 1752. His birthplace was about a mile and a half from Monticello, which was later the home of Thomas Jefferson. Jefferson was nine years older than Clark, so they may never have met in the earlier years, though they were warm friends later. Clark and James Madison were probably schoolmates. George Rogers was the second of nine children. He received a common school education. His spelling was always careless, but mathematics and surveying were his favorite studies. In surveying he became very proficient. When Clark was nineteen years old, he crossed the mountains into the Ohio valley to explore the country and to locate some land for himself. About twenty-five miles below Wheeling, Ohio, he built a cabin. Here he devoted himself to improving his land and to hunting, fishing and surveying. In one of his letters home he wrote, "I get a good deal of cash by surveying on this river."

In the spring of 1773, with a party from Virginia, Clark went on down the Ohio into Kentucky. Later he took part in several campaigns against the Indians, and in 1775 settled in that country. At that time it was said of him: "He was brave, energetic, bold, prepossessing in appearance, of pleasing manners, and, in fact, with all the qualities calculated to win upon a frontier people. The unorganized and chaotic condition of the country needed such a man, and the man had come."

He developed as a military man. More and more he came to appreciate the political needs of this new country. The settlers needed organization and ammunition. There was little connection between Virginia and this western country, which Virginia claimed under her charter. Clark began to think of the possibility of a new state.

A council of settlers was called to meet at Harrodsburg June 6, 1776, to consider some of these questions. George Rogers Clark and John Gabriel Jones were selected by the council as members of the Virginia legislature to represent this western country. They started immediately for Williamsburg, the capital of Virginia, a journey overland of seven hundred miles. When they arrived, the legislature had adjourned, but Clark remained to see the governor, Patrick Henry. He asked for five hundred pounds of gunpowder. Governor Henry referred him to the executive council. When the council hesitated to provide the powder, Clark reminded the members that if Virginia did not provide for the protection of her pioneers, they would have to look elsewhere for support. If they were annihilated, he said, the older settlements would then be exposed to attack. Clark got the powder. It was delivered for him at Fort Pitt on the Ohio.

That fall Clark and Jones attended the sessions of the Virginia legislature. They were not recognized as members, but on their advice Kentucky was made a county of Virginia, with the boundaries it later had as a state. Returning to Kentucky, the two men took with them the powder. They were pursued by Indians but reached Limestone Creek, where they hid the powder. A small force of men under Colonel John Todd attempted to get and deliver the powder, but they were attacked and routed by the Indians. Clark then raised a company of thirty men, secured the powder and took it to Harrodsburg.

In the fall of 1777 Clark returned to Virginia and laid before Governor Henry a plan of attacking the English in the Illinois valley and on the Wabash. Burgoyne had recently surrendered, and it seemed a favorable opportunity to strike another blow at the English in the West. Clark was granted the privilege of raising three hundred fifty men, and was given a warrant upon the treasurer for twelve hundred pounds of money. He succeeded in raising only about one hundred fifty men, but with these he started down the Ohio on the twelfth of May, 1778. When they reached the Falls of the Ohio, near the present Louisville, they encamped on Corn Island. Here they built cabins, storehouses and fortifications. When Clark revealed his plans, hitherto kept secret, of attacking Kaskaskia, several of his men deserted.

With one hundred seventy-five men he started from Corn Island on the twenty-fourth of June, 1778. They shot the falls of the Ohio at the very moment the sun was in an eclipse, which caused some excitement. Most of the men believed this eclipse was a good omen. In four days they reached the mouth of the Tennessee River. Here they met a boat with a party of hunters who had left Kaskaskia only a few days earlier. They reported that Rocheblave, the commandant of Fort Gage at Kaskaskia, was expecting no attack on the land side but was carefully guarding the river approaches.

One of the hunters, John Saunders, was engaged as a guide to lead the party the one hundred twenty miles across country. Although he had claimed to be well acquainted with the country, he became lost on the third day. Clark suspected him of being a spy and of leading them astray purposely, so threatened him with death unless he speedily found the trail. The hunter soon discovered familiar land marks and led them faithfully to Kaskaskia, which they reached on the evening of the Fourth of July.

Clark then divided his small army into two divisions. He had learned that the French inhabitants of the town considered the "long knives" of Virginia and Kentucky especially dangerous men, and he made good use of that fear at this time. He directed one division to surround the town and to run through the streets yelling like wild. The other division he led in person to the fort. An American whom they had met admitted the party to the fort through a small back gate. Simon Kenton, one of Clark's officers, led a small party to the bedroom of the commandant, and found him asleep in bed.

Meanwhile, Clark is said to have gone to a large hall where the officers of the fort were giving a ball, to which they had invited the young people of the town. He stood at the door, looking on silently. Soon he was recognized by an Indian who had been lying on the floor. With a warwhoop the Indian called attention to Clark. The women screamed, while the men ran toward the door. Clark calmly told them to go on with the dance, but to remember that they were dancing under the flag of Virginia and not that of England.

Inhabitants of the town were greatly excited the next day, as they expected decidedly harsh treatment from these "long knives" of Clark. They said they were willing to be slaves in order to save their families. Father Pierre Gibault, the French priest, went to Clark with the request that the people be allowed to meet in their church for discussion and for religious worship. This Clark gladly granted. He also stated that France had declared her sympathy with the American cause. All the people then pledged their allegiance.

Clark sent Captain Bowman with thirty men to Cahokia and to the other towns en route. A number of Frenchmen from Kaskaskia accompanied the soldiers. Without the firing of a shot all these towns accepted the government of the Americans. The presence of the men of Kaskaskia had much to do with this acceptance.

East of the Mississippi lived many tribes of Indians, whose good will Clark was anxious to secure. At least, he wished to alienate them from the English. He let it become known that he would be glad to meet with them, but he showed no anxiety to do so, nor did he show any fear. Though he knew there were plans to kill him, yet he walked about unguarded. In his councils with the Indians he adopted a plan considerably different from that followed generally by the French and the English. He met the tribes separately and gave them no presents as he addressed them.

He told them that the French people, whom they had previously considered as brothers, had joined with the Americans against the English. Moreover, he had brought two belts of wampum, one white for peace, the other red for war. They might take both to their own councils and decide which they would bring back. It made little difference to his soldiers, he said, which they decided upon. In fact, the "long knives" would prefer to fight, he thought, as they were getting a little out of practice lately. In every case the white belt of peace was returned.

On one occasion a party of Indian warriors tried to force a way into Clark's lodgings in order to capture him. Instead they were captured by the guard and put in irons. Among them were some of the chiefs. He refused to free these chiefs until two young warriors were selected to give their lives in exchange for their imprisoned chiefs. The two young braves advanced to the middle of the circle of people, sat down before Clark, threw their blankets over their heads, and awaited the tomahawk which should end their lives. Clark then broke the silence by ordering the young men to arise. He assured them that because of their bravery he would grant peace and friendship to all their people.

Clark then turned his attention to Vincennes, on the Wabash river. Fort Sackville at Vincennes was occupied by the English, but the people of the town were French. Father Gibault suggested that he might be able to persuade these French people to join the Americans. He was successful. Lieutenant Helm was then sent to Vincennes by Clark to take charge. He garrisoned the fort largely with the French inhabitants.

When General Hamilton at Detroit heard of the capture of Vincennes he was wrathy. With a small army of English soldiers and about eleven hundred Indian allies he started toward Fort Sackville. The nearer he approached, the smaller became Helm's garrison. When Helm was called upon to surrender he had only one American soldier with him. Helm was kept as a prisoner. The fort was rebuilt and strengthened by the English.

Hamilton boasted that in the spring he would attack Kaskaskia and wipe out Clark's small force. In fact, he did send a small scouting party in the dead of winter and almost took Clark in ambush. Francis Vigo, an Italian trader with headquarters at St. Louis and a friend of Clark, allowed himself to be taken prisoner by Hamilton. When released, he gave Clark a clear account of the situation in Vincennes.

"It was at this moment," said Clark, "I would have bound myself seven years a slave to have had five hundred troops." But he had received no reinforcements from Virginia, and for nearly a year had heard nothing at all from Governor Henry.

Clark decided to attack Vincennes before Hamilton could expect him. With guns and ammunition he fitted out a large galley, the Willing, and put forty-six men on board. These he sent down the Mississippi with orders to go up the Ohio and the Wabash and to wait for him below Vincennes.

With one hundred twenty-seven men, nearly half of them French volunteers, he started overland the following day, February 6, 1779. It was the middle of winter. They had no wagons and few horses. Game was scarce, and the trails were often covered with water. As they approached the Wabash, they waded in water to their waists and at times even to their necks. They built a boat for the supplies and the men who were sick or exhausted. At one time it seemed they were about to refuse to enter the icy-cold water because of their weak and starving condition. Clark thereupon placed his little drummer boy, a lad of fourteen, upon the shoulders of a big sergeant, and gave the order to march. The drummer boy beat the charge, and all fell into line.

Finally, on the twenty-third of February, they got across

the Wabash and seized a canoe in which two Indian women had some meat. They ate, dried themselves, and rested. Vincennes was only two miles distant. A number of horsemen were seen shooting ducks in the lowlands near the fort. One of these, a Frenchman, was captured. He told them that no one suspected the approach of the Americans. He also said that the garrison had been reinforced by the arrival of two hundred Indians. Clark had only a fourth as many men as had General Hamilton, with his soldiers and Indian allies. If he should attack without warning, several of the villagers would probably lose their lives. This would embitter others that were then lukewarm in their allegiance to the British.

By the French hunter Clark sent the following letter to the villagers: "Gentlemen, being now within two miles of your village with my army, determined to take your fort this night, and not being willing to surprise you, I take this step to request of such of you as are true citizens and willing to enjoy the liberty I bring you, to remain still in your houses, and those (if any there be) that are friends to the King, will instantly repair to the fort and join the hair-buyer general and fight like men; and if any such as do not go to the fort shall be discovered afterwards, they may depend on being well treated, and I once more request they shall keep out of the streets, for every person I find in arms on my arrival I shall treat him as an enemy."

A messenger was sent to Hamilton the next morning demanding the surrender of the fort. Hamilton replied that they were not disposed to be awed into action unworthy of British subjects. Fighting continued. Later Hamilton asked for a conference, at which Clark demanded unconditional surrender. Hamilton objected, but did surrender on the twenty-fifth of February. He and several of his men were sent in chains to Virginia. Clark had hoped to lead a force

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against Detroit, for he knew that if Detroit were taken the English and Indians would be unable to further molest the border settlements. He was disappointed in this, as he never succeeded in getting together a force sufficiently large to enable him to attack the place.

When the treaty of peace was signed at Paris in 1783 between England and the United States, all the region northwest of the Ohio river was given to the United States, because Clark had taken it from the British and had held it. For several years after 1784 Clark, who had been commissioned a general by Washington, was busy in apportioning the land granted his soldiers in the Ohio valley. He himself lived much of the time in a little cabin at the foot of the Falls of the Ohio, on the Indiana side, in a town named Clarkville in his honor.

He had pledged all his own resources to carry on his campaigns. Virginia failed to reimburse him. The federal government, to whom Virginia gave this territory in 1784, also failed to relieve him. He was harassed by his creditors. He had never married, as he realized that in his circumstances he could not support the maiden of St. Louis whom he admired. He became morose and bitter, and drank heavily.

One night after a party of friends had spent the evening in his cabin, he had a paralytic stroke. He fell to the floor and one of his legs was badly burned. It was necessary to amputate it. His former drummer boy played for two hours while the operation was being performed without anesthetics. Thereafter Clark lived with his sister in Kentucky.

One day, while sitting in his wheelchair, he was visited by a delegation from his native state of Virginia. They presented him with a sword specially forged for the occasion. The same resolution of the legislature which provided for the sword also granted him an annual pension of four hundred dollars, half of what he had formerly received as colonel of the Illinois militia. This was February 20, 1812. He died February 13, 1818, the same year in which Illinois became a state.

The old Northwest Territory, from which have been carved the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, became American territory because of the vision and energy of George Rogers Clark. In spite of tremendous discouragements he persevered until he won success in this western campaign, the share of the West in the Revolution.

Clark Street

Clark street preserves the name of George Rogers Clark. For a long time the name of the street was spelled Clarke until it was found that Clark's name was properly spelled without the final "e."

As early as 1837, the year that Chicago became a city, there was trouble between the people on the north side of the river and those on the south side over the question of bridges and ferries. An early writer said: "Every night there came up out of the south a great fleet of prairie schooners that anchored on the Reservation. It often numbered five hundred and came laden with wheat and corn and all sorts of produce. All the warehouses in that day were built on the north bank of the river. The South Side opposed the Clark street bridge in order that the prairie schooners might be compelled to trade on the south bank. The north side warehouses were in sore distress. They needed a connection with the other two towns. The council was evenly divided. Mayor Raymond cast the deciding vote. The North Side won her bridge."

During the spring of 1839 there were two ferries running, one at Clark street and the other at State street. On the eighteenth of April, 1840, the Clark street bridge was commenced. This really terminated the bridge war between the two sides. It was a floating bridge, the first constructed in the West, and was mainly the work of William B. Ogden, prominent business man and first mayor of the city. To open the bridge one of the floats was pulled around by means of a chain and windlass. Nine years later it was swept away in the flood of 1849.

In the spring of 1848 Clark street was numbered from South Water street to Randolph. The Lake Shore Plank Road, an extension of North Clark street, was under contract in 1854, and was to run parallel with the lake shore for five miles. During this same year of 1854, on the first of September, Stephen A. Douglas crossed the bridge on Clark street on his way back to the Tremont Hotel after a fruitless attempt to talk to a large crowd on the North Side with reference to his stand on the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. As he and his party crossed the bridge, it was swung open behind him, preventing most of the mob from following him. In 1862 it was said that Clark street was the only one of the four streets fronting on the Court House Square that was in touch with business.

The Third Avenue Primary School was established at Harrison and Clark on February 1, 1870. It was declared an independent school September 3, 1872 and named Harrison Street Primary. At that same time Alice L. Barnard was elected principal of the school.

It was this same neighborhood, corner of Harrison and Clark, in which Carter H. Harrison made his home when he came to Chicago in 1858.

In 1904 there was agitation on the part of the business men to change the name of the street because of the stigma then attached to it. Chief of Police O'Neill on the tenth of April of that year said that the main reason for wanting the name of South Clark street changed to McKinley avenue would be removed, as he had sent notice to the saloon keepers of that street, warning them that after the first of May women would not be allowed in the saloons. As he said, "May first is only three weeks off, and after that the street that honors the memory of George Rogers Clark will honor it in a different style."

William O. Clark, a visitor from the West, said on the sixteenth of April, 1909, "If we had half the stuff Clark street pours down its throat every day out in my country, we'd be growing watermelons or orchards in Death Valley in a couple of years."

CHAPTER V

1795 "In 1795, at Greenville, Ohio, 'Mad Anthony' Wayne induced the Indians to sign a treaty by which six square miles at the mouth of the Chicago river was ceded to the government for a trading post."



MANY a high school and college youth, in years long gone, has debated the question: "Resolved, that the pen is mightier than the sword." They did not realize what the artist makes clear — that the question was decided many years earlier, and no youthful debater could change the decision. Alexander, Caesar and Napoleon had shown the temporary advantage of the sword over the hordes of untrained opponents. Anthony Wayne, educated in the schools of Pennsylvania, demonstrated the permanent advantage of the sword in 1795. On that occasion the untutored savage, armed with the pen, subscribed to the philosophy of the tutored white man armed with the sword. From that time onward the Indian signed every treaty preferred by the white man whenever he, the white man, wished more of the red man's hunting grounds.

The Treaty of Greenville bears witness to the supremacy of the sword over the pen, at least when the pen was wielded by the red man and the sword was wielded by the white man.

Cession by England to the United States in 1783 of the territory northwest of the Ohio river did not bring peace to that region. The British retained several forts within the ceded territory, and from these centers they encouraged the Indians in hostility toward the Americans. Tribes living in the valleys of the Miami and Wabash rivers were especially bitter, and refused to accept any offers of peace from the government. Under the leadership of the Miami chief, Little Turtle, they formed a confederation. Little Turtle was born on the banks of the Miami about 1747. Among the various tribes he had gained a reputation for good judgment, for skill and for bravery. He was at least six feet tall and was strong and fearless. In ability he has been ranked with Pontiac, who had been killed several years earlier, and with Tecumseh, who became famous about the time of the War of 1812, — the three ablest Indian warriors in the history of the United States.

Living with Little Turtle was William Wells, captured as a boy of eleven in an Indian raid on Kentucky. Adopted by Little Turtle, he had grown up as an Indian, had married the daughter of Little Turtle, and was held in high regard by his adopted father.

A system of government for the Northwest Territory was adopted by Congress on July 13, 1787, and became known as the Ordinance of 1787. Just a year later Arthur St. Clair was appointed governor of the territory. St. Clair was born in Scotland in 1734 and had studied medicine, but in 1758 he came to America and served with distinction in the French and Indian War under General Wolfe. During the Revolution he was for a time an aide of General Washington and served as the member of the court that condemned Major Andre.

As governor of the Northwest Territory he chose his capital on the Ohio river and gave to the place, then called Fort Washington, the name Cincinnati in honor of the Society of the Cincinnati formed at the close of the Revolution by officers of the army. In 1790 he visited Fort Washington, Vincennes and Kaskaskia to establish the new government. Thereupon the Indians, incited by the British, became more aggressive and attacked several of the frontier settlements.

General Josiah Harmar, in command of the troops at Fort

Washington, was directed this same year to lead an expedition against the Indians. He had 320 regular soldiers and about 1100 militia, commanded by Colonel Hardin but subject to General Harmar's orders. This body of militia contained many boys and infirm men. They were poorly equipped and entirely undisciplined.

When this little army reached the villages of the Miami Indians, it burned them and destroyed the corn fields, then made camp there. A portion of the troops was sent forward under Colonel Hardin, but the Indians were lying in ambush and routed them. A few days later, when Colonel Hardin with a small force was distant from camp, Little Turtle led his men against them. His braves gave way before the fire of the militia and fled. While the militia were in pursuit of the Indians, other larger numbers of braves fell upon the regulars and almost annihilated them. General Harmar then retreated to Fort Washington. Criticism of the campaign was so great that both Harmar and Hardin demanded courtmartials. They were both acquitted, but General Harmar immediately afterward retired from the army.

Encouraged by their success, the Indians renewed their attacks upon the unprotected settlements. Little Turtle of the Miamis, Blue Jacket of the Shawanees and Buchongehelas of the Delawares formed a conspiracy among the Indians to drive the white settlers out of the territory north of the Ohio river. They were assisted by the white renegades — Simon Girty, Alexander McKee and Matthew Elliott. The warriors headed by these men were probably better disciplined as fighters than any other bands of Indians in the history of the country. Nothing but their decisive defeat at the hands of a large and well-drilled army could save the white men and their families.

Governor St. Clair was appointed Major General and
given command of the forces to be raised. President Washington wished him success and personally warned him, "Beware of a surprise." The main purpose of the proposed expedition was to establish a fort at the Miami village, Fort Wayne, so as to prevent the Indians of that region from carrying on further hostilities. This place had been the center of power of the Miami tribes. Little Turtle later referred to it as "That glorious gate through which all the good words of our chiefs had to pass from the north to the south and from the east to the west."

General St. Clair made his headquarters at Fort Hamilton, twenty-five miles north of Cincinnati. St. Clair was unpopular, so that men did not volunteer, and militia were drafted from Kentucky. Altogether he had an army of about two thousand, but about a third of them deserted before the campaign opened. The army moved northward until within fifteen miles of the Miami village, then went into camp on the third of November, 1791.

At a war council on that same day the Indians planned their attack. Little Turtle was in general command. Shortly after dawn on the following morning the Indians attacked the pickets of the militia with a heavy musket fire and with terrible yells. The militia, confused, fled into the camp of the regulars. Then the Indians surrounded the camp, dodging from tree to tree and creeping from log to log. The soldiers, in close formation, could not see where to direct their fire, but they themselves were cut down by the musket balls and the tomahawks of the Indians. General Butler, second in command, was killed in action, and Governor St. Clair's clothes were pierced by eight bullets, though he himself was untouched. Time and again the soldiers charged with bayonets, but the Indians gave way only to close in again behind the charging troops. For two hours the fight continued, then the Americans retreated. The retreat became a stampede, with the Indians in pursuit for four miles, until Little Turtle recalled his warriors to divide the spoils.

St. Clair's defeat was the worst the Americans ever experienced at the hands of the red men. When President Washington received the news of the disaster, he gave way to a burst of rage. "To suffer that army to be cut to pieces," he burst forth, "hacked by a surprise — the very thing I guarded him against! How can he answer it to his country?"

Congress immediately provided for the raising of another army, for it was absolutely necessary to conquer the Indians or to retire from the territory. General Anthony Wayne was given command on the recommendation of President Washington. He was often called "Mad Anthony" because of his reckless daring in the capture of Ticonderoga. Indians called him "Black Snake" because of the superior cunning that they acknowledged him to possess. At that time he was fortyseven years of age, of medium height and with keen, expressive eyes.

In the summer of 1793 General Wayne marched slowly into the Indian country with a large force. He took time to drill his troops and to build roads. At the scene of St. Clair's defeat he put up Fort Recovery, and on the Miami river he built Fort Defiance. He also built Fort Greenville in honor of Nathaniel Green, as he advanced still farther.

Williams Wells, the white Indian, called Little Turtle aside one day. He reminded the chief that he had lived with the Indians since he was a young boy, that he had married into Little Turtle's own family, and that he had fought side by side with the Indians against the armies of General Harmar and Governor St. Clair. "Now," he said, "I am leaving you to join General Wayne, for I feel that I cannot fight against my own kinsmen from Kentucky. From the time the sun reaches yon point in the sky we must consider ourselves as enemies and free to kill each other."

Wells then joined the troops of General Wayne, and became leader of the scouts for the army. He knew the country; he knew the Indians and their dialects; he knew their methods and he dressed like an Indian. Though he had several hairbreadth escapes, he learned the plans of the red men and saved Wayne from surprise attacks.

General Wayne continued to advance. His men cleared two roads to deceive the Indians, though he marched by neither. He had hoped to surprise them, but they were too wary to be caught thus. He sent a flag of truce to them in an attempt to persuade them to agree to a treaty of peace. They put him off, then called a council of war. In this council some of the chiefs wanted to attack at once the camp of Wayne with his army of four thousand. Others wanted to choose their own ground, in front of the British fort near by, as they hoped for support from the English soldiers.

Little Turtle addressed them. "We have beaten the enemy twice under separate commanders," he said, "we cannot expect the same good fortune always to attend us. The Americans are now led by a chief who never sleeps. There is something whispers to me it would be prudent to listen to his offers of peace." He was reproached for cowardice. Thereupon he yielded the chief command to his opponent Blue Jacket. He personally took command of his Miami warriors.

Wayne moved his troops forward the following day, August 20, 1794. The Indians were lying in ambush at a place called Fallen Timbers because of the great number of trees blown down in a previous tornado. They fired upon the advance guard. The infantry thereupon charged into the forest with bayonets, while the cavalry attempted to make a circuit and thus cut off their retreat. The Indians were driven with great loss for several miles, even to the gates of the British fort, but the gates did not open to them, and they were cut down in great numbers. Wayne then destroyed the cornfields and laid waste all their villages. He sent them word that they must make peace or suffer destruction.

The Indians agreed to sign a treaty and gathered at Fort Greenville to the number of 1130 for that purpose. On the third of August, 1795, the treaty was signed. No chief or warrior who gave his hand to General Wayne at Greenville ever afterward lifted the hatchet against the United States. A vast tract of land was ceded to the government in this treaty. One small bit of territory exacted from the Miamis was a strip six miles square at the mouth of the Chicago river. In turn the government agreed to pay the tribes annually the sum of \$9500. William Wells acted as Wayne's secretary. Present also was William Henry Harrison, an aide of General Wayne, but later to became governor of the territory and still later to became president of the United States.

CHAPTER VI

1803 "In 1803 Captain John Whistler was sent to build a fort at the mouth of the Chicago river. This was the first Fort Dearborn."

Early Chicago



A FTER SELECTING a site at the mouth of the Chicago river for the new western fort Captain John Whistler and his family came from Detroit in the Tracy, a sailing vessel. That is, they all came in the vessel as far as the mouth of the St. Joseph river. From there the Captain and his son, Lieutenant William Whistler, finished the voyage in a rowboat. The ladies remained on board the Tracy. Lieutenant Swearingen led the soldiers on foot from Detroit. They all reached the future metropolis about the same time. The Chicago harbor did not then exist, so the Tracy kept its distance, and the ladies came ashore in a rowboat.

As there were no horses nor oxen to be secured in the vicinity, the soldiers not only cut and trimmed the trees along the north shore, but they also got the logs to the river's edge by their own hard labor. They floated the logs across to the south side, and again with strenuous effort they set them up in the form of a double stockade and of quarters for officers and men. Captain Whistler, who had drawn the plans for the fort, directed its erection. In this work the Indians were more of a hindrance than a help. Their curiosity and acquisitiveness were noteworthy, not their assistance. In fact, the Indian brave seldom exerted himself except in war, in the hunt and in sports.

Mr. Wilder has sacrificed a few little historical details for the general historical effect. The river did not then flow directly into the lake but turned sharply to the southward, because of sand fills, and entered the lake several rods farther south. Jean Lalime, the French trader, was living in a log cabin on the north bank, and it is very doubtful if any Indian wigwams were on the sand point between him and the lake.

The disrespect shown the Indians by the industrious, though beaver-hatted, soldiers was inconsistent with the need for gaining and retaining the good will of the savages in this desolated wilderness. The captain, with his regard for authority, would scarcely have winked at such deeds on the part of his subordinates.

Two events led to the building of Fort Dearborn. One was the Treaty of Greenville in 1795 between the Indians and the Government. The other was the purchase of Louisiana by President Jefferson in 1803. The treaty of Greenville gave to the United States government the Indian title to the land north of the Ohio river and east of about the eastern line of the present Indiana. It also gave the government several scattered pieces farther west. Among these was "one piece of land six miles square at the mouth of Chikago River emptying into the southwest end of Lake Michigan where a fort formerly stood."

La Salle, in 1682, by right of exploration claimed for France in the name of King Louis the Fourteenth all the country drained by the Mississippi. The part east of the Mississippi was lost to England by France during the French and Indian wars, which ended with the peace of 1763. At the same time France gave to Spain all that part lying west of the Mississippi, also the Island of Orleans east of the river, near its mouth. Napoleon Bonaparte persuaded Spain in 1800 to give the land back to France.

When Thomas Jefferson became president in 1801, he feared that the French would not allow the Americans the use of the river as the Spanish had done, so he sent James Monroe to France to act with Robert Livingstone, Minister to France. These two men were authorized to offer two million dollars for that part of Louisiana east of the Mississippi. Napoleon needed money badly at the time, so he offered to sell all of Louisiana for fifteen million dollars. It looked like a bargain to the American representatives, so they closed the deal very quickly. This doubled the area of the United States.

The Northwest Territory had been made fairly safe for settlers by the Treaty of Greenville. Purchase of Louisiana made the Mississippi river free for American citizens to use and also opened a rich country to the westward for settlement. Pioneers began moving westward in large numbers. Protection against the Indians, however, was still necessary. No forts were nearer this new country than those at Detroit and Mackinac. General Henry Dearborn, Secretary of War, in April 1803 signed an order establishing a fort at the south end of Lake Michigan. He appointed Captain John Whistler commandant of this new fort, to be called Fort Dearborn in honor of himself.

General Dearborn had entered the Revolution as a young man, but had advanced rapidly and had taken a prominent part in the war. He had been present at the surrender of Burgoyne and later at the surrender of Cornwallis. President Thomas Jefferson appointed him Secretary of War. Captain Whistler, whom General Dearborn assigned to Fort Dearborn, had also fought in the Revolution but against the Americans. He had been one of the British officers who surrendered in 1777 with Burgoyne. He had then returned to England but had come back later to the United States and had entered the American army.

Captain Whistler, after receiving orders from General Dearborn, went with a small party to inspect possible sites for the new fort. His first choice was a site near the mouth of the St. Joseph river, but for some reason the Indians strongly opposed the erection of a fort at this place. He then went on to the Chicago river and decided on locating the new stronghold near its mouth.

The march from Detroit to the Chicago river was hard, and Captain Whistler was far from well at the time, so he and his family sailed from Detroit in the sailing vessel, the Tracy. The troops marched across by land under the command of Lieutenant James S. Swearingen, a young man of twenty-one who had volunteered to lead them. In his diary Lieutenant Swearingen wrote that they reached the Chicago river on the afternoon of August seventeenth, 1803. He added, "This river is about thirty yards wide where the fort is intended to be built, and from eighteen feet and upwards deep, dead water, owing to its being stopped up at the mouth by the washing of sand. The water is not fit to use."

Lalime, the French trader, offered the ladies the use of his log cabin, just opposite the site of the fort. His offer was gladly accepted. The soldiers lived in tents while building their quarters of wood. They cut down trees on the north side of the river, harnessed themselves with ropes and dragged the logs to the river, then floated them across.

Captain Whistler had chosen as the site of the fort a low mound just south of the river and west of the present Michigan avenue. At that time the river, instead of flowing directly into the lake, took a sharp turn southward for about half a mile. The fort was thus protected on both the north and east by the river. Posts about fourteen feet long were set in the ground, making a double fence, or stockade, about the fort. At the northwest corner, overlooking the river, was a blockhouse. Another at the southeast corner was about sixty yards from the stream. These two blockhouses not only commanded the view outside the stockade, but an enemy after getting over the outer wall of the stockade would still have been within range of the guns in the blockhouses. Two small cannon had been brought on the Tracy to be mounted in the fort.

Within the fort, but against the stockades, were built the quarters, for the officers on the east and west sides and for the men on the north and south. The space within was a parade ground for drills. Close to the quarters on the north side was a small building of brick, the magazine for the storage of ammunition. There was also a well within the grounds. About the middle of the south side was the main gateway. A sunken passage led out to the river on the north side. Several months were spent in the building of the fort. It was not completed until the summer of 1804.

John Kinzie, with his wife and infant son, arrived during the summer of 1804, coming over Indian trails from his trading post on the St. Joseph. They took possession of the log cabin, which he had previously bought from Lalime. Their cabin soon became the center of attraction for both red man and white man, for John Kinzie was a fur trader with a reputation for honest dealings, a justice of the peace, a skilful silversmith and a fiddler of renown. Mrs. Kinzie, too, was the soul of hospitality.

In 1805 the soldiers built a two-room log cabin just west of the fort as a government agency building. Charles Jouett received his appointment as Indian agent and appeared at his new post during that same year. Three years later he married Susan Allen in Kentucky and brought his bride back to Fort Dearborn in January of 1809 on horseback. The Lee family lived just a little south of the fort, though they owned a farm on the South Branch, about four miles distant. Just west of the Kinzie cabin was the home of Antoine Ouilmette, with Indian wife and half-breed children. A little farther west, on the north side of the river, was the Burns home. This was the little settlement about Fort Dearborn.

Until the War of 1812 the Indians of the neighborhood were not troublesome. For the most part life within the fort moved along quietly. There was the usual round of duties and of drills. Officers and men frequently fished in the river and in the lake. About once a week the officers hunted deer or wolves on horseback. Social events occurred occasionally, in which the families outside the fort mingled — the Kinzies, the Jouetts, the Burns, the Lees and the Ouilmettes. But there were also little rivalries and occasional breaking of the military rules. Sometimes a soldier who had partaken too freely of liquor or who had tried to desert was confined to the guardhouse or punished with twenty-five to fifty strokes of the lash.

On the parade ground was a large rock, an old granite boulder, which had formerly been hollowed on the top and used by the Indians as a mill in which to grind their corn. This had been chipped on one side into the crude representation of the face of Wau-ban-see, a friendly Indian chief. It was the usual loafing place for the soldiers.

In the fort trouble occurred over the question as to who should have the government appointment as sutler. The sutler had the privilege of selling to the soldiers those articles not given them directly by the government as rations and supplies. At one time the captain's son was favored, at another time the surgeon of the fort. John Kinzie wanted the job. Captain Whistler was accused of favoring his own family. Complaint was made to the government. The decision was that the officers should be scattered "for the good of the service." Captain Whistler was sent to Detroit. Captain Nathan Heald, a younger man who had been in command at Fort Wayne, was ordered to Fort Dearborn. This change of commanders took place in 1810.

While at Fort Wayne Captain Heald had become acquainted with Rebekah Wells of Kentucky. She had been at the fort to visit her uncle, William Wells, Indian interpreter and adopted son of Little Turtle — the same William Wells who as chief of scouts had helped General Wavne defeat the Indians in 1794. Shortly after Captain Heald came to Fort Dearborn he asked for a leave of absence. He said the place was so lonely for an unmarried man that he would resign if not given the leave. He went to New England but returned by way of Kentucky. Rebekah Wells and he were married May 23, 1811. Their wedding journey was by horseback over the Vincennes Trace back to Fort Dearborn. Cicely, her slave maid, accompanied the bride. The young wife enjoyed life here, and the social affairs were livelier because of her presence. During the summer of 1811 Lieutenant Linai T. Helm was transferred from Detroit to Fort Dearborn. He had recently married Margaret McKillip, step-daughter of John Kinzie. Fort Dearborn seemed to them a more pleasant as well as cheaper place in which to live. Ensign George Ronan, a high-spirited young fellow, was assigned to the fort about the same time, as was also the talented young surgeon, Isaac Van Voorhis.

On the seventh of April, 1812, the sergeant and several of the men went up the South Branch about five miles to fish. They had frequently gone there during the preceding weeks. When it was growing dark, they heard the gun of the fort. This was a signal of danger. They put out their lights and silently rowed back toward the fort. It was dark when they reached the Lee cabin on the South Branch, about four miles from the fort. Some of the men climbed over the fence to see if all were safe, for there were no lights in the cabin. They stumbled over a dead body, which they found had been scalped.

When they reached the fort they learned the cause of the alarm. The Lee boy, of fourteen years, and John Kelso, an ex-soldier, had arrived breathless from running. That afternoon eleven strange Indians in their war paint had stopped at the Lee cabin. Liberty White and a Frenchman, John Cardin, together with John Kelso and the Lee lad, lived here and worked the farm, which was afterwards called "Hardscrabble."

The men were suspicious of the actions of these warlike Indians. Kelso told young Lee to watch him and do as he did. Soon he got up and moved toward the river. The boy followed. The Indians asked what they were going to do. Kelso replied by signs that they planned to take care of the cattle grazing on the other side of the stream, after which they would return. The man and the boy paddled across the stream. When they were hidden from the view of the Indians by the haystacks, they struck out on a run for the fort. Soon they heard two shots and feared it meant the death of their companions. As they neared the fort, they should across the river to warn the Burns family, where there was a young baby and the mother still lying on her sick bed.

As soon as the two had told their story at the fort, Ensign Ronan and a party of soldiers went in a boat for Mrs. Burns and her family. The other settlers near by came in also. Next morning a detail of soldiers went to the Lee farm. They found the body of Liberty White scalped and terribly mutilated, his dog still watching by his side. The Frenchman was also dead and scalped. Later it was learned that these Indians were a small band of Winnebagoes out for scalps. Firing of the gun at the fort had prevented their trying to get any more scalps of the settlers, and they had gone back to their homes farther north.

For several months the garrison and the settlers were very anxious lest the Indians might be planning a general massacre. Captain Heald organized the men of the settlement into a small company of militia, fifteen in all. Three of these soon dropped out, leaving but twelve to assist the soldiers at a later day.

CHAPTER VII

1803 ''Chicago's first real estate transfer. In 1803 John Kinzie bought a home from Monsieur Le Mai.''



BUILDING OF FORT DEARBORN emphasized the future of this place for a fur trader. John Kinzie was already established as a trader with several posts, the one at the St. Joseph river in Michigan being farthest west. He had been in this vicinity on at least one of his various trips, and probably he had advised Captain Whistler of the desirability of the place, the natural meeting place of inland and lake traffic and one of the most frequently used routes from the Mississippi Valley to the towns of Canada.

Historians are not in full agreement as to whether John Kinzie came here in 1803 and purchased at that time the log cabin from LeMai, or Lalime, or whether the purchase was made during the following summer when he brought his family and household goods to this place. Hard money was not at all common at that time and most of the Indian trade was carried on by barter. It was not surprising that the Indian eyed with a great deal of curiosity and self-interest the sight of real money.

This cabin purchased by John Kinzie was originally built in 1784 (1779 according to Andreas) by Jean Baptiste Pointe de Saible, a mulatto born according to some historians in San Domingo, according to others son of a Canadian father. He was well educated. He could both read and write. With his Indian wife he lived here as a trader and succeeded fairly well. He was apparently ambitious to become chief in one of the Indian tribes but was disappointed in this ambition. In 1800 (1796 according to Andreas) he sold his cabin to another trader, the Frenchman Le Mai, or Lalime. He himself went to Peoria to spend the rest of his days.

Lalime also had an Indian wife and he too traded with the Indians. Either he or De Saible must have planted the four Lombardy poplars in front of the cabin, the poplars that the artist has used as the symbol for Chicago as Japanese artists usually introduce the volcano Fujiyama. On an autumn day in 1803 Lalime was surprised to see a rowboat with two officers pull up to the bank of the river. It was Captain John Whistler and his son William of Detroit, who had left the sailing vessel Tracy at the mouth of the St. Joseph and had come the rest of the way in the rowboat. The Frenchman offered his cabin for the use of the ladies of the party until the buildings of the proposed fort should be ready to house them.

During the summer of 1804 John Kinzie packed his goods and his family of wife and infant son on the back of Indian ponies, the moving vans of those early days. They followed Indian trails to their new home. As the years followed, the Indians brought much of the little silver money they received from the government to John Kinzie to be remodeled into silver ornaments of rings, bracelets and brooches. For this ability they gave Kinzie the name of Shaw-nee-aw-kee, the silver man. By this name he was known among the members of most of the western tribes. He was friend to both white men and Indians and was highly respected by all.

Both Mr. and Mrs. Kinzie had led adventurous and romantic lives prior to their coming to Chicago, and their life in Chicago was one of almost constant thrill and adventure.

John Kinzie was born in Quebec December 3, 1763, the son of Surgeon John McKenzie of the British army, who had been assigned to service in Canada. Major McKenzie died a few months after the birth of his son. The boy's name was recorded in the family Bible as "John Kinsey," but from early childhood he spelled his name "John Kinzie." John's mother soon married William Forsyth of New York, and some of the Forsyth sons were later identified with the events of early Chicago.

As a lad of ten years John attended school at Williamsburg, Long Island, with two of his half brothers. Each Monday morning a servant conducted them to school and each Friday afternoon took them home again. On one of these Fridays John could not be found when the servant appeared. He had disappeared, and no trace of him was discovered for three years. He had gone aboard a sloop which was just starting up the Hudson, with an idea that in Quebec he might find some of his father's relatives, for he was not entirely happy in his step-father's home.

Walking along the street of Quebec, John stopped to watch a man at work in a shop window repairing a clock. The yellow curls, blue eyes and pathetic little face appealed to the silversmith, and he beckoned the boy into his shop. John had no place to go, and the silversmith had no children, so the man took the boy into his home and for three years taught him as much of the silversmith's trade as the boy could master.

Then one day a man stopped the boy in the street and asked him, "Aren't you Johnny Kinzie?" The boy admitted he was, and Mr. Forsyth, his step-father, was notified of his whereabouts. John was then taken to Detroit, where the family was running a hotel. For several years John busied himself with his books and gained a good education for those days. But at the age of eighteen he persuaded his step-father to fit him out as an Indian trader.

He became a successful trader. Before he was twenty-one

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he had established two trading posts, one at Sandusky and the other at Maumee, both in the Ohio region. Later he opened another trading post on the St. Joseph in Michigan. He learned the Indian dialects easily. He was keen in trading and would not allow himself to be cheated nor would he cheat others. He quickly gained the confidence and esteem of many of the most powerful chiefs in the various tribes.

About the time John Kinzie was twenty-two he heard of two MacKenzie sisters who were being held captives among the Shawnee Indians. Margaret, the older, a girl of twenty, had made a night ride of seventy-five miles to escape from a young brave who wanted to marry her. Kinzie and his friend John Clark determined to rescue the girls, and finally succeeded by means of large ransoms. They took the girls to Detroit, and here John Kinzie and Margaret lived as man and wife, and so did John Clark and Elizabeth. To John Kinzie three children were born. When the father of the girls learned of their whereabouts he went to Detroit and took both young women and their children back with him to Virginia, where both women married. Two of John Kinzie's children, James and Elizabeth, later went to Chicago and took an active part in the affairs of the new settlement.

While John Kinzie was visiting William Forsyth, his half brother, in Detroit, he met Mrs. Eleanor McKillip, widow of Major McKillip, the English officer who had been killed during the Indian troubles in Ohio.

Mrs. McKillip, as Eleanor Lytle, had been born near Baltimore in 1771, a few years before the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. When she was very young the family moved westward into the pioneer country near Fort Pitt, now Pittsburgh. They settled on the banks of the Plum river, a tributary of the Allegheny. There were five children in the family. Eleanor, then a girl of eight, and her brother, two years younger, were playing together one afternoon in the fall of the year 1779. Their father was helping a neighbor with a house raising several miles away, and their mother was busy in the house with the baby and the hired girl. The other two children were also playing in the yard.

Suddenly Eleanor and her brother were seized from behind by several savages and were hurried away through the forest. That night another party brought in Mrs. Lytle and the baby. As it was difficult for Mrs. Lytle to carry the babe in her arms on the fast march next day, one of the Indians took the child and fell behind the others. When he joined them again, he did not have the child, but Mrs. Lytle did not dare to cry aloud lest it would mean harm to the other children.

After many days they reached a village of Seneca Indians near the source of the Allegheny river. Corn Planter, leader of the party, took the captives to his mother's wigwam and told her to care for the white woman and her children, as the British Indian agent would ransom them with horses and guns. Eleanor he said he would adopt as his sister in place of his brother who had been killed six months earlier.

When Mr. Lytle returned to his home he could find no one at first. After a search he discovered the hired girl and the two children who had hidden, but there were no traces of his wife and the other children. He hurried to Fort Pitt. Here the commander gave him a detachment of soldiers to help in the search. In the village of Corn Planter they found the missing ones. With blankets and ponies Mr. Lytle ransomed his wife and little son, but the chief would not part with Eleanor, not even at the request of Col. William Johnson, the British agent.

Chief Corn Planter and his mother treated Eleanor with

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much kindness and gave her wampum and brooches and the best of food. She grew up a happy, active girl and was called by an Indian name meaning, "The Ship Under Full Sail." Corn Planter's wife, however, was jealous of the girl and on one occasion at least attempted to poison her.

After war between England and the United States was settled by the peace of 1783, Mr. Lytle again implored Colonel Johnson to talk with Corn Planter about letting Eleanor return to her family. Colonel Johnson arrived in the Indian village during the Feast of Green Corn and saw Eleanor, the little Princess, richly dressed and wearing ribbons with ornaments of silver and wampum. Colonel Johnson told the chief the girl's father and mother had come hundreds of miles to see their little girl again.

Corn Planter finally agreed to take Eleanor with him to the Grand Council to be held at Fort Niagara on the British side of the river. He made Colonel Johnson promise that the child would not be taken away from him. The time of the Grand Council arrived. At the meeting place Corn Planter and his warriors were seen coming through the forest. Boats were sent across the river to get them. When Eleanor saw her mother she ran to her and sprang into her arms. As soon as the chief saw the meeting of the mother and her child he turned back, saying, "I will go home alone. The mother must have her child."

Among those who saw Eleanor return to her parents was Major McKillip who had lived near the Lytles at Fort Pitt. It was only recently he had heard of the capture of Eleanor, for he had been ordered to Detroit from Fort Pitt. During the Revolutionary War he had been captured by the Americans and held prisoner at Fort Kaskaskia. When he returned to Detroit upon his release at the close of the war he was given charge of Detroit but had taken a furlough so as to lend his efforts to secure from Corn Planter the release of Eleanor.

Eleanor grew to young womanhood. At an early age she and Major McKillip were married and she went with him to Detroit. According to the treaty of 1783 the English gave up their claim to the country south of the Great Lakes, but they retained an interest in the region and urged their Indian allies to continue fighting against the Americans. They built a small fort near Fort Defiance in order to give aid to the Indians. In the Battle of Fallen Timbers in 1794 the Indians were defeated and were glad to make peace. Major McKillip about that time was in command of this little English fort. He was absent from the fort one day when the password was changed. On his return he was shot by one of his own men who failed to recognize him when he was unable to give the new password. For several years after this Mrs. McKillip and her little daughter Margaret lived on a farm near Detroit.

In 1798 she and John Kinzie were married. They went to live at his trading post on the St. Joseph river. Here Captain John Whistler probably stopped in the early summer of 1803 while looking for a site for a new western fort. Kinzie knew of the Chicago portage between the Mississippi and the Great Lakes and very likely advised the Captain of its advantages. In October he himself came to Chicago to look over the situation. Establishment of a fort here would undoubtedly mean opportunity for a trading post. He bought from Lalime, a French trader, the log cabin built by De Saible just across the river from the newly started fort.

To this new, wild home John Kinzie brought his wife and son John, a child of but few months, in the spring of 1804. They improved the cabin by adding a porch, by building a fence and by putting up other buildings. The mean little cabin became a mansion for those days. The Indians came to trade. As they sat on the floor they watched Mrs. Kinzie at her work and Shaw-nee-aw-kee as he hammered their silver coins into ornaments which they were proud to wear. The Kinzies went often to the fort and joined in the festivities of the times, and the soldiers and women of the fort returned these visits.

Eleanor Marion Kinzie, or Nellie, was born on the 20th of December, 1805, the first white child to be born at Chicago outside the fort. Maria and Robert Allan were the younger children. Thus there were four children besides Margaret the stepdaughter, who became the wife of Lieutenant Helm, and besides the three children of Margaret Mac Kenzie. Kinzie prospered as a trader. He established other trading posts at Milwaukee, on the Rock river, on the Illinois river, on the Kankakee river and with the Kickapoo Indians in the Sangamon region. He was also sub-Indian agent and government interpreter.

On the seventh of April, 1812, occurred the tomahawking and scalping of Liberty White and John Cardin at the Lee farm several miles up the South Branch. When John Kelso and the Lee boy ran breathless into the fort that evening and told their story of the appearance at the farm of the eleven strange Indians and of the two gunshots they had heard as they started to run toward the fort, there was great excitement. The Burns family and the Kinzies moved into the fort for protection. They didn't feel easy for a long time afterward, even though they learned that the strange Indians were a stray scalping party of Winnebagoes from the western part of the State. The Potawatomi around the fort were too excitable, too easily influenced by others for the white people to feel entirely at ease in their presence.

It was during these exciting times that John Kinzie and Jean Lalime had their fatal struggle on the bank of the river, just outside the walls of the fort. Kinzie at this time was sutler of the fort, that is, he had the contract to supply the soldiers with those goods which the government did not supply for them. Lalime, a private fur trader also, was the Indian interpreter. Both were often in Fort Dearborn and both were on friendly terms with the soldiers, but between them there was jealousy. On this evening, as Kinzie was about to leave the fort, his son-in-law, Lieutenant Helm, called to him to beware of Lalime. Kinzie turned to see Lalime just behind him. The fight was on. In the struggle Kinzie was wounded in the neck and Lalime, stabbed to death, had fallen into the river. As Kinzie staggered into his home, he said, "I have killed Lalime. A guard will be sent from the fort to take me. Dress my neck quickly." Mrs. Kinzie. after caring for the wound, said, "They shall not take you to the fort, come with me to the woods." After the excitement was over Kinzie gave himself up. The wound showed that his jugular vein had barely been missed. There was testimony that Lalime had uttered threats against him. The verdict of the court-martial was "justifiable homicide." Lalime was buried in the Kinzie front yard and Kinzie gave the grave his special care.

On the ninth of August, 1812, Winnemeg came into the fort with a message to Captain Heald to the effect that war had been declared between England and the United States and that the garrison should be withdrawn. When Kinzie learned from Winnemeg the substance of the message, he attempted to dissuade Captain Heald from abandoning the fort. He then went with Heald to a council with the Indians, in which Heald promised them goods to the value of thousands of dollars and in which they promised the garrison safe escort to Fort Wayne.

When they returned to the fort, Kinzie reminded the

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captain that it would be opposed to good policy to give the Indians liquor and ammunition in time of war, so, as the story goes, Kinzie to satisfy Heald's scruples, forged an order directing the captain to destroy the articles. The liquor was poured into the river and the surplus ammunition was thrown into the well. Kinzie also destroyed the supply of liquor that he possessed.

As the garrison marched out of the fort on the forenoon of the fifteenth of August, 1812, John Kinzie marched with the wagons, unarmed. He had been warned to go with his family in a canoe under the escort of a friendly Indian, but he hoped his presence with the garrison would prevent the feared attack. In the massacre that followed so quickly half of the soldiers, all of the twelve militia, two of the women and twelve of the children were slain, but Kinzie was unharmed.

Mrs. Kinzie from her canoe watched with horror the terrible events. She saw her own daughter Margaret struggling with an Indian who was trying to brain her with his tomahawk. She also saw her rescued by the friendly chief, Black Partridge. That evening the Kinzies sat about their cabin fireside, happy that all of their immediate family had escaped death. John Kinzie with his pocket knife removed the bullets from the body of Mrs. Heald. Both Captain Heald and Lieutenant Helm were missing, captives of the infuriated savages. The fort was pillaged and wounded soldiers were tortured and burned at the stake.

The following day the fort was burned and the lives of the Kinzies were threatened by the arrival of strange Indians. Only through the efforts of Black Partridge and of Sauganash were they saved from death. Then on the third day Mrs. Kinzie and the children were taken by canoe to the mouth of St. Joseph river. In November they went on to Detroit as prisoners of the British.

John Kinzie remained in the neighborhood for a time, but he dressed in Indian garb and painted himself to resemble them. Finally in January he joined his family in Detroit and was placed on parole. He was suspected of being in correspondence with General William Henry Harrison of the American forces, so was secretly imprisoned on order of General Proctor. When the Indians learned of this, they forced General Proctor to release him. A second time he was arrested and a second time released at the demand of the Indians. On a third occasion he was arrested and taken on board a vessel to be sent back to England, but the vessel sprang a leak. Kinzie was finally released and allowed with his family to return to the States.

Fort Dearborn was rebuilt in 1816. In that same year John Kinzie and his family returned to their former home. He never recovered the leading position he had formerly held in the fur trade. However he served as Indian interpreter. and for his services drew a small salary from the government. In 1825 he became an agent of the American Fur Company in which his son John was also an employe. The Kinzies left the old home in 1827 and lived in the house of John B. Beaubien, a little south of the fort. On the sixth of January, 1828, he was stricken with apoplexy and died as a result. Funeral services were held within the fort and his body was buried on the shore of Lake Michigan. In later years the body was transferred to Graceland, where the family lot still exists. John Kinzie had foretold the prosperity of Chicago because of the geographical importance of its location, but he died before his prediction was fulfilled.

After the death of her husband Mrs. Kinzie went to live with her daughter Eleanor, Mrs. Alexander Wolcott, in the

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Agency building on the North Side. During the winter of 1830-31, the winter of the deep snow, John Harris Kinzie and his wife Juliette came from his post near Fort Winnebago in Wisconsin to visit his mother. In spite of illness and her sixty years Mrs. Kinzie and her daughter Mrs. Margaret Helm rode back to Fort Winnebago with her son John and his wife. Mrs. Kinzie received medical treatment, but her illness was due to an incurable cancer, from which she died in 1834 while staying in New York.

Mrs. Kinzie had lived several years as a captive with the Indians; she had been the youthful bride of a British officer during the Indian warfare; she had then married a pioneer fur trader; had made a home on the outskirts of civilization and had been a witness of the massacre at Fort Dearborn. Her life was a vivid picture of early pioneer life, especially in Chicago.

CHAPTER VIII

1805

"The new post-office is begun."



IN 1805 the Agency House was built by the soldiers a little west of the fort, between the pickets and the river, about twenty rods from the pickets of the fort. Whenever a treaty was made between the white men and the red men, it was customary to arrange for annual payments, sometimes in money, often in goods, usually in both. In earlier years the Indians had gone each year to Detroit to receive such annuities from the English. After the rule of the English had ceased, the Indians made their treaties with the Americans and went to Fort Wayne, Indiana, to receive these payments from the government. When Fort Dearborn was built it seemed wise to make these annual payments to the Potawatomi and their neighbors here in Chicago, so the Agency House was built.

Apparently rather near the agency building was the "factory," headquarters of the factor. Both Indian agent and factor were civil officers of the government, independent of the garrison and yet cooperating with it.

An Indian agent was one who represented the government in its dealings with the Indians. A factor was one who traded with the Indians, taking their furs and giving them blankets, cloth, ornaments, etc., in exchange. A government factor acted in competition with the private fur traders, but he had a special handicap, for he was forbidden to sell or give to the Indians any liquor, and from the white men the Indians had gained a seemingly unquenchable thirst.

It is difficult to understand why the artist called the

agency building a postoffice, for, so far as is known, it never served as such. In 1831 the postmaster general of the United States appointed Jonathan Bailey as Chicago postmaster. He lived in the Kinzie house and probably distributed the mail from his hat. Until 1831 handling the mail seems to have been exclusively an army affair and so would have been received in Fort Dearborn and distributed from there.

Possibly the artist was thinking of later days when John S. C. Hogan put up a two-room log building at Lake and South Water streets and used one part for a postoffice and the other as a store. The postoffice was the favorite loafing place with old timers just as the agency building may have been the loafing place for the Indians.

This agency building was an old-fashioned double log house, with a hall running through the middle and with one large room on each side. Piazzas extended the whole length of the building in front and rear. In 1812 these piazzas were planked up for greater security, port holes were cut and sentinels were posted at night. In one of the two rooms the agent lived. The other was used for keeping his stores. The Indians came here to get their money and the goods due them from the government. They were accustomed to stalk about the house as though they owned it.

Charles Jouett, the first Indian agent to live in Chicago, was born in Virginia in 1772, the youngest in a family of nine children. He knew and was a friend of Thomas Jefferson, James Madison and James Monroe. After studying law he practised several years in Charlottesville, Virginia. In 1802 he received from the government the appointment as Indian agent at Detroit, Michigan, where he remained until appointed to the new agency at Fort Dearborn. He married Eliza Dodomead in 1802 while in Detroit, but she died during the year 1805. As early as October 17, 1804, William Wells, agent at Fort Wayne, received word that the Potawatomi and Kickapoos who had been receiving their annuities at Fort Wayne would thereafter receive these annuities at Chicago.

Mr. Jouett arrived at his new post some time in 1805 and on October 26 of that year was informed that the Sacs and Foxes would also be handled through his agency. With the assistance of an interpreter he periodically distributed presents to the Indians and as the representative of the government held councils with the chiefs of the local tribes.

Taking a furlough during the winter of 1808-09, he went to Kentucky, where he married Susan Randolph Allen. Their wedding trip back to Chicago was made on horseback during the month of January. They had with them a negro servant, Joe Battles, and were guided by Alexander Robinson. Their route took them through jungles, over snow drifts and ice and across the prairies in the face of severe storms. Following them was a team and wagon with their goods.

In 1811 Charles Jouett resigned from his position here and moved to Kentucky near Harrodsburg. The following year he became judge in his county. He was therefore absent from Fort Dearborn at the time of the massacre. After peace had been declared and after Fort Dearborn had been rebuilt in 1816, he returned to Chicago as Indian agent. During this second term as agent Judge Jouett lived in a house on the north side of the river, a log building at the corner of North State and Water streets, probably the one in which the Burns family lived prior to the massacre.

Judge Jouett was a man of commanding presence and great strength, six feet three inches in height, broad-shouldered and erect. Through his kindness and his honorable dealings he had the confidence of the Indians. On one occasion he had an encounter with Mar Pock, a drunken Indian chief. Mar Pock brandished his scalping knife and threatened death. Jouett faced him and sternly bade him give up his knife. The Indian obeyed. The Indians called the judge the "White Otter."

In 1817 Mr. Jouett described his quarters as "a little hut that a man of humanity would not suffer his negroes to live in." It was but fourteen feet square and had but a single chair, which Jouett had brought from Kentucky, though the family consisted of nine persons, including the servants. He complained of the indifference of the officers to these conditions.

As Indian agent Mr. Jouett signed a treaty at St. Mary's, Ohio, on September 27, 1818. The following year he resigned from the service and was succeeded by Dr. Alexander Wolcott, who had been appointed "Agent to the Lakes" in April, 1818. Mr. Jouett returned to Kentucky, then went to Arkansas Territory and served as judge in this pioneer region. He died in Kentucky in 1834.

The factory, or trading post, was established in the spring of 1805. As early as March 19 of that year EbenezerBelknap of Connecticut was given a commission as factor at Chicago. As the factory at Detroit was to be abandoned, Belknap was directed to remove the goods and furniture from Detroit to Chicago. This included new goods to the value of \$8000. He was to receive a salary of \$1000 a year and in addition \$365 for living expenses. Moreover, he was to have the authority to employ, if necessary, an assistant at a salary not to exceed \$500.

Shortly after Belknap reached Chicago word was received at Washington that his character was not such as to warrant his holding that position. The War Department thereupon sent out as his assistant Thomas Hayward, and on December 31, 1805, relieved him of his office, appointing Hayward as his successor. Belknap cleared himself of the charges against his character, but Hayward remained in charge at Chicago until the spring of 1807. He then resigned. For a short time Charles Jouett, the Indian agent, had temporary charge of the factory.

Within a few weeks the President of the United States approved the appointment as factor of Jacob B. Varnum, at that time a clerk in the War Department. His superior wrote of him, "No young man possesses more purity of morals or integrity of character." Varnum reached his new post the last of August 1807. A factory was planned for Mackinac in 1808 and Jacob B. Varnum was appointed to this new post. Matthew Irwin of Philadelphia was named as his successor at Chicago at a salary and subsistence of \$1165. Irwin was delayed by the lateness of the season and did not reach his post until the spring of 1809.

At the opening of the War of 1812 the factory at Chicago was closed. The furs on hand were sent by boat to Mackinac and later fell into the hands of the British. Irwin left Chicago July 5, after giving the keys of the factory to Doctor Van Voorhis. The goods remaining in the factory were distributed to the Indians at the time the fort was evacuated, in August 1812. Together with the destruction of the fort on August 16 came the burning of the factory. Including the value of the furs captured by the British, the goods distributed to the Indians, uncollected debts due from Indians and soldiers, and the destruction of the buildings, the loss of the factory amounted to \$13,074.47.

Jacob Varnum for a time was at Sandusky, Ohio, but the surrender of General Hull at Detroit brought about the abandonment of the Sandusky trading post. Varnum then entered the army and served throughout the war. He then applied for reappointment in the Department of Indian Trade and in the summer of 1815 was appointed to Chicago.
He started for his post but at Buffalo met Matthew Irwin en route to establish a new factory at Green Bay. They here learned that the army posts were not to be reopened until the following year, 1816, so Irwin returned to Philadelphia for the winter, but Varnum proceeded to Mackinac by vessel, having in charge the supplies for both posts. After drying the goods at Mackinac, Varnum settled down for the winter in a comfortable room with a good stove and plenty of fire wood.

The first vessel to arrive in the spring brought among its passengers a young lady of great beauty and charm. Three months later she and Varnum were married by the major of the post, and within a few days they set sail for Chicago. They landed shortly after the arrival of Captain Hezekiah Bradley and his two companies of troops. The quarters assigned them were the skeleton of a log hut on the south side which had escaped the fire of 1812. It was a story and a half in height, about twenty feet square and lacked a floor. Most of the goods were stored in the upper part. A floor of puncheons was laid and a lean-to added for a kitchen. Varnum was busy with his trading and with occasional hunting trips. The factory, however, failed to regain its former prestige. This was in part due to the competition of private traders, especially of the American Fur Company, which even in the halls of Congress bitterly fought the government system of trading posts. Varnum's bride suffered from the monotony of the place. There was no doctor to assist in the birth of her child, and both she and the child died at the time of birth, in June, 1817. In 1818 Varnum reported that business had been scarcely sufficient to pay the wages of his interpreter.

Two years later Varnum joined a party riding to Detroit, a journey of seven hundred miles requiring eleven days. He entered the town plastered with mud from a fall in the swamp near town. Within two months he married one of the ladies of the place. They returned to Chicago by schooner, accompanied by the wife's sister and two servants. The house they entered had recently been built by Varnum and the soldiers. Relations between the fort and the Varnum home were pleasant, and parties and dances were frequent.

In 1822 the entire system of government trading posts was abandoned and the Chicago factory was then closed.

CHAPTER IX

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1806 "The Lake Shore drive in 1806."



THE LAKE SHORE DRIVE of 1806, as portrayed by the artist, was a very different drive from that of the present day. It was not then the peaceful and imposing view of today.

Fort Dearborn was built to establish in the early pioneer settler a feeling of confidence in the permanence of his home. For years the Indians had made treaties with the white man, giving him the land he demanded, but always with reluctance. Their orators usually declared in the discussions that these lands had been given to them by the Great Spirit as their eternal possession and that the Great Spirit would grieve if they were to give away the lands where lay the graves of their fathers. Moreover, they declared, their lands were becoming more and more limited by the greed of the white man, and their children would soon have no more land over which to hunt. And yet in spite of these dignified protests, the Indians always ceded the desired lands and received in return annual payments in cash or in goods. Whiskey always played an important part in these transactions. And after the bargain the Indians were usually resentful.

It is no wonder, therefore, that forts and fortified homes were necessary in this new country. And it wouldn't be strange if the soldiers occasionally practised putting the Indians to flight with their military displays, though historians recorded no such spectacles.

The Committee on Public Improvements of the North Side met on the evening of September 25, 1870, in Turner Hall to consider the development of the Lake Shore Drive. Augutus H. Burley, superintendent of Lincoln Park, reported that the Drive was under construction between Diversey street and a point six hundred feet south of Asylum place (Webster). He explained that the park commissioners would extend the Drive as far south as they could safely and legally go, but he felt they had no legal power to remove the bodies from the City Cemetery between Asylum and North. Moreover, on the Millman tract within the limits of the Cemetery a fence had lately been erected across the proposed route of the Drive. On the other hand, John V. Farwell had given the commissioners permission to construct the Drive to the width of one hundred feet across his property.

Less than a year later, in 1871, the Drive was described as "beginning at the northern confines of the old City Cemetery and skirting the edge of Lake Michigan so closely that the spray sprinkled the roadbed at times when the surf rolled high shoreward." The Drive was then a broad, smooth bed of fine gravel, packed upon blue clay, sixty feet in width and extending northward nearly a mile and a half.

In August, 1873, the North Side Park commissioners announced that they had obtained from Bishop Foley the right of way through the old Catholic cemetery from Lincoln Park south to Schiller street. The commissioners planned to drive piles in the water and then to fill in with dirt so as to be able to pave the Drive within the succeeding ninety days. These concessions by the Bishop and by other property owners did not include the riparian rights to lands that might develop later along the lake shore.

By 1874 the commissioners had expended \$180,000 on the Lake Shore Drive, which then wound for two miles or more along the east side of Lincoln Park and farther northward. It was at that time the most attractive feature of the park. Plans of the commissioners contemplated extension of the Drive southward nearly to the mouth of the river and northward to Evanston.

The Humane Society on September 12, 1877, dedicated an ornamental drinking fountain for horses close to the Drive on the south side of the park. In 1881 the city directory limited the extent of Lake Shore Drive to that portion of the boulevard between Oak street (1000 north) and Lincoln Park (1600 north).

Potter Palmer was the first to realize the possibilities of the Lake Shore Drive as the location for a home. In February, 1882, he announced that he would build his home, a palace, at the northwest corner of the Drive and Banks street. He gave to the Park Board title to his riparian rights in return for the privilege of dredging sand from the lake to raise the grade of his property.

Plans to extend the Drive northward under the name of Sheridan Drive were under way in March, when Robert A. Waller conducted a party of prominent citizens over the proposed route from the terminus of the Lake Shore Drive as far north as Winnetka. Two years later, in 1891, the Lincoln Park commissioners announced that they would extend Lake Shore Drive southward from Oak street to Ohio street, a distance of nearly a mile at an estimated cost of \$600,000, to be met by property owners. And in 1923 the city directory indicated the Drive as extending as far south as Grand avenue.

In considering the Lake Shore Drive of 1806 the artist may have had in mind the truism that history repeats itself, for he undoubtedly knew of the experiences of Captain Streeter in that stretch of beach along the Drive near the foot of Superior street.

Captain George Wellington Streeter had been a river captain in his earlier years, then he came to South Chicago

and built a boat, the Reutan, which he used for excursion parties on the lake. On the tenth of July, 1886, his boat was stranded in a storm just north of the mouth of the river. He couldn't remove the boat, so he continued to live in it and filled in some land between it and the shore. About a year later another larger boat went ashore stern first a little farther north, at the foot of Superior street. The Captain and his wife moved into these more commodious quarters, added a porch, boarded it up, and filled some earth around it. Wealthy owners of adjacent property, claiming this land as theirs by riparian rights, tried to eject Streeter by force, but he kept a shotgun and a bulldog, and his wife Maria usually had a kettle of hot water on the kitchen stove. Even in the courts the wealthy landowners failed to accomplish their purpose. Streeter stuck, and claimed that only the State of Illinois had claims on this land prior to his own.

On one occasion in 1891 the Averys, father and son, tore down a fence the Captain had built and started to build one to suit themselves. The Captain objected to no avail, so he brought out his shotgun loaded with birdshot. The gun was discharged, with the result that doctors dug several shot from the face of young Avery. For a good many years the Captain had the courts, the lawyers and the Title and Trust Company worried. He seemed to thrive on these legal squabbles.

As long ago as 1898 a city guide book described the Lake Shore Drive as "the finest scene of Chicago."

CHAPTER X

4

1812 *"Fort Dearborn Massacre group at foot of Eighteenth street. This was Chicago's part in the War of 1812."*



THE FORT DEARBORN MASSACRE, on the fifteenth of August, 1812, was an episode in the War of 1812, and can be understood only in connection with this greater movement. Ill feeling had developed between England and the United States, largely through commercial rivalry. Since the Great Lakes separated the Canada of England from the United States, it was natural that here should be the scene of some of the fighting. The Americans were in possession of the line of forts along the southern side of the Great Lakes, but the Indians allied themselves largely with the English. This was to be expected, for the Americans had been crowding them pretty hard as the pioneers pushed farther and farther to the westward.

On the seventh of August, 1812, Winnemeg, a Potawatomi chief, reached the fort with messages from General Hull at Detroit. They made known that the United States had declared war against Great Britain on June 18 and that the fort at Mackinac, at the north end of Lake Michigan, had fallen into the hands of the English. General Hull advised Captain Heald, who was in command at Fort Dearborn, to leave the fort and to march with his garrison to Fort Wayne, Indiana. He also advised that all unneeded supplies of all sorts be given to the Indians.

John Kinzie, to whom Winnemeg had told the substance of the messages, urged the captain to hold the fort until reinforcements might reach them or else to march out immediately before the Indians were aware of the situation. The other officers of the fort also urged the captain to follow that plan. Heald remained firm. He called a council of the Indians. He told them his plan to divide his surplus supplies among them, and they in return promised him a safe escort. While Captain Heald and John Kinzie were in council with the Indians on the twelfth of August the soldiers had their guns trained upon the assembly. After the council Kinzie against told the captain how dangerous it was to supply the savages with arms and whiskey at such a time, and so that night the surplus ammunition and guns were destroyed and thrown into the well, and the liquor was emptied into the river. The Indians discovered this and became more infuriated.

On the fourteenth Captain William Wells rode into the fort with a company of about thirty friendly Miami Indians. He had heard of the dangers threatening the fort and had come to offer his assistance and particularly to save, if possible, his niece, the wife of Captain Heald. Wells was a man of exceptional daring and was well known among the Indians, with whom he had lived for many years as the adopted son of Chief Little Turtle and as Indian agent at Fort Wayne.

There was another council with the Potawatomi that afternoon, and again they promised a safe escort, though they were very angry that the liquor promised them had been destroyed. Again Captain Heald expressed his confidence in their good will. Others of the fort were fearful.

Next day, shortly after nine o'clock, the troops left the fort. Captain Wells with half of his Indians led the way southward. Wells had blackened his face according to Indian custom in token of his belief that he was about to die. As they marched along the beach, the Kinzie family under the protection of two friendly Indians paddled in a large canoe down to the mouth of the river. Mr. Kinzie himself marched with the militia. When the troops reached a line of sand dunes extending parallel to the beach, the garrison kept to the beach, but the four hundred or more Indians on their ponies veered to the west and were soon lost to view behind the low hills.

Soon Wells came riding back at full speed, shouting to Captain Heald to charge against the Indians, as they were about to fire upon him. Heald led his small force of soldiers up to the top of the dunes. There was a sharp fight, half of the soldiers being killed almost immediately. In the parley that followed Heald agreed to surrender to Black Bird, with the understanding that all would be spared, either to be ransomed by their friends or to be turned over to the British as prisoners of war.

While this was going on, William Wells rode up to his niece to give her a message to his wife. He then saw some of the Indians tomahawking and scalping the women and children in the wagons. He started off at full speed toward the Indian camp, shouting that he would treat them as they were treating the white women. He was pursued and slain. His heart was cut from his body and eaten by the bloodthirsty savages.

Mrs. Heald was riding a magnificent horse that she had brought with her from Kentucky. The Indians wanted this horse, so several chased her, shooting high to hit her but to spare the horse. Mrs. Kinzie from her canoe saw Mrs. Heald's danger and sent her French servant to offer these savages a fine mule to spare her life. Mrs. Heald, with a number of bullets in her body, was taken into the canoe and concealed in the bottom of the boat.

Mrs. Helm, daughter of Mrs. Kinzie and wife of Lieutenant Helm, had also been riding with the officers. In the midst of the carnage she met Surgeon Van Voorhis, who was

Early Chicago

wounded and who asked her whether it would not be possible for them to offer the Indians a price for their lives. She said in reply that she thought they had better prepare for death. She was then seized by an Indian brave, who attempted to tomahawk her. Warding off the blow, she struggled to get the Indian's knife. Then she felt herself seized from behind and was carried bodily to the lake. As she passed the spot where she had been talking with Dr. Van Voorhis, she saw his lifeless body lying in that very spot. Though she thought she was being carried to the lake to be there drowned, she soon realized that her head was kept above the water. Then through his war paint she saw that her captor was the friendly chief, Black Partridge, who protected her during the rest of the fight and then got her safely back to the Kinzie cabin.

The fort was pillaged and burned, the wounded were tortured and slain, and the captives were later ransomed or turned over to the British. The Kinzies all escaped without injury, but they also became captives of the British.

The artist has seen no humor in this massacre, nothing but grim horror. He portrays the struggle between Black Partridge and the savage warrior over Mrs. Helm, with the slain surgeon lying at their feet and a babe holding out its arms for help. The Massacre Monument, which the artist has reproduced, formerly stood on Eighteenth street just west of the Illinois Central tracks. It now occupies a prominent position in the museum of the Chicago Historical Society.

CHAPTER XI

1816 "Capt. Hezekiah Bradley arrived in Chicago with two companies of soldiers and rebuilt Fort Dearborn."



NORTH OF THE RIVER was the deserted Kinzie home, a little west of it the cabin occupied by the Frenchman Ouilmette with his Indian wife. South of the river were the ruins of the fort, and covering the sands to the southward the unburied corpses of the slain men, women and children. After eight years of garrison life the place had again returned in August, 1812, to an Indian solitude. The following year an English fur trader passing through here reported finding two brass cannon, one dismounted, the other on wheels, but in the river. He also wrote that the powder magazine was in good condition.

After General William Henry Harrison defeated the English and their Indian allies in the battle of the Thames in October 1813, most of the Indian leaders made their peace with the Americans. Among these were Sauganash and Shabbona, and ever afterward they maintained that attitude of friendship with the white men.

Following the war of 1812 British traders roamed through this western region, stirring up the Indians against the Americans. It seemed necessary, therefore, for the government to build several forts in the northwest. So it was decided to rebuild Fort Dearborn and to build a new fort on Green Bay.

Second Fort Dearborn

On the Fourth of July 1816 Captain Hezekiah Bradley arrived at Chicago with 112 men on board the schooner General Wayne. Pine trees were cut about four miles north of the river, near the lake shore. The logs were rolled into the lake and taken in rafts to the mouth of the river, then up the stream to a point opposite the site of the fort. This new fort was built on the old site, but was a little larger. There was only one blockhouse in this second fort, and it was at the southwest corner. Bands of Indians wandered about the grounds to watch the building of the fort, to beg for tobacco, and to steal whatever tools they could hide under their blankets. The artist shows one of the white men trying to recover for his bald head the scalp which one of the Indians is wearing suspended from his belt. The Indians seldom, however, took a scalp larger than about the size of a silver dollar. And the scalped person usually was unable to pursue the one who did the scalping, for it was the practice to take a scalp only from a victim who was already dead. The scalp of this victim was the proof of a warrior's prowess in battle.

Fort Wayne was now the nearest postoffice. Between these two places mail was carried once or twice a month by soldiers on foot. Food for the garrison was brought around the lakes in schooners. Cattle to supply fresh meat were often driven in on foot. John Kinzie, with his family, returned the latter part of this year 1816. A visitor in 1820 predicted that Chicago would become "a great thoroughfare for strangers, merchants and travelers."

Little happened during the years following the rebuilding of the fort, so in the fall of 1823 the troops were withdrawn. Dr. Alexander Wolcott was Indian agent. During the summer he had married Ellen Marion Kinzie. He was given charge of the fort during the absence of the troops. With his bride he moved into the officers' quarters of the fort. Each year the Indians came to the fort to receive from Dr. Wolcott the money and supplies due them according to the various treaties signed during the preceding years. In 1827 the Winnebago Indians of Wisconsin went on the warpath. Word of their uprising was brought to the fort by Shabbona. Gurdon Hubbard, a young man of twenty-five, had recently taken over the fur-trading privileges of this region from the American Fur Company, and at the time of Shabbona's warning was visiting in the Kinzie home. There was no garrison in Fort Dearborn at the time, and the inhabitants were fearful of an Indian attack, so Hubbard offered to ride to Danville to raise a company of volunteers for their protection. In seven days he was back with a company of one hundred men. These, with the men about the fort, gave a force of one hundred fifty for the defense of the place. However, the Winnebagoes concluded a peace with the Americans, and there was no attack upon Fort Dearborn.

The Indians between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan had become restless as a result of this uprising, so a garrison was sent to Fort Dearborn in October 1828 under the command of Major John Fowle. In 1831 the fort was again abandoned. For a fourth time a garrison was sent to Fort Dearborn, in 1832. This time the command was given to Major William Whistler, the man who had first come to this place as a lieutenant with his father in 1803. Before he arrived the Black Hawk war broke out. When General Scott came to take charge of the forces against Black Hawk, Major Whistler established a camp for his forces farther north.

Shortly after Christmas in the year 1836 the last salute was fired, the flag was struck, and the last soldier marched out of Fort Dearborn, on December 29, never to return. The blockhouse was removed in 1857, and the last of the barracks were destroyed in the fire of 1871.

Reminders

Over the entrance of the London Guaranty and Accident building, at Wacker and Michigan, is a bronze tablet depicting the first fort. This tablet was placed just about at the entrance to the early fort. On the southwest pylon of the Michigan avenue bridge is a scene of the resistance of Captain Heald during the massacre. On the northwest pylon is shown the arrival at Fort Dearborn of Mr. and Mrs. Kinzie with their infant son John. Logs of the second fort have been reconstructed in the Chicago Historical Museum to represent the front of a blockhouse. There may be seen the sword carried by Captain Heald, the buffalo-covered wooden trunk of Mrs. Heald and various other articles. Here, too, is the famous Waubansee boulder which stood formerly on the parade ground of the fort. In Graceland cemetery are the headstones marking the resting places of Mr. and Mrs. Kinzie, and in Lincoln Park is a granite boulder commemorating the life and services of David Kennison, one of the garrison of the first fort before the massacre.

A portion of the Fort Dearborn reservation, south of the fort, was reserved for a public park when the rest of the reservation was sold in 1839. This former Dearborn Park, first public park in Chicago, is the site of the Chicago Public Library. Fort Dearborn itself is gone but its memories linger.

CHAPTER XII

1829

"The forks of the Chicago river in 1829. Hailing the ferryman." The Wolf Tavern on the left and the Miller House on the right were the oldest taverns in Chicago."



THE FORKS were where the North and South branches united to flow eastward into the lake. It was here that a little settlement sprang up in the early days, in a sense a rival community to the fort and the few cabins near it. A canoe was the easiest means of traveling the mile that existed between the two settlements. The one who attempted to walk along the south side of the river was likely to wade in mud ankle deep.

Wolf Point was that part of the Forks just west of the river, and was often referred to as "The Point." Here for several years was the growing town with its taverns and its social enjoyments.

Just north of the main river and east of the North branch, which in early days had been called "Quarie river", was the Miller House, belonging to Samuel Miller. Samuel Miller in 1826 had married Elizabeth Kinzie, daughter of John Kinzie and Margaret McKenzie. The Miller House was built in 1827 and was used both as a dwelling and as a tavern, also as a store by Samuel Miller and Archibald Clybourne. It was here that Archibald brought his bride in 1829 for two days before proceeding to his father's home on the North branch, near Chicago and Elston avenues.

Wolf Tavern was the first building west of the river, a little north of Lake street. It was built in 1829 by James Kinzie and Archibald Caldwell. James Kinzie was a son of John Kinzie and Margaret McKenzie, born in 1793. He had been a trader, connected with the American Fur Trading Company, but had been detected selling large quantities of whiskey to the Indians in the region of Milwaukee and had been forced to leave there. Archibald Caldwell was the keeper of the tavern in 1829, and since he had a license granted December 8, 1828, by the Commissioners of Peoria county, of which Chicago was then a part, he was the first landlord who ever legally kept a tavern in Chicago. He had to go to Fort Clark, Peoria, for the license, and the fee was \$7.00.

In the fall of 1829 a family drove in with two covered wagons drawn by three yoke of oxen. It was Elijah Wentworth with his family of wife and three children. They had driven up from the Wabash country, looking for a point on the lake from which they might ship their goods back by boat to Maine. They were decidedly homesick. They put up at the tavern which had a sign post. This was Caldwell's tavern. As it was too late in the season to get a lake boat, they had to spend the winter here, so they rented a small log cabin a little south of Caldwell's tavern for \$5.00 a month. In either January or February Wentworth rented the hotel from Kinzie, the owner, for \$300 a year, and became the landlord. He stayed here until the following fall then took a claim eight miles farther north.

Elijah Wentworth was usually called "Geese Wentworth" because his favorite cuss word was "By Geese." Previous to his taking the tavern it had been known as the Point Tavern, or "Pint Tavern", as it was usually pronounced, but he wanted people to know it had changed hands, so he decided to change its name, too, but for a long time he couldn't think of an appropriate name.

One day he heard a noise in his meat room and found there a prairie wolf helping himself to some of the dressed prairie chickens he had planned to serve later in the day. It made him mad, so he started for the wolf and killed it. That gave him the idea of calling his tavern "Wolf Tavern."

Through a mutual friend a lieutenant at the fort was asked to paint an appropriate sign. A dry goods box was pulled to pieces, and boards were fastened together into a signboard, the Agency blacksmith fastened hinges to it, and the lieutenant painted the picture of a ferocious wolf. Officers and citizens were invited to be present at the hanging of the sign. At the appointed time the sign was brought forth properly veiled with a blanket, and attached to a branch of the tree in front of the tavern. The blanket was removed, and the sign swung in the breeze as those present greeted it with hurrahs.

The early settlers referred to this tavern familiarly as "Rat Castle", partly in contrast with "Cobweb Castle", the agency building on the north side of the river, and partly because of the large number of rats that infested its premises as well as every other cabin along the banks of the river.

When General Winfield Scott arrived in 1832 to take command of the campaign against Black Hawk in the northwestern part of the state, he made Wolf Tavern his headquarters while in Chicago. His stay here was prolonged because of the deadly epidemic of Asiatic cholera among his soldiers.

Just a little west and south of Wolf Tavern James Kinzie built another tavern in 1833. This was called the Green Tree Tavern. When Edwin O. Gale arrived in Chicago as a boy in 1835 on the brig Illinois his family put up at the Green Tree Inn for a time. They reached the inn by crossing the river on a raft of logs chained together but so arranged that the fastenings on the west side would easily be cast off, enabling the float to swing towards the east shore when a loaded canoe needed to pass through. The keeper of the inn was clerk, bar tender, butler, steward, walking encyclopedia, and general roustabout. His efficient wife was housekeeper, landlady, meat and pastry cook, scullion, chamber maid, waitress, and advisor and personal attendant upon all the ladies and children taking shelter under the Green Tree.

The room first entered was bar, reading room, smoking room and reception room, ladies' parlor and general utility place, all in one. On the east and west sides were the puncheon benches, that is, henches made of logs smoothed on one side and with legs inserted below. Wooden chairs were scattered about the room. Near the north end was a bar for drinks, umbrellas, overcoats, whips and parcels. At the west end of the bar was a large inkstand placed in a eigar box filled with No. 8 shot, in which were sticking two quill pens. At the other end of the counter were about a dozen short pieces of tallow candles, each placed in a hole bored in a $2 \ge 4$ block, held in place by "six-penny nails standing like mourners around the circular graves in which they had seen so many flickering lights pass away into utter darkness."

Hanging in a row against the wall were large cloth and leather slippers, which the guests were expected to put on at night so as not to track mud through the house. Under the counter was a large wooden bootjack and a box with two oldfashioned boot brushes and several pieces of hard tallow for greasing the boots.

On one wall was an old-fashioned, square, cherry-veneered Connecticut clock. On the glass door beneath the dial plate was a purple horse drawing a blue plow, guided by a man with green coat and yellow trousers. This man was larger than the apple tree in the corner, and the tree, in turn, was loaded with fruit larger than the man's head.

There were tin basins for washing, with soiled towels,

small mirrors and toothless combs. Back of the wash bench were several dishes of soft soap, which was pretty strong for washing the hands of a "tenderfoot", but was in great demand after greasing boots or tarring wagon axles.

In the middle of the room was a low box filled with sand from the lake. In this was a large stove used in winter for warmth and for heating water for toddies, for shaving and for washing. The Cook County license posted on the wall showed that \$5 had been paid for the privilege of running a tavern and also gave the rates that might be charged. Among these items were a pint of rum, wine or brandy $37\frac{1}{2}c$, breakfast and supper 25c, horse feed 25c, and lodging one night for each person $12\frac{1}{2}c$.

The dining room contained two long tables covered with green checked oilcloth and loaded with roasted wild ducks, fricassee of prairie chickens, wild pigeon pot pie, tea and coffee sweetened with granulated maple sugar that had been obtained from the Indians.

The dishes were chipped, flies were buzzing about or tangled in the butter, beetles were creeping around, and the mosquitoes were furnishing music. The spoons and castors were of pewter, and the steel knives and forks had never been scoured, but these little inconveniences could not spoil healthy appetites.

In the twelve by twelve bedroom was an old fashioned wooden bedstead. Every six inches of its entire length holes had been bored, through which ropes passed to form the support for the mattress. It was very difficult to take down to clean, and it formed ideal hiding places for what the author calls "cimex lectularii." Because of their presence sleep was impossible for a long time.

A little south of this Green Tree Inn was the home of Alexander Robinson. He was a half breed, whose father was a Canadian fur trader, or voyageur, of Scotch descent and whose mother was a Potawatomi. Robinson also dealt in furs and rose to the position of principal chief of the Potawatomi. He was always a warm friend of the white man and on several occasions was influential in saving them from Indian attacks, especially during the Winnebago war of 1827 and the Black Hawk war of 1832.

His home on the west side was usually lively with Indians in the days of the early Thirties. There were groups of blanketed squaws with their papooses slung on their backs in birchbark pockets, and an equal number of braves bedaubed with paint and ornamented with feathers. Among them a few white "drummers" might be seen distributing free whiskey in order to secure their trade. In the small hours of the morning these Indians would leave, after several hours of boisterous yelling and a war dance.

Alexander Robinson had come to Chicago in 1806, was not present on the occasion of the massacre of August 15, 1812, but arrived soon after and did all in his power to save the prisoners. For this his own life was threatened. He took Mr. and Mrs. Helm in his canoe around the end of the lake and along the eastern shore to Mackinac, where they were turned over to the British.

In 1833 he was presented with the temperance pledge, the first that was ever drawn up in Chicago. After a little reflection he signed it, drew from his pocket a flask of whiskey and emptied it upon the ground. To many it seemed strange that Robinson should associate with the low class Indians who hung around his trading post, but he himself was half Indian, his wife was an Indian, and he was therefore shut out from the society of the white people.

When his tribe migrated to its new reservation in Kansas in 1835 Robinson decided to remain behind, and with his family he removed to the reservation on the Desplaines river that had been given him by the government in recognition of his services to the white men. Here he lived as a farmer until his death at the age of 110 years.

East of the river, at the corner of Lake and Market streets, Mark Beaubien in 1826 bought a log cabin from James Kinzie, and later, in 1831, he built the Sauganash hotel. The log cabin became an addition to this frame building. Of these early days he said: "I had no ped, so when the traveler come for lodging, I give him planket to cover himself up in on de floor, and tell him to look out, for Injun steal it. Den when he gits to sleep, I tak de planket away carefully an give it to noder man and tell him same, so I always have peds for all dat want em."

Billy Caldwell, the Indian chief, who was also a half breed, had been given a reservation of two and a half sections of land along the North Branch, and the government had also built for him the frame house on the far north side. This was in recognition of his services, together with those of Robinson and Shabbona, in behalf of the whites. But Caldwell didn't like to live so far away from others so he early sold his land, and spent part of his time in one of the log cabins near the home of Robinson. Caldwell was the son of an Irish officer in the British army. His mother was a handsome Potawatomi woman. Caldwell himself had been well educated in Canada. He was a warm admirer of Tecumseh and fought with him against the Americans. After Tecumseh's death in 1813, at the battle of the Thames, he made peace with the Americans and never afterwards took up arms against them.

His wife was the daughter of an Indian chief. He never believed in polygamy and, contrary to the custom of many Indian chiefs, he had but one wife, but she was sufficiently temperamental to make up for several. It was said his cabin often "resounded with her animated tones when rating her liege lord." When his tribe went west in 1835, it was largely Caldwell's influence that brought about a peaceful departure. His reasoning was different from that of Robinson, and he went with his tribe, never to return. He died near Council Bluffs in 1841.

Another building in this Wolf Point settlement was the two-room log cabin, one room of which was used as a school house on week days and as a church on Sunday. The other room was the home of the Rev. Jesse Walker. This was about the present corner of Washington and Canal streets. John Watkins came to Chicago in May 1832 and that fall began teaching in a building on the north side that had been built and used as a horse stable. After the first quarter he removed his school to the double log building belonging to Father Walker, the Methodist minister. In the winter of 1832-33 Billy Caldwell, who was greatly interested in education, offered to pay the tuition and buy the books for all the Indian children who would attend school, if they would dress like the Americans, and he was willing to pay for their clothes also. Not a single child accepted his proposition.

Connection between the different sides of the river was maintained in the early days by means of a ferry. The first practical ferry was built in 1829 by Archibald Caldwell and Samuel Miller. After two years Mark Beaubien took it over, paying \$5 for his license. One of the difficulties of the early ferry was that it was usually on the wrong side, and often when one was ready to cross, a little lumber craft would come into view, towed by two men in a yawl. Then the rope cable would be dropped to the bottom of the river. After the heavier boat had passed the ferryman would spit on his hands, seize the spokes of his horizontal windlass on shore and soon the slimy rope would be dragged from the bottom. Then grasping the rope with his wooden pull near the bow of his boat, the ferryman would walk slowly to the stern, repeating this movement until the opposite shore was reached.

In 1832 the ferry was replaced by a floating log bridge, and this also was tended by Mark Beaubien. This was a favorite diving platform for the Indians, and they were frequently seen sporting in the river absolutely free of clothing. The fact that they paid \$200 of the total cost of the bridge, which was \$486.20, may have had some influence in encouraging them to indulge in this sport. This bridge remained here between Lake and Randolph streets as late as 1847, when it was replaced by a more substantial bridge at a cost of \$5000.

On the fifth of August 1833 there was a meeting of the voters in the Sauganash Hotel of Mark Beaubien to decide upon the advisability of incorporating as a town. Thirteen votes were cast, twelve in favor of the proposition and one against it. Five days later, in the same room, an election was held to choose the new officers of the new town, and at this time there were twenty-eight votes cast, probably a full vote.

From this time the little settlement at the Point lost its prestige. The town had been laid out in 1830, the canal commissioners were offering the lots for sale, there was a growing speculation in land, and lots changed hands rapidly. Just the year before, 1832, the solddiers under General Scott had been quartered for a time in Fort Dearborn. They had then marched across the northern part of the state, through this wonderful rolling, fertile country. They had returned to their homes in the east with stories of the possibilities of the land and of the commercial future of this straggling little settlement near the mouth of this sluggish little stream. In 1833 the great trek toward Chicago and northern Illinois began, and our little town was soon called upon to settle the difficult questions of pulling herself out of the mud and of planning for a permanent future.

CHAPTER XIII

1830 "Plans drawn for improving Chicago river — then a beautiful stream. The first vessel to reach the coveted port was the brig 'Illinois', Captain Pickering, July 12, 1834."



BEFORE 1830 there was no official town of Chicago, even though there had been a few families here from the time Fort Dearborn was established in 1803-04. As early as 1823 these few families near Fort Dearborn, as a part of Fulton county, were taxed on their personal property to the extent of five mills on a dollar. The collector secured \$11.42. When, two years later, this region became a part of Peoria county, the name Chicago was used sometimes for the river, sometimes for the little group of cabins on its banks, and sometimes for the Desplaines river.

To understand the real, the official Chicago, it will be necessary to go back to 1816. In that year the Potawatomi Indians ceded to the United States a strip of land twenty miles wide from Ottawa to Lake Michigan for the purpose of a waterway. This strip extended ten miles on each side of the Chicago, Desplaines and Illinois rivers. Congress in 1822 authorized the state of Illinois to build a canal to connect Lake Michigan with the Illinois river, and granted to the state 90 feet on each side of the proposed canal.

Through the efforts of Daniel P. Cook, for whom Cook county was named in 1831, Congress in 1827 made an additional grant to the state of Illinois of alternate sections of land five miles in width on each side of the canal, to be sold for funds with which to dig this waterway. The east half of section No. 9, in township 39 North, range 14 East, was part of this land granted to the state. This half section lay on the Chicago river near the lake shore. In accordance with a legislative act of 1829 a canal board of three commissioners was appointed, consisting of Dr. Jayne of Springfield, Edward Roberts of Kaskaskia and Charles Dunn. They in turn appointed James Thompson as surveyor to lay out the towns of Ottawa and Chicago at the ends of the proposed canal. This accounts for the presence on the bank of the river of James Thompson in 1830.

He platted the town of Chicago on the half section of No. 9 so that the northern boundary was the present Kinzie street, the southern boundary Madison, the eastern State and the western Desplaines. It must be remembered that east of State was the fort and the fort reservation, extending from the river south to Madison, and south of Madison, west of State, was the school section, set aside in accordance with the ordinance of 1787 and approved by the state in its constitution of 1818. These boundaries embraced the settlement at Wolf Point and the buildings on both banks of the main river.

The population of the new town numbered not to exceed a hundred. Beside these persons there was at the time a garrison of two companies in the fort under the command of Major Fowle. In the year 1831 Cook county was set apart from Peoria county, and Chicago was named as the county seat.

The artist erred slightly in his inclusion of the lighthouse in this picture. This lighthouse, just west of the fort, was built in 1831 but fell soon afterward, because of its sandy foundation. It was rebuilt the following year.

Not until 1833 was the river deepened and straightened and a channel cut through the sandbar so as to allow lake vessels to enter the river directly. In June 1834 the first steamboat entered the river, the "Michigan" built by Oliver Newberry of Detroit.
On the 12th of July, 1834, the "Illinois" sailed up the stream under full sail. She was a vessel of nearly one hundred tons, commanded by Captain Pickering. Cheering people crowded the banks of the river to welcome her. She stopped at the wharf of Newberry and Dole, at the southeast corner of South Water and Dearborn streets. After the Dearborn street bridge was opened, the new jack-knife bridge, she sailed proudly up to Wolf Point. Some two hundred of Chicago's citizens crowded her deck.

An early writer said: "The projection of the Illinois and Michigan canal was the immediate precursor of Chicago, the source from which she received her first impulse, and is that enterprise to which Chicago is more indebted today for her greatness than to any other source.

CHAPTER XIV

1830 "Hunting was a favorite pastime in and about Chicago. A bear weighing 400 pounds was shot on October 6, 1834, in a tree near La Salle and Adams streets."



THERE was very little soldiering to be done in or about Fort Dearborn, so the officers amused themselves with fishing and hunting. Some of the men went up the South Branch to a favorite fishing hole, others found sufficient sport along the lake shore. Deer, red foxes and wild fowl were abundant in the prairies and in the timber near the village. Sometimes foxes were dug out of their holes and taken to the fort, to be turned loose upon the sandbar between the river and the lake. Men were stationed to prevent their escape from the bar, and the hounds were set upon them. Indians and white men alike enjoyed the excitement of these chases.

During pleasant weather the men of the village and the officers of the garrison usually organized wolf hunts on horseback twice a week. Dr. Maxwell of the garrison, a heavy set man, had a large fleet horse and took part in many of these hunts. He laughed heartily when any of his companions were thrown from their horses. On one occasion the doctor was riding headlong in pursuit of a wolf. His horse, Emperor, stepped into a badger hole, and horse and rider had a bad fall. The chase swept past. Dr. Maxwell had been severely injured with a bruised shoulder, and spent several days in bed to his own discomfort but furnishing unholy glee to those whom he had ridiculed on previous occasions. In one day's hunt not less than two hundred wolves and one bear were taken. The wolves especially had been drawn to the neighborhood by the slaughter houses.

Hunting

A bear was discovered one day entering the timber along the South Branch. A hunt was quickly organized with men and dogs. As one writer said: "Bruin ran up a tree to see what was the matter and was shot for her curiosity; it was a female." She was barbecued and served with corn juice at the Tremont.

The winter monotony was often broken by a horse race upon the ice of the river. Mark Beaubien could be counted on to be one of the contestants. He usually won, as his wild shouts encouraged his horse but frightened any others in the race.

Many of the old timers have told incidents of the various hunts. On one winter day the hunting party had partly surrounded a pack of wolves, and in closing in on them had driven them onto the ice of the lake. Some the hunters shot, others floated off into the lake. Several days later the men read in the paper from Niles, Michigan, of the raids upon farmers' pigpens and chicken roosts by hungry wolves, and they wondered whether their chase had been responsible for these raids.

As the village, and later the city, grew, these hunts passed into history and were lived over again only as the pioneers gathered about the stoves of the stores on wintry evenings and recounted tales of the glorious past.

CHAPTER XV

1930-31 "What was known as the 'Winter of the Deep Snow' occurred in 1830-31. For several weeks the snow was four feet deep on the level."



CHICAGO, with the rest of the mid-west, experienced one of its worst snow storms during the winter of 1830-31. One writer in 1899 said: "Perhaps no event has ever happened in the history of this western country since its settlement by white men that has caused so much suffering among the people and animals as did the 'deep snow'".

Snow began falling during the latter part of December and continued to fall more or less continuously for a month. It lay about three feet six inches on the level, but along the fences and in hollows it drifted to a depth of ten to fifteen feet. The weather was intensely cold, ranging from ten to twenty degrees below zero much of the time. For about three months the deep snow covered the ground.

As the winters had usually been mild, farmers had fallen into the habit of leaving their corn in the fields, except for enough to feed their stock the early part of the winter. Wild hogs had previously lived well on the acorns they had been able to pick up throughout the winter. But this winter conditions were different. Much of the stock died because the farmers could not get at their corn. Deer, wild hogs and other wild animals were almost wiped out of existence.

Indians in large numbers settled in the river bottoms for protection. For their ponies they cut down small trees of soft wood, like the basswood, cottonwood, elm and soft maple_{η} The ponies frequently ate up the whole tree and so managed to survive the winter. The Indians themselves were favored in their supply of game by the fact that great herds of deer

fled to the ravines for protection from the storm, and were thus easily killed. Moreover, the Indians with their snowshoes were able to glide easily over the surface of the snow, while the animals they pursued floundered through snow often beyond their depth. Mink and muskrats, coming out of their dens, left tracks on the snow which the Indians easily followed. The foxes and raceoons were tracked to their hiding places in holes or trees and were killed with spears. And so the severe suffering of the winter of the deep snow was lightened by the supply of furs which the red men were able to secure.

CHAPTER XVI

1831 *"In the early Thirties mail was received twice a* month from the East, coming by way of Niles, Michigan. Its arrival was the occasion of much local excitement."



THE FIRST CHICAGO POSTOFFICE was a story and a half log building at the Forks of the river just cost a half log building at the Forks of the river, just east of the South Branch and close to the south shore of the main stream. It was just north of the Sauganash Hotel, which had been built by Mark Beaubien. A picture of this postoffice, to be seen in the museum of the Chicago Historical Society, shows the log cabin with the postmaster, or storekeeper, standing in the doorway, while in the foreground is the covered mail wagon drawn by two horses. Nothing but a country dirt road leads to the building or to the Sauganash Hotel close by. On the opposite side of the river may be seen the Miller House, on the east side of the North Branch, while Wolf Tavern, with its flaunting sign, is on the west side, on Wolf Point. To get the beginnings of mail service in Chicago it is necessary to go considerably farther back than 1831, when this first postoffice was built.

After the close of the War of 1812 the government of the United States rebuilt Fort Dearborn in 1816 and established several forts in Wisconsin so as to assert governmental supremacy in this western region. One of these forts was Fort Howard, where the Fox river flows into Green Bay. Communication between Fort Howard and Fort Dearborn was maintained by means of a soldier sent by one or the other commander, and the trail followed was the Green Bay trail.

As early as 1824 mail was carried during the summer time in sailing vessels, but it was often weeks that the inhabitants of these places would get no news of the outside world. In the winter time the mail was carried between Chicago and Fort Howard by a carrier who was hired to make monthly trips between the two places. His pay came partly from the quartermaster of the fort and partly from popular subscription. When the carrier was delayed much beyond the expected time it was taken for granted that he had fallen a victim of the red man or had died of starvation.

John H. Fonda, who "ran the mail" on this trail during the winter of 1826, usually dressed in a smoke-tanned buckskin hunting shirt, trimmed leggings of the same material, a wolfskin cap, with the animal's tail still attached, and moccasins of elk hide. He carried a heavy mountaineer's rifle with a shortened barrel and a strap so attached that it could be slung over his back. A powder horn hung by a strap from his shoulder, while a belt around his waist held a sheath knife and a pair of pistols, in addition to a short-handled ax. Attached to the belt also was a pouch of mink skin, in which he carried his rifle bullets. The mail was carried in a flat tin box covered with untanned deer hide. His companion was a Canadian dressed much as he was.

This round trip of five hundred miles took most of the month. For food they depended upon the Indians and upon such game as they could shoot. They also carried a bag of parched corn, to be eaten only in case of special need. They sometimes spent the nights in Indian villages, but more usually in front of their own campfire in the woods, wrapped in the blankets which they carried on their backs.

On one occasion in 1832 the Canadian who was carrying the mail from Green Bay to Chicago froze his feet and their amputation became necessary. Dr. Elijah Harmon, who had recently come to the old Kinzie home, assisted by his brother, tied the unfortunate man to a chair, applied a tourniquet to each leg and with the aid of some rusty instruments which he had brought on horseback from Detroit, removed one entire foot and part of the other. There were no anesthetics in those days.

Even earlier than this, in 1821, the Green Bay trail was the scene of the murder of Dr. William S. Madison of Fort Howard. He had received a furlough to visit his family in Kentucky, and set out over the trail with the mail carrier. During the second day an Indian joined them. Toward sundown, as they crossed a little ravine, the mail carrier was in the lead, the doctor following, and the Indian bringing up the rear. A gun was fired, and the doctor fell mortally wounded. The Indian was later brought in by the chief of his band and was publicly hanged.

In 1827-28 a man by the name of McKee carried the mail once a month to Fort Wayne, Indiana. His Indian pony had to carry the mailbag and blankets so that he couldn't carry provisions for himself and corn for the pony. He drove the pony in front of him and cut down an elm or basswood tree for the pony to browse on during the night. He carried a gun so that he might kill his own game. His route was from here to Niles, Michigan, thence to Elkhart, Indiana, thence to Fort Wayne. On the average it took him fourten days to go from here to Fort Wayne, and the quickest time he ever made was ten days.

The first Chicago postmaster was Jonathan Bailey, appointed March 31, 1831, by President Andrew Jackson. At this time Bailey was living in the old Kinzie house north of the river, and it is probable that he used this place for a short time for the receipt and delivery of mail until the postoffice first mentioned was built at the Forks. He had previously been the postmaster at Mackinac Island, Michigan. At this time the nearest distributing center was Niles, Michigan, all postoffices in this western part of the country receiving their mail from Niles and in turn sending their eastern mail to Niles. Once a week mail was sent by carrier on horseback. At this time there were about one hundred people in Chicago. No envelopes were in use at the time, but the last page of the letter was left blank and then the letter was so folded inwards from the four corners as to make this the cover. The four corners thus brought together were sealed with sealing wax. The average cost of mailing a letter was about twenty-five cents.

In 1832, November the second, President Jackson appointed John S. C. Hogan as postmaster. The log building near the corner of Lake and South Water streets was twenty feet by forty-five feet in size and was partitioned off so as to serve as a postoffice on one side and as the store of Brewster, Hogan and Co. on the other.

It was said of Hogan that he "kept the postoffice in his boots and the mail in his hat". He was said to have nailed the tops of his discarded boots and those of his assistant, John Bates, against the wall and to have used them as the private boxes for the most favored and important of his patrons. The mails were irregular, so Hogan, after sorting the letters would put them in his hat and with his hands full of papers would start out to find the owners. In this way he was usually told much of the information contained in the letters and was given the well-read papers he had delivered on a previous trip, to be passed on to others to read. He thus had the reputation of being the best informed man in the village.

John Bates, the assistant, said on one occasion: "The Eastern mail was carried once a week on horseback by a little, short, stocky Frenchman whom we called Louis. I never knew him by any other name. As the village grew, so the mail grew until it weighed thirty to forty pounds. It was so bulky that Louis had to walk, and the bags on the horse's back spread out like wings, making the pony look like some kind of queer bird. Chicago was then the central office for a sweep of a hundred miles around. People came thirty or forty miles to inquire for a letter. If they didn't get something, they looked sick. Men from the 'Yankee Settlement' on Hickory Creek, Naperville and other outside places, used to come up with a list of all the names in their places, and take the mail in a lump. Letter postage was then twenty-five cents on each letter, and sometimes we had to trust for the postage.''

Citizens who later became wealthy used to speak of how difficult it was at times to get the two bits with which to get their love letters. Postage stamps were not in use, and those receiving the letters paid the postage. In order to save the two bits extra for overweight people wrote on the thinnest kind of paper, in fine black letters, on every page but the last, and then turned the paper upside down and wrote between the lines with red ink, after which they would sometimes write lengthwise of the paper with milk. Heating before the fire would bring out the writing in milk. Sometimes the chalk and water milk would not show up, no matter how much scorching there might be before the fire, and thus part of the message would be lost. Because of the heavy postage, merchants who went east to do their buying were expected to carry letters and to deliver them when they reached the end of their journey. This was such an inconvenience that many a merchant started out without giving any notice to his customers of his intention.

While Mr. Hogan was still postmaster the office was removed to the corner of Franklin and South Water streets. The third postmaster was Sidney Abell, appointed March 3, 1837. The office was soon after moved to Clark street between Lake and South Water streets. It was thus nearer the center of the town which developed rapidly on this south side. During this time Chicago itself became a distributing center and was no longer dependent upon Niles, Michigan. A daily mail to the east was established.

John Wentworth has given this description of the interest in the arrival of the mail in the early days: "One of our most reliable places of entertainment was the postoffice while the mail was being opened. The postoffice was on the west side of Franklin street, cornering on South Water street. The mail coach was irregular in the time of its arrival, but the horn of the driver announced its approach. Then the people would largely assemble at the postoffice and wait for the opening of the mails, which at times were very heavy. The postmaster would throw out a New York paper, and some gentleman with a good pair of lungs and a jocose temperament would mount a drygoods box and commence reading. During exciting times our leading men would invariably go to the postoffice themselves instead of sending their employes. The news would be discussed by the assemblage, and oftentimes heavy bets would be made and angry words passed. If it was election time, there would be two papers thrown out, of opposite politics, two reading stands established, two readers engaged, and the men of each party would assemble around their own reader. This condition of affairs would last until the mails were opened, when the gathering would adjourn until the next blowing of the driver's horn."

CHAPTER XVII

1832 "During the Blackhawk War settlers within a radius of fifty miles flocked to Chicago to seek protection of Ft. Dearborn. The town then numbered about 150 inhabitants."



A^{LL} NORTHERN ILLINOIS was in a ferment during the summer of 1832. Men, women and children hurried from their farms to the fortified towns. The militia were mustered in and mustered out again. Officers of the regular army with their regiments marched to the Rock River region. Governor Reynolds was personally in the field. All this was because of the news that Black Hawk and his British Band had crossed the Mississippi into Illinois and were on the warpath. And who was Black Hawk?

Ma-Ka-Tai-Me-She-Kia-Kiah was born in the Sac village on Rock River in 1767. It is said that his name of Black Hawk was due to the fact that his medicine bag was made of the skin of a black hawk. It was customary for an Indian lad, when he reached adolescence, about fourteen years of age, to go to a distance from the village and there fast for several days until he had a vision in which he saw some animal, bird or fish. He would then go on a hunt until he secured the body of the object of his vision. This he would make into a bag, his medicine bag. It was to him a charm and must not be lost. To lose his medicine bag, even in battle, was a disgrace which could be wiped out only by taking the medicine bag of an enemy in battle.

When Black Hawk was about fifteen, he distinguished himself by wounding an enemy, and was then admitted to the ranks of braves. Shortly after this he went to war with his father against the Osages. He saw his father kill and scalp his antagonist. In his zeal he himself rushed upon another, struck him with his tomahawk, ran his lance through the victim's body and took off his scalp. When the party returned to the village he was allowed to take part in his first scalp dance.

A few moons later he led a party of seven against a hundred Osages and killed a man. His party then escaped without the loss of a single person. Not long after this he led a party of a hundred eighty against an Osage village. As this village was deserted all of his party but five left him. These few kept on several days and secured two scalps to take back with them. These are typical incidents in the early life of Black Hawk.

In 1804 General William Henry Harrison, Governor of Indiana Territory, made a treaty with five of the chiefs of the united Sac and Fox tribes. The treaty provided that the Indians should give to the government all the lands east of the Mississippi as far as the Illinois and Fox rivers and a considerable extent of land west of the Mississippi north of the Missouri. It return the government promised goods to the value of \$2,234.50 and an annuity of \$1000. One article of the treaty read: "As long as the lands which are now ceded to the United States remain their property, the Indians belonging to the said tribes shall enjoy the privilege of living and hunting upon them." Black Hawk was not a chief and did not sign this treaty. In later years he claimed that he did not know of this treaty and that those who signed had no authority to do so.

During the War of 1812 between England and the United States Black Hawk and his band fought with the British against the Americans. After the battle of the Thames, in which the British were defeated, he deserted with twenty of his braves. As he said: "I was now tired of being with them, our success being bad and having no plunder."

The village of Black Hawk was on the Rock River, not

far from its mouth, close to the present Rock Island. The land was fertile and the squaws raised plentiful crops of corn, beans, squashes and melons. Fishing was fair along the rapids of the river, but there was little in the way of hunting. Each year the band would cross the Mississippi during the hunting seasons and return for the corn planting and the harvesting.

Black Hawk was constantly in touch with the English traders and frequently went to Malden, in Canada near Detroit, to receive British presents. He had been given the title of general while acting as aid of Tecumseh in the War of 1812. He was morose and easily excited to anger against the Americans. The fact that Keokuk had been made chief of the Sacs in his absence during the war also irritated him. When an American expedition was led up the Mississippi in 1814, he attacked it. A little later, when Major Zachary Taylor attempted to punish him, he defeated Taylor with the aid of a six-pounder cannon belonging to the English and operated by them. As a result of these attacks he was compelled to "touch the goose quill", as he said, in St. Louis on May 13, 1816. This treaty restated the cession of lands in the treaty of 1804 and also required the restoration of goods taken by the Indians from settlers.

About this time the Military Tract was opened to soldiers of the War of 1812. Over five million acres of land between the Illinois and Mississippi rivers were set aside for these soldiers. With their families these men and others who had bought up the land warrants soon moved into this rich territory. As usual, those in the van, especially the squatters, feeling themselves crowded, pushed on in advance of the sale of farms and settled on lands in Black Hawk territory. They were encouraged to do this because of the presence of a fort on the Mississippi near the mouth of Rock River, Fort Armstrong. The President by proclamation ordered that these lands be surveyed and opened for sale. Keokuk and other chiefs of the Sacs and Foxes removed to the west side of the Mississippi, but Black Hawk refused to go. He claimed that in signing the treaty of 1816 he had been deceived and didn't know his village was included in its terms. When the crop of 1830 had been planted, the Indians left for their summer hunt. When they returned they gathered the corn from their fields and turned the ponies in to graze. The ponies got into the adjoining fields of ripening grain of the white settlers. The settlers complained to the Governor.

Black Hawk had a talk with two of the prominent men of the state, former Governor Coles and Judge Hall. He said: "I told them that the white people had already entered our village, burnt our lodges, destroyed our fences, plowed up our corn, and beat our people; that they had brought whiskey into our country, made our people drunk and taken from them their horses, guns and traps; and that I had borne all this injury without suffering any of my braves to raise a hand against the whites."

In the fall of 1830 the Indians again left for their winter's hunt. When they returned in the spring of 1831 the settlers appealed to the Indian Agent at Rock Island and to General Gaines, then to Governor Reynolds. The governor sent out a call for seven hundred militia to meet at Beardstown June tenth. He notified Governor William Clark of Missouri of his action and asked his assistance in removing the Indians. General Gaines called a council of the Indians, in which Black Hawk was insulting and refused to depart. The regulars and the militia now closed in on him. They carefully explored the island where he was supposed to be. Not an Indian was to be found. Everyone — brave, squaw, papoose and dog — had left during the night without a sound to indicate their going. They were safe across the Mississippi. The volunteers in their anger burned the Indian village. Black Hawk and others were summoned to a council. On the 30th of June 1831 they signed a treaty with Governor Reynolds and with General Gaines, in which they agreed not to recross the river to their former residence.

It was only a short time, however, before Black Hawk sent out runners in all directions trying to organize a great confederacy. He sent his lieutenant, Ne-a-pope, to the British in Canada. As Neapope was returning he stopped at the village of the Winnebago Prophet on Rock River, who performed several incantations, then prophesied that if Black Hawk would take up the hatchet once more against the whites, he would be joined by the Great Spirit and a great army of worldlings, and in no time at all he would vanquish the whites and be restored to his ancient village.

On the sixth of April 1832 Black Hawk crossed the Mississippi with about five hundred warriors and their squaws and children, some two thousand in all. As he said, they had come "to make corn."

Governor Reynolds was immediately requested to call out the militia to cooperate with the soldiers under General Atkinson. Abraham Lincoln was one of the men who responded to this first call. As the sixty-eight men from New Salem hastened to Beardstown for the rendezvous, they fell in behind Lincoln as their choice for captain. He led them until they were mustered out. He knew no military tactics. At one time he was marching with a front of over twenty men across a field, when he wished to pass through a gateway into the next field. As he couldn't remember the word of command, he shouted: "This company is dismissed for two minutes, when it will fall in again on the other side of the gate." On one occasion Lincoln led his men across the Henderson river at the cost of wet clothing. Both men and captain fired off their guns, contrary to a recent order. As a result, Lincoln was compelled to wear a wooden sword. On another occasion, unknown to him, his men got hold of some whiskey and were unable to respond to the order to march the next morning. Again Lincoln was compelled to wear a wooden sword for two days. These incidents were typical of the experiences with the volunteer militia. They were untrained, independent, inclined to grumble at inconveniences, and were not dependable for military service. After Lincoln's company was discharged, he reenlisted as a private in the scout troop of Captain Iles, and then later he enlisted again.

The first great event of this war was the defeat suffered by Major Stillman. The troops and the militia were gathering at Dixon's ferry. Reports came in that Black Hawk and his band were to the north of them. Major Stillman with two companies asked to be allowed to go after them. He was granted permission to do so. The men encamped about thirty miles above Dixon on Old Man's Creek, which flows into Rock River. While they were in camp three Indians came in bearing a white flag. They had a message from Black Hawk asking for peace. Five other Indians were seen on a hill in the distance, watching to see how the three were received. The undisciplined militia were out for Indians, so they started off without orders for those five redskins. Two they killed, and the other three they followed. Meanwhile in camp the three Indians ran to escape, but one of them was shot.

Black Hawk with fifty braves was in the woods near by, giving a feast to chiefs of other Indian tribes whom he hoped to persuade to join him. When he heard the confusion he lay in ambush until the soldiers came up, then killed them and chased those who were just coming up. The soldiers fied in terror to the camp, through the camp, helter skelter back to Dixon, which most of them reached in the early hours of the following day. A few who bravely resisted had been killed and scalped. Fifty Indian braves had put to rout two hundred seventy-five of the militia. And this wasn't the worst of it. Black Hawk's braves now roved over the countryside in small bands, attacking towns and lonely farm houses.

The most terrible of these attacks was the Indian River massacre, about twelve miles north of Dixon, where William Davis had settled. Here he had a cabin, a blacksmith shop and a mill. Shabbona in friendship had warned the settlers to flee to the settlements, where they might "fort" themselves. Davis had refused to leave. He had with him several other families. They thought themselves sufficient for any danger likely to occur. On the afternoon of May the twentieth about seventy Indians appeared unexpectedly at the door of the cabin. Mr. Pettigrew, who was holding a small child, attempted to close the door, but was shot down. One child was brained by swinging it against a tree. The women and the children in the cabin and the men in the blacksmith shop were shot down and scalped. A few who were working in the field and one of the boys in the shop succeeded in getting away.

Two girls, Rachel and Sylvia Hall, seventeen and fifteen years of age were seized by the Indians, put on horseback and taken, closely guarded, to Black Hawk's camp. Several days later several Winnebagoes appeared and offered the Sacs two thousand dollars in exchange for the girls. This had been done at the request of General Atkinson. The girls were returned to the soldiers, and by them turned over to an uncle of the girls and to their brother who had been one of those to escape from the massacre.

Meanwhile the troops were trailing Black Hawk, following

him to the northward into Wisconsin. They finally came up with him as his band was trying to cross the Mississippi near the mouth of the Bad Axe river. The soldiers far outnumbered the Indians. Now occurred a massacre on the part of the white men. Many of the Indian women and children, as well as the braves, were shot as they tried to swim across to an island. Black Hawk and his sons, with the Prophet, escaped to the Dells of Wisconsin. Here they were taken a little later by some of the Winnebagoes and surrendered to General Scott. They were sent down the Mississippi in charge of Lieutenant Jefferson Davis to Jefferson barracks at St. Louis. From here Black Hawk and eleven of his followers were taken through the east, then met President Jackson. They were confined for a short time at Fortress Monroe, then they visited several of the eastern cities and finally returned to Fort Armstrong, near their old home. Here they were met by Keokuk and others and escorted to the remnant of their tribe west of the Mississippi. Black Hawk had been impressed by the greatness of the power of the white people. He lived at peace thereafter, and died at his home in Iowa on October third 1838, at the age of seventy-two.

As a military campaign, the Black Hawk war was insignificant. It was characterized by cruelty on both sides and by incompetence on the part of the whites. It did, however, bring together men who became famous in later days — Zachary Taylor, Abraham Lincoln, Jefferson Davis, Robert Anderson of Fort Sumter fame, General Winfield Scott, who rose to the command of the army, General Johnston of Confederate renown, and others of more local importance. It also had a great influence in opening this northern part of the state to settlement. There was no more fear of Indians, and the soldiers returning to the east carried back news of the fertility of the soil and of the resources of the country.

CHAPTER XVIII

1833

"The year 1833 witnessed great activity in building. The Democrat, Chicago's first newspaper, was issued that year."



0^N AUGUST FIFTH 1833, by a vote of twelve to one, the inhabitants of Chicago voted to organize as a town. On March fourth 1837 Chicago became a city on the approval by the legislature of a charter. And so for almost three and a half years Chicago existed as an incorporated town. During these few years many interesting events took place.

For more than a quarter of a century after the building of Fort Dearborn the place was known as Fort Dearborn. During the early years the few buildings consisted of several log cabins on the north side of the river and a few just south of the fort.

John H. Fonda, who passed through here in 1825, said: "At that time Chicago was merely an Indian agency. It contained about fourteen houses, and not more than seventyfive or one hundred inhabitants at the most. An agent of the Fur Company, named Gurdon S. Hubbard, then occupied the fort. The staple business seemed to be carried on by the Indians and runaway soldiers, who hunted ducks and muskrats in the marshes. There was a great deal of low land, mostly destitute of timber. The principal inhabitants were the government agent (Dr. Wolcott), Mr. Hubbard, a French man by the name of Ouilmette and John B. Beaubien."

Cook County had been created by the legislature on January 15, 1831, and Chicago had been made the county seat. From this time until the fifth of August, people living here were residents of Cook County but had no particular powers as towns-people. On that day they voted to assume the powers of a town. The vote was twelve to one. The one voter opposed to the organization of the town lived at that time beyond the extreme southern border of the proposed town, though he carried on his business in the settlement. The following year he moved into town.

Five days after the vote for incorporation an election was held in the Sauganash Hotel of Mark Beaubien for the purpose of choosing five town trustees. There were twenty-eight qualified voters. Of these, thirteen were candidates for office. Two days later the five trustees met to organize. They chose Thomas J. V. Owen as president and Isaac Harmon as clerk.

At their first regular meeting, on the fourth of September, they determined upon a free ferry across the river at Dearborn street. Previous to this Archibald Clybourne and Samuel Miller had established a ferry across the South Branch. Early in 1831 Mark Beaubien received a license to run this ferry, but in less than a year the ferry was abandoned in favor of a floating bridge. In 1832 a low permanent bridge was built across the North Branch. Now, in 1833, the trustees established a ferry across the main stream at Dearborn street.

John Wentworth has given a vivid account of this ferry boat. He said: "An interesting institution was the ferry boat between the north and south sides. It was a general intelligence office. Business was done principally upon the south side, while most of the dwelling houses were upon the north side. The ferryman knew about every person in town and could answer any question as to who had crossed. The streets had not then been raised to their present grade, nor the river deepened or widened, and the boat was easily accessible to teams. It was pulled across by a rope and was not used enough to kill the green rushes which grew in the river. If a lady came to the south side to spend an evening, she would leave word with the ferryman where her husband could find her. Bundles and letters were left with him to be delivered to persons as they passed. He was a sort of superannuated sailor, and if he had not sailed into every port in the world, he had a remarkable faculty of making people think he had."

In the fall of 1833 five thousand Indians were assembled here to consider the cession of their land to the government. As Charles J. Latrobe wrote: "Day after day passed. It was in vain that the signal gun from the fort gave notice of an assemblage of chiefs at the council fire. Reasons were always found for its delay. One day an influential chief was not in the way; another, the sky looked cloudy, and the Indian never performs any important business except the sky be clear. At length on the twenty-first of September the Potawatomi resolved to meet the commissioners."

The treaty was concluded on the 26th of September 1833. The Indians gave up all their title to lands owned or claimed by the United States east of the Mississippi. They were given in exchange five million acres on the east bank of the Missouri river. It was provided that a deputation of not more than fifty Indians, accompanied by five agents of the United States, should visit this new grant before they removed to it. Upon the ratification of the treaty by the government the Indians were to remove from Illinois; those in Wisconsin might remain three years longer if they chose. Their removal was to be at the expense of the government, and they were to be given provisions on their journey and for one year afterward. The treaty was ratified by Congress on the twentyfirst of January 1835.

When the Ordinance of 1787 was adopted by Congress for the government of the Northwest Territory, it was provided that in each township one section, a square mile, should be set aside for school purposes. The school section in Chicago was the square mile bounded by State and Halsted, Madison and Twelfth.

A petition signed by ninety-five residents of Chicago urged Colonel R. J. Hamilton, school commissioner, to sell this property. These men considered it better to convert unproductive property into a stated sum drawing ten per cent semi-annual interest in advance. Acting upon this will of the overwhelming majority, Colonel Hamilton had the property disposed of at public auction from the 20th to the 24th of October 1833. The section was divided into 144 blocks, each containing about four acres. All but four of these blocks were sold and brought in a total sum of \$38,865, an average of \$60.72 per acre. It was sold largely on credit of one, two or three years, with interest at 10 per cent.

Chicago leads in the manufacture of agricultural machinery. The beginning of this dates back to the eighth day of October 1833, when Asahel Pierce arrived in Chicago from Vermont and commenced the erection of a blacksmith shop at the corner of Lake and Canal streets. He soon developed his work into the manufacturing of plows. In order to get suitable lumber for his shop he had to haul it from Plainfield forty miles away. From the Reverend William See he bought an old set of tools. That left him with only a few dollars as capital. In January 1834 he obtained an order for doing the iron work for the first stage line between Chicago and St. Louis. In the spring of that year he began the manufacture of the old-fashioned "Bull" plow, with its wooden mould board. This was the first agricultural implement manufactured in Chicago, and even in the state north of Springfield. Mr. Pierce devised many improvements in plows, also manufacturing the first steel, or self-scouring, plow in the West.

The first fire ordinance in Chicago was passed November

6, 1833. It forbade the passing of any stove pipe through the roof, partition, or side of any building, unless guarded by tin or sheet iron, six inches from wood, under penalty of five dollars; the cause of complaint to be removed within fortyeight hours or fine to be repeated. Under the authority of this fire ordinance Benjamin Jones was appointed the first fire warden. The next year a warden was appointed for each of the four districts into which the town was divided, and they were charged with the duty of making a tour of inspection on the first Monday of each month to see that the stovepipe ordinance was properly enforced. They were paid according to the time thus employed.

In 1834 occurred the first fire. The Democrat of October 12, 1834, gave this account. "On Saturday last, about 10 o'clock A. M., a building on the corner of Lake and La Salle streets, and the one attached, were discovered to be in flames. Our citizens repaired to the scene of conflagration with a promptitude worthy of commendation and succeeded in arresting its progress, after destroying two other buildings adjoining. The wind, being high at the time, threatened the destruction of a number of the surrounding houses, but by the exertions of our citizens they were saved from devastation. The loss of the sufferers will be severely felt, as some of them lost their all. The fire commenced by a coal from a shovel in carrying from one building to the other."

It was only two days after the fire that the trustees met at the Tremont House and adopted their third fire ordinance, by means of which they hoped to avert other disasters similar to the one that had just occurred. They empowered the fire wardens to summon bystanders to assist them in suppressing fires, and obliged the wardens to wear badges of office.

On the third of November the Board of Trustees held another meeting and adopted the following ordinance for precaution against fires: "Whereas, It has been represented by sundry citizens, householders and owners of property in the town of Chicago, that great danger of destruction to their property and to that of the community at large exists, by means of a practice too generally indulged in, viz., that of carrying fire from one house to another without care or caution, and whereas, the President and Trustees of the town of Chicago have been called upon by their fellow citizens to adopt measures for the prevention of the said practice in the future, therefore

Be it, and it is hereby ordained by the President and Trustees of the town of Chicago that hereafter it shall not be lawful for any person or persons to convey fire brands or coals from one house or building to another within the limits of the corporation, unless the same be carried or conveyed in a covered earthen or fireproof vessel. Any person offending against the provisions of this ordinance shall be liable to a fine of \$5 for each and every offense, to be recovered before any justice of the peace in like manner as other fines are by law recoverable. This ordinance to take effect and be in force from and after the 12th day of November, A. D., 1834.

> John H. Kinzie, President Board of Trustees

On November 26, 1833, was published the first Chicago newspaper. It was the Chicago Democrat, and was published by John Calhoun, who came here that fall from the east, influenced by the glowing accounts of this western country given by Harlow Kimball. When Mr. Calhoun arrived after a dangerous voyage by vessel and by stage, he found his printing materials on the log dock of Newberry and Dole. Two apprentices had also accompanied this outfit from the east. An office was secured at the southwest corner of South Water and Clark streets. As the building was unfinished at the time, Mr. Calhoun helped in the lathing of it. It is said that Mark Beaubien aided him with the money for this venture.

Mr. Calhoun was an ardent admirer of Andrew Jackson, which was the reason he named the new paper the "Chicago Democrat". It was a six-column folio, measuring twenty by fifty inches in size. Its motto was, "Where Liberty dwells, there is my country."

The first page contained a long article on a Sac and Fox buffalo hunt, based upon an interview with Keokuk, the chief of the Sacs and Foxes. Another article was the reproduction of a circular on pre-emption claims sent to registers and receivers of the United States land offices.

Down in the lower corner of this first page was an item of a different nature. It was entitled, "Encouraging Rising Merit", and was as follows: "And you are at school now, are you?" was the question of a countryman to a little nephew who had a short time before commenced his education. 'And do you like the school, my little man?' 'Yes, sir!' whispered the boy. 'That's right, you'll be a brave scholar, I'll warrant — how far are you up in your class, my little student?' 'Next to the head, sir.' 'Next to the head, say you; come now, you deserve something for that', thrusting four whole cents into the hand of the delighted urchin. 'And how many are in your class?' 'I and a little gir!'"

On the second page was an editorial, from which the following is taken:

"More than eight hundred souls may now be found within the limits that within a few short months included less than one tenth of that number. Situated as Chicago is, at the mouth of a fine navigable river, on the shore of the noble
lake into which that river empties itself, in a country possessing a soil of extraordinary fertility, with an easy access to timber of almost every description and above all with a climate whose clear and salubrious atmosphere is almost unsurpassed, is it a matter of wonder that it should be so eagerly sought as a resting place for the hardy and enterprising emigrant?

"But it is not to the agriculturist alone that Chicago and its vicinity so commend themselves. To the commencial community it opens extensive interests. At the head of a lake which forms one of the main links in the great chain of communication between the west and the Atlantic, it must unavoidably become the grand depot and outlet for the entire production of the whole valley of the upper Mississippi, and through it in exchange for these products must pass the merchandise and commodities destined to supply this vast region of country."

In 1833 occurred the first trial for larceny. Giles Spring had arrived in town in June as the first practising attorney. A few days later, June 19, came John Dean Caton, who later was widely known as Judge Caton. They were said to have held their offices on the head of a barrel at the corner of Lake and Wells streets. A man by the name of Hatch one day missed \$34, and accused a fellow boarder at his hotel. Hatch hired Caton as his lawyer. The accused man retained Spring and Hamilton. The case was taken before Squire Heacock for examination. No convicting evidence was brought out against the accused, and the spectators were jeering Attorney Caton rather freely, when he saw a suspicious lump in the stocking of the prisoner. He made a jump for it, grabbed it out, and brought to light the missing roll of bills. The prisoner was turned over to the constable, and a change of venue was taken to bring the case before Squire Harmon.

When the case was called the prisoner was convicted but released on bail. Caton received his ten dollars fee from the money that had been recovered. The prisoner jumped his bail, and his attorneys never did receive compensation. In some respects this first case set a precedent to be followed in later years.

The first public entertainment given by professional performers in Chicago to which an admission was charged took place February 24, 1834. In the February 18th issue of the Chicago Democrat appeared the following advertisement:

"Exhibition"

"Joy hath its limits. We but borrow one hour of mirth from months of sorrow. The ladies and gentlemen of Chicago are most respectfully informed that Mr. Bowers, Professor de Tours Amusant, has arrived in town and will give an exhibition at the house of Mr. D. Graves on Monday evening next (February 24)."

The first drawbridge was built during the year 1834, extending across the river at Dearborn treet.

Originally, the river turned southward just east of the fort and entered the lake about one thousand feet south of its present mouth. In 1833 a shallow channel had been cut through the obstructing sandbar so that the stream could flow directly into the lake. In June 1834 the first steamboat entered the river. It was the old "Michigan", built by Oliver Newberry, of Detroit. On the twelfth of July the "Illinois" sailed up the stream under full sail. She was a vessel of nearly one hundred tons and was commanded by Captain Pickering. The banks of the river were crowded with cheering people. She stopped at the wharf of Newberry and Dole, at the southeast corner of South Water and Dearborn streets. Then after the Dearborn street bridge was opened, she sailed proudly up to Wolf Point. Some two hundred of Chicago's citizens crowded onto her deck.

The first murder trial occurred in the year 1834. An Irishman had killed his wife. His lawyer succeeded in persuading the judge to instruct the jury that if they did not find him guilty of murder they must acquit him. The circumstances of the crime led the jury to believe it was manslaughter and not murder, so that under the improper instructions of the court the man was freed.

In 1834 Gurdon S. Hubbard moved to Chicago permanently. He had often been here as a fur trader and as a dealer in live stock, having passed through here first as a lad in 1818. There was a westward rush of migration during this year because of the favorable reports carried to their homes by the soldiers under General Scott in 1832 and because of the Chicago Treaty with the Indians in September 1833. By the middle of May there was no room for the crowd of incomers. Hotels and boarding houses were full. Many immigrants slept and lived in their covered wagons.

The price of real estate began to boom. Lots that were bought one day for fifty dollars were sold the next for sixty dollars and resold a month later for a hundred dollars. Every resident and every newcomer caught the fever. No Chicagoan, whatever his business, considered he had made a success unless he could show a profit on the sale of lots, altogether aside from his regular business.

At the first sale of canal lots in 1829 Gurdon S. Hubbard had bought two lots, one on the northwest corner of Lake and La Salle streets, and the other on the northwest corner of La Salle and South Water streets. They were 80 by 100 feet in size. He paid \$33.33 for each. In 1836 he might have secured \$100,000 for these two lots. He sold part of the property at the height of the boom and the rest after the financial crash, but realized \$80,000 on his investment of \$66.66.

The first piano was brought to Chicago in 1834 by John B. Beaubien, and the Chicago Book and Stationery store was opened by Russell and Cliff. This was also the year of the building by the Methodists of their first church. It was erected at the corner of North Water and Clark streets, a frame building 26 by 38 feet, for \$580. The Rev. Jesse Walker preached here regularly, but was superannuated in the middle of the winter and was succeeded by the Rev. J. T. Mitchell.

The first regular fire department of Chicago was organized under the provisions of an ordinance of November 4, 1835. The department was to consist of a chief engineer, two assistants and four fire wardens, in addition to the town trustees. Every dwelling house or other building containing a fireplace or stove was required to have one good painted leathern fire bucket, with the initials of the owner's name painted thereon. Every building with two or more fireplaces or stoves was required to have two firebuckets. Every ablebodied male inhabitant owning a bucket who did not go to the place of the fire and work under the direction of the fire wardens was liable to pay a fine of \$2. During the preceding September the authorities had ordered the purchase of a fire engine. It was bought December tenth from Hubbard and Co. for \$894.38.

Before 1835 there had been no definite places for the burial of the dead, but on the fifteenth of August of that year the town surveyor was ordered to lay out two cemeteries, sixteen acres on the south side and ten on the north. The location on the north side was near Chicago avenue, east of Clark street; on the south side near the lake shore and Twenty-third street. In September these lots were fenced in and burials were forbidden elsewhere within the town limits.

On the Fourth of July, 1836, ground was first broken for the new Illinois and Michigan canal.

On the twenty-fifth of October 1836 Wentworth arrived in Chicago, a recent graduate of Dartmouth College. Very soon he became editor and owner of the Chicago Democrat. The first issue published by Mr. Wentworth was dated November 23, 1836. Wentworth took an active part in securing the city charter for Chicago that was approved by the legislature March 4, 1837.

CHAPTER XIX

1834 "The first lift bridge in Chicago at Dearborn street. It was of the gallows pattern, about 300 feet long, and was worked by chain cables, and opened with cranks."



THE FIRST DRAWBRIDGE was built during the year .1834. It extended across the river at Dearborn street. In a letter written by Nelson R. Norton, he said: "I came to Chicago November 16, 1833. Soon after I arrived I commenced cutting the lumber for a drawbridge, on the land adjoining Michigan avenue, afterwards owned by Hiram Pearsons. In March 1834 I commenced building it, and I think it was completed by the first of June."

It was a peculiar-looking affair. At each end the framework stood up like a gallows, and it was said that timid persons were afraid to pass these frames at night because of their spookiness. There was a windlass at each end for raising and lowering the bridge. It was about three hundred feet long, leaving a clearance for vessels, when open, of sixty feet, but vessels passing through would often bump it, and pedestrians and drivers alike cussed it. Frequently it failed to work, and on one occasion they couldn't get it down in place for forty-eight hours.

Finally, in July 1839, five years after its erection, the Council, after a long and bitter debate, ordered its removal. So fearful were some of the enemies of the bridge that the Council might rescind its action that they got out with their axes the next morning before breakfast and chopped it to pieces.

CHAPTER XX

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1834 "5000 Indians gathered at Chicago to negotiate the sale of their lands to the white settlers. The Indians spent a night in wild dissipation, then left Chicago for good."



THE ARTIST was mistaken in his choice of 1834 as the date for the passing of the red man from this region. In the fall of 1833 thousands of Indians gathered at Chicago at the request of Governor Lewis Cass to consider the cession of the last of their lands east of the Mississippi. Most of these Indians were Potawatomi. This last of the treaties was signed in Chicago September 26, 1833. According to its terms the Potawatomi gave up all claim to any territory east of the Mississippi and accepted a reservation in the West, agreeing to migrate in three years. Altogether these Indians had signed thirty-eight treaties during a period of forty-eight years, in all but two or three of which they had given up claims to portions of their lands.

In the fall of 1835 the Indians again gathered at Chicago to the number of five thousand to receive their annuities and to listen to the report of the commission that had been sent to view the new reservation. Eight hundred of them participated in a last war dance. They assembled at the council house on the north side of the river. They were led by a band which created rhythm by beating hollow vessels and by striking clubs together. The dance consisted of leaps and spasmodic steps. The dancers brandished their weapons as they yelled. It seemd to onlookers like a picture of hell.

In another year most of the Indians had gone to their new reservation across the Mississippi, first in Missouri, but eventually in the Indian Territory. All the land east of the Mississippi was then in the hands of the white men to enjoy in peace.

CHAPTER XXI

1836 "On July 4, 1836, work was begun on the Illinois and Michigan canal. The steamer 'Chicago' and schooners 'Sea Serpent' and 'Llewellen' left the wharf at Dearborn street."



WHEN the first white men passed through this region in 1673, a party of seven whose leader was Joliet, they were guided by the Indians through the Chicago Portage. This was an easy passage between the Mississippi and the Great Lakes. Following the glacial invasions of some thousands of years ago the waters of Lake Michigan flowed out to the Mississippi through the Illinois Valley by way of the two smaller valleys now occupied by the Drainage and the Calumet canals. As the waters of the lake subsided with the opening of a northern outlet, these two valleys remained, only slightly above the lake level. Their junction provides what is known as the Chicago or "Y", outlet.

As Joliet and his party passed from the Desplaines to the South Branch of the Chicago river, it seemed to him that a short canal of a mile and a half across the divide at the present Kedzie street would provide a continuous waterway for canoes or light boats from the lake to the Mississippi. And he publicly expressed this opinion. La Salle, a few years later, was less optimistic, for he realized that in times of little rainfall, if a portage, or carrying, of the boats were to be avoided it would be necessary to have a canal considerably longer than this.

It wasn't until 1810 that the suggestion of a canal here was again heard. In that year Peter B. Porter of New York proposed the commercial connection of the Great Lakes and the Mississippi by means of a series of canals. He pointed out the ease with which a canal might be constructed in this place. The country was coming around to the need of providing a connection between the seaboard and the interior of the country. But at that time the northern Illinois country was too sparsely settled to make such a scheme seem a pressing need. However, the War of 1812 emphasized the need, for we had been seriously handicapped in transporting military and naval forces and supplies to our northern frontier.

In the treaty of St. Louis the first definite steps were taken toward providing a canal from Lake Michigan. This treaty was signed on the 24th of August 1816. At that time the Indians relinquished their title to a strip of land twenty miles wide and extending to the Fox and Illinois rivers at Ottawa in a southwesterly direction from Lake Michigan. The northern boundary of this strip was ten miles north of the Chicago river and was long known as "The Indian Boundary Line. In Rogers Park this line is now called Rogers avenue. Ninian Edwards, one of the commissioners who negotiated the treaty, afterwards asserted that the Indians were influenced to make the sale of this land by the oral assurance that a canal would be opened through it, thereby increasing their opportunities for trade.

Two reports were made to the War Department with regard to the possibility of a canal here. The first was made by Major Stephen H. Long on March 4, 1817. He proposed a canal from the Chicago river to the Desplaines with a lock at each end and supplied with water from the Desplaines. The second was made on the fourth of April 1819 by R. Graham and Joseph Philips, who proposed a lake-fed canal cut deep enough across the Valparaiso moraine, which forms the ''divide'', to permit the flow from the lake to the river farther than Long had suggested. ''The route by the Chicago'', they said, ''as followed by the French since the discovery of the Illinois, presents at one season of the year an uninterrupted water communication for boats of six or eight tons burden between the Mississippi and the Michigan lake; at another season, a portage of two miles; at another, a portage of seven miles from the bend of the Desplaines to the arm of the lake; at another, a portage of fifty miles, from the mouth of the Desplaines to the lake, over which there is a well-beaten wagon road, and boats and their loads are hauled by oxen and vehicles kept for that purpose by the French settlers at the Chicago."

Before this second report of 1819 was made John C. Calhoun had been appointed Secretary of War. The House of Representatives passed a resolution requesting him to report a plan for a system of military roads and canals. On this very same day the bill for the admission of Illinois as a state was amended so as to include within its boundaries the northern part of the state. It was believed that the inclusion of the port at Chicago in the state would arouse a greater interest of the people in the development of this waterway.

Prior to its admission into the Union as a state in December 1818. Shadrach Bond had been elected governor of Illinois and John Reynolds as one of the associate justices of the supreme court of the state. Shortly after the admission of the state Governor Bond convened the general assembly at Kaskaskia. Of this session Mr. Reynolds said: "Governor Bond drew the attention of the legislature to the subject of the canal connecting the waters of the Illinois river with the lakes, and I drafted a bill providing for an examination of the country over which the canal was to be constructed, and to report at the next general assembly. I had not the least knowledge of the rocks in the route, as I had heard the French boatmen say that they had frequently crossed over the route in their boats in high water. Under this view I supposed a canal would not cost much. But the legislature considered that the country was too new in 1819, and the expense would be too great; they accordingly did not pass

the bill, but they considered, as every intelligent man has since, that this canal is one of the greatest improvements in the United States."

The "Enabling Act", by which provision had been made for the admission of Illinois as a state, had stated that twofifths of five percent of the net proceeds of the sales of public lands in the state after January first 1819 should be set apart as a fund for the construction of roads leading to the state. Governor Bond proposed that an appeal be made to Congress to so alter the law that this fund might be used in the improvements of the navigation of streams in the state. He believed enough money would accrue from this source to pay for the construction of the canal. No action resulted at this first general assembly.

The second general assembly requested the national government for authority to construct the canal through the public lands, for a donation to the state of the sections of public lands through which the canal would pass, and for the privilege of using two per cent of the road fund from the sale of public lands for financing the construction of the canal.

Daniel P. Cook, for whom Cook County was later named, pushed this proposition in the House of Representatives and Jesse B. Thomas worked for it in the Senate. As a result of their efforts Congress on the thirtieth of March 1822 granted to the state the right to cut a canal through the public lands and donated ninety feet on each side of it. It also authorized the state to use any materials on the adjacent public lands that might be needed in the construction of the canal. Ten thousand dollars was appropriated for making surveys. Congress also added the restriction that "the State shall permit all articles belonging to the United States, or to any person in their employ, to pass toll-free forever."

During 1824 five different routes were surveyed and the highest cost was estimated at \$716,110.71. Governor Coles, who had succeeded Governor Bond, suggested setting aside a portion of the state revenues to finance this undertaking, but this would have required several years, so Daniel P. Cook again appealed to Congress for a donation of the sections of land through which the canal would pass or for permission to use the school fund of the state for that purpose. Congress refused to agree to either proposition. The state then proposed on the 17th of January 1825 to incorporate a private company, the Illinois and Michigan Canal Company, to go ahead with the work. This company was incorporated with a capital stock of a million dollars. Governor Coles and Ex-Governor Bond were among the incorporators. This plan wasn't acceptable to many persons and was never put into effect, partly because the company couldn't sell its stock and partly because of the opposition of Representative Daniel P. Cook and others.

On the second of March 1827 Congress donated to the state, for the purpose of aiding the construction of the canal, every other section of land on each side of the canal and extending back five miles. A canal commission was appointed in January 1829, the towns of Ottawa and Chicago were surveyed and platted, and town lots were sold. The sale of land was not very brisk, as people were not eager to pay \$1.25 an acre for canal lands unless certain a canal would actually be constructed. Congress was petitioned to buy back at \$1.25 an acre the land it had given the state, but refused. The canal commissioners tried to negotiate a loan in the east but could not get satisfactory terms. Railroads were also being talked of as cheaper and better, so that in 1833 the canal commissioners recommended a railroad instead of a canal. They gave three reasons: it would be cheaper to construct; it would be open to commerce the entire year; it would provide a more rapid and better mode of travel.

The general assembly failed to take any action at all. except to abolish the canal commission. Chicago, however, had begun to grow and had become a village of 1200 people. She needed better commercial intercourse with the interior, and the interior needed a means of marketing its produce. The canal question became a political question in the northern part of the state, and in 1834 Joseph Duncan was elected governor because he was known to be a staunch supporter of the canal project. In his inaugural address the governor urged the advantage of a canal. He said a canal would bring into commercial relation the vast extent of territory tributary to the two great systems of waterways which it would unite; it would improve the navigation of the Illinois river. by turning into its channel a large volume of water through a lake-fed canal; it would make the farmer independent of the railroad monopoly by allowing him to transport his own produce to market.

Newspapers and mass meetings of citizens in Cook and LaSalle counties urged the canal. In 1834 General Charles Gratiot, chief of the corps of engineers of the United States army, urged the construction of this canal as one of the most important of public works. Finally, in February 1835 the general assembly appointed a third canal commission and gave it power to raise the necessary funds. It was impossible to negotiate a loan unless the state guaranteed the payment of principal and interest. This was finally arranged. The plan was for a lake-fed canal, sixty feet wide at the water level, thirty-six feet wide at the bottom, and with a minimum depth of six feet of water.

It was on the Fourth of July 1836 that work was finally begun with imposing ceremonies and a great celebration at Canalport in Chicago. Canalport, later called Bridgeport, was on the South Branch near Archer and Ashland avenues. At eleven o'clock on that glorious Fourth the steamer "Chicago" started from the wharf at Dearborn street. It was followed by the two schooners, "Sea Serpent" and "Llewellen," all loaded with excursionists and towed by horses. Others went on foot, some on horseback, and some in carriages. The band played and banners fluttered. The Declaration of Independence was read by Dr. William B. Egan. An address was made by Colonel Gurdon S. Hubbard, one of the commissioners. In this address the Colonel spoke of the conditions under which he had first passed through here in 1818, dragging the boats of the American Fur Company through the mud of Mud Lake. Judge Theophilus W. Smith of the Illinois Supreme Court delivered an oration. He indulged in wild prophecies that in ten years the town would grow to a population of 10,000, in twenty years to 20,000, in fifty years to 50,000, and in a hundred years to 100,000. At that point the marshal pulled the judge from his impromptu platform to prevent him from making himself more ridiculous. "You are making a fool of yourself," he exclaimed. "If you had been allowed to go on you would have made it a million." There had been much celebrating of the event with liquor taken to the place, and the story was that while the barrel on which the judge was standing was empty, the judge himself was full. Colonel Archer, the acting commissioner, then turned the first spadeful of dirt in the new canal.

As the party in the vessels moved up the river toward the scene of celebration a party of Irishmen was waiting on the bank at Adams street and insisted on being taken aboard. Since the boats were crowded, they didn't stop for the additional passengers. On the return the Irishmen were waiting with brickbats and a merry battle resulted, with quite a number hurt on both sides.

All kinds of difficulties were encountered during the next twelve years. The sales of the canal lands progressed slowly. It was difficult to negotiate loans, and the credit of the state was seriously impaired through their sales of bonds for various internal improvement schemes. The panic of 1837, with the failure of a bank in which nearly four hundred thousand dollars of canal funds were deposited, added to the difficulty.

In 1842 the state debt was nearly \$14,000,000. Leaders saw that if the canal were completed people would be attracted to the state and the financial stress would be lightened. A new plan was evolved — that the canal should be completed on a cheaper plan, the "shallow-cut" plan, that the creditors should be asked to advance still more money in proportion to what they had already invested, and that the management should be placed in the hands of three trustees. The plan was adopted. Two of the trustees were chosen by the creditors and the third was selected by the governor. These trustees administered the canal funds till the completion of the canal in April 1848. The first boat to make the trip over the completed canal was the General Fry, which arrived in Chicago on April 14 from Lockport. The General Thornton was the first to make the entire trip from La Salle, arriving on April 23rd.

During the next twenty-three years the trustees were busy building up the traffic of the canal and paying the canal debt. Feeders were constructed to supply water to the canal, and steam pumps were installed to pump water from the Chicago river into the canal. Finally, in April 1871, the trustees turned the canal over to the state with a cash balance of \$95,472.41, having cleared all indebtedness.

Lumber from the Great Lakes and merchandise from the

east passed down the canal to be distributed to the canal and river towns and from them to the interior settlements. Farm products from the canal region and from the Illinois river, and sugar, molasses, coffee and other tropical products from New Orleans and St. Louis were carried to Chicago on their way to northern and eastern markets.

On the fourth of September 1850 Chicago first used gas. The opening of the canal in 1848 placed at the disposal of the city for the first time the inexhaustible supply of coal in the neighborhood of La Salle. The manufacture of gas from this coal began on the 28th of August 1850, and a week later there was the necessary 60,000 cubic feet. The Gem of the Prairie gave this account on the following Saturday: "Wednesday marked an era in Chicago. At about two o'clock the gas pipes were filled and brilliant torches glowed on both sides of Lake street as far as the eye could see, and wherever the posts were set. The lanterns not having been affixed to the posts, the bright gaseous flame eddied and flickered in the wind, sometimes apparently disappearing, but anon shooting up as brightly as ever. In the evening the lamps were again lighted, and for the first time in the history of Chicago several of the streets were illuminated in regular city style. Hereafter she will not hide her light under a bushel."

The building of railroads after 1848 tended to cut into the traffic of the canal, especially when the roads paralleled the canal, as the Chicago and Rock Island did. For six years there had been an excellent and popular line of packets for passenger travel on the canal, but the railroad easily took away this traffic. The railroad also eventually took away the freight traffic, but only by lowering its rates so as to compete with the canal. In this competitive sense the canal continued to affect freight rates for a long period.

CHAPTER XXII

1840 "The Hard Cider-Log Cabin Campaign was the political feature of 1840. A delegation of seventy citizens went to Springfield in fourteen canvascovered wagons."



THE GREATEST and most exciting event of the year 1840 was the national election, the contest between President Martin Van Buren and General William Henry Harrison. For months the local papers gave more space to the national campaign than to local affairs. The Democrats ridiculed Harrison the Whig unmercifully. They held up to scorn the log cabin and the hard cider which Harrison was supposed to use. They-advocated in ridicule a petticoat for the Whig candidate. The Whigs thereupon adopted these as party symbols and played them up to the highest degree.

As early as May 22, 1840, a notice appeared in the papers asking all delegates to the Harrison convention in Springfield to assemble on the Fort Dearborn reservation on May 25 at 10 o'clock A. M., with baggage, wagons and band, tents to have been sent an hour earlier.

The delegation, to the number of 64, got under way about three o'clock in the afternoon of May 25. The weather was stormy, but the delegates were undaunted. About fifty horsemen accompanied them for a distance out of the city. Most of the delegates rode in two-horse covered wagons, in which were bestowed their tents, baggage and provisions. Prominent in the procession was the brig "Tippecanoe," mounted on wheels and drawn by four horses, with ten men riding inside. The Democrat said the horses drawing the brig were four grays, but the American indignantly retorted that only one of the two teams was gray. The Democrat spoke of a \$1000 canoe, but again the American made the correction that it was only the yawl of the S. B. Dole, borrowed for the occasion, and probably costing when new about \$75.

While the brig was being taken to its starting point on the reservation that morning, the men had noticed following it a black fellow carrying a red petticoat. They captured the petticoat and raised it on their boat as their banner.

When the Harrison delegation reached Juliet (Joliet) they were escorted into the town by the Whigs of the place, and a meeting was held that evening in the courthouse, at which the captured red banner was triumphantly displayed. The next day, however, as the procession passed through that part of Juliet west of the river, they were annoyed by groups of boys who pelted them with stones and shouts of derision, and who waved a petticoat. Among these boys were two sons of the infamous judge who was a candidate for senator. When they reached a point opposite a certain store they found stretched across the street a rope bearing a petticoat. The marshal, Captain Hunter, made a motion toward the horse pistols on his saddle and ordered the procession to move forward. They proceeded, though with some damage to the masts of the vessel.

In Springfield, the encampment of seventy-two acres was covered with wagons, tents and campers. There were eighteen bands present to play at this enthusiastic convention of June 4, 1840. The estimate of delegates on hand varied greatly, possibly fifteen thousand. Log cabins and hard eider were prominent features, and among them all the brig Tippecanoe attracted much attention.

When the Chicago delegation was ready to start back home on the fifth, it drove past the office of the Sangamo Journal. William Stuart, editor of the Chicago American, in an address presented the brig to the Whigs of Sangamon county as typical of the Ship of State, which he was entrusting to the Whigs of the nation as represented by the group present. In accepting the gift the editor of the Sangamo Journal in turn presented to the Cook county delegation a live gray eagle, tied and manacled then as was the nation under the Democrat Van Buren, but to be liberated as the emblem of the Republic on the election of Harrison.

The election occurred November second. Nationally, William Henry Harrison won to the rallying cry of "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too," but in Chicago the Democrats polled a majority of 185. The day, too, was marred by several disorders and even riods. Captain David Hunder was put in jail for assault, and Col. James M. Strode, register of the land office, was also jailed for resisting an officer. But the event that climaxed all others was that Judge Smith of the Supreme court of the state headed a mob that threatened to tear down the jail unless certain inmates were released immediately. After some bluster the mob dispersed.

The national victory called for a local Whig celebration. Accordingly plans were made at a meeting on November 24, at which former Mayor B. W. Raymond presided. The date set was December second. On that day, at sunrise, cannon were fired in honor of the Whig states. About noon a procession formed on the north side of the river under the direction of John H. Kinzie and Gurdon S. Hubbard as marshals. Accompanied by a band, they paraded through the streets of the city, then returned to their starting point, where, on a lot belonging to Walter L. Newberry, they were served a barbecued meal. An ox roasted whole and several deer shot by the sheriff were the principal features of the meal. Cider and coffee were in abundance. After guests, to the estimated number of a thousand, had been served, D. F. Webster, son of the "Great Daniel," was called to the stand and addressed the erowd with his usual eloquence and ability. At sundown a national salute of 26 guns was fired, and about six-thirty the grand illumination began, with all Whig houses, stores and offices brilliantly lighted.

CHAPTER XXIII

1842 ''In 1842 Chicago began to be called 'The Garden City'. That year Ira Miltimore successfully established the first waterworks system, at Michigan avenue and Lake street.''



THE TELEPHONE DIRECTORY of Chicago in 1945 showed more than thirty firms with the name "Garden City." One authority states that Chicago was called "Garden City" because of the beauty of her private gardens. In the early days many of the citizens had extensive grounds and maintained beautiful gardens. A newspaper writer has described in some detail the grounds near the present Newberry Library, with their carriage drive and flower grounds. Egandale, the home of Dr. William B. Egan, was one of the beauty spots on the South Side. Many of these gardens must have originated with the development of the water system, for the sańdy soil of the former Lake Chicago would not support summer gardens without the use of considerable water.

In the very early days of Chicago people depended upon shallow wells or upon water dipped from the lake or river. Certain men made it their regular business to act as water carriers. They had two-wheeled carts drawn by single horses. On the cart was a hogshead, a barrel with a capacity of sixty-three gallons. The hogshead was placed on its side, with a hole sawed in the upper side to receive the water. The horse was driven into the lake, usually at the foot of Randolph street, and here the water carrier filled the barrel by dipping up the water with a dipper or pail. The carrier then made his trip about town, backing his cart up to the door of the customer's house. With a short leather hose he filled the barrels or pails placed there for that purpose. The usual price of the water was ten cents a barrel, but competition sometimes brought this down to five cents. Many of the people carried water for their own use from the river. The growth of the city naturally made the river water less and less suitable for use. Malaria, typhoid, cholera and other diseases due to a tainted water supply were prevalent in these early years and continued a menace till sanitary measures were provided. On November 10, 1834, the board of trustees of the town paid \$95.50 for the digging of a well on the North Side, at Cass and Michigan streets. This was the first public effort made to secure pure water in Chicago.

In 1836 the state legislature incorporated the Chicago Hydraulic Company. The president was George W. Cole. Gurdon S. Hubbard was one of the directors. The capital stock was limited to \$250,000, and the charter was to be in force for seventy years. Four years were allowed in which to make a start on the construction of the necessary works. The panic of 1837 prevented any activity until 1840, almost the end of the four years allowed.

Ira Miltimore was then appointed machinist and superintendent of the works. He immediately built a reservoir at the corner of Lake street and Michigan avenue, and by the spring of 1842 he had completed the first waterworks system. The total expense had been about \$24,000. The works included a large, two-story brick building, with a pier running into the lake. The steam engine was of twenty-five horse power and was capable of raising twenty-five barrels of water a minute thirty-five feet above the level of the lake.

Each of the two reservoirs built had a capacity of 1250 barrels, so that it required fifty minutes to fill each. The reservoirs were sufficiently high to force the water into the second story of any building in the city. It is said that the aristocrats with two-story houses and pipes in the upper story were hilarious that first day when they opened the upstairs faucets and saw the precious fluid trickle through them.

Early settlers have told of seeing John McGarvin and his three men working on a lot near Madison and State streets, boring three and a half inch holes through one-foot cedar logs that were ten feet long. Before the water was turned on there were two miles of these bored-out logs laid end to end, more than three feet underground. For this water service the rates ranged from ten dollars a year for a family of five persons up to five hundred dollars a year for a large factory.

In 1841 James Long made a contract with the Hydraulic Company to do the pumping of the water free for ten years in return for the privilege of using the excess power of the engine for the Hydraulic Mills, which he constructed at this same corner of Michigan and Lake. Long found there were some difficulties connected with his position. He said: "In winter the pipes would be disarranged by the heaving of the frost, and I had frequently to spend hours at a time to caulk up the joints by throwing on water and thus freezing up the cracks before we could make the pumps available. When the end of this pipe from the pier was first put down it was three or four feet below the surface of the lake, but in 1842-43 the lake had receded so far as frequently to leave the end out of water, particularly when the wind blew from the south."

Improvements were made from time to time, but it was not till 1866 that the present waterworks were started at Chicago and Michigan avenues, the corner stone of the water tower being laid on March 25, 1867.

A newspaper reporter in 1901 wrote an article on "When Chicago was the Garden City." He said: "Yet, with the acres upon acres of flower gardens now inside the city (1901) the time was when Chicago was even more the esthetic Garden City than it is today. A good many old timers are pleased to regard it as having been so as far back as the '40s. The great fire destroyed some of the notable individual results in gardening, but out of its ashes the city has grown up to its old appellation, and to its general landscape effects it has added thousands of acres of market gardens.

"One of the old time lovers of gardens in Chicago was Dr. W. B. Egan, who in the '40s had his home and grounds in the space bounded by Congress, Sangamon, Van Buren and Morgan streets. In a letter to a brother in Louisiana in 1840 the doctor said: 'I am too lazy to work, but no garden can surpass mine in this region. I have thrown down the glove to Cincinnati, St. Louis, Cleveland and Buffalo on the strawberry crop and am so far the victor. My garden is in the city and contains over fifty acres. The cedar of Lebanon, the arucaria of Brazil, the Irish yew and the Mexican cypress lend their foreign charms to my garden home. My hedge of arbor vitae and lawn of giant evergreens are the admiration and the boast of our city, whose motto is "Urbs in Horto" (a city in a garden.)

"The homestead square of Dr. Egan was bounded by wellclipped hedges. There was a central circle of flowers in front of the house, with rare boxedging as a border. On each side of this were two other large circles set apart for flowers and bounded by hedges clipped low and close.

"Ezra B. McCagg (Father of Lincoln Park) had another of the famous gardens of Chicago. His home was on North Clark street, nearly opposite Washington Square. The boundaries were North Clark, La Salle, Locust and Chestnut streets. The house was near the north end of the square, facing Clark street. The entrance to the grounds was at the south end, with a drive parallel to Clark street. Behind the house was the barn, and just south of it the three greenhouses. South of these was the garden, reaching half the length of the square. All the rest was lawn, studded with native elms that had stood there for a hundred years. People who visited Chicago in those days were expected to see the Mc Cagg greenhouses especially. They had been built in 1854. There were three of them, one for tropical plants, one a warm house and the other a cool one. They contained many rare plants and flowers. Old settlers in Chicago recall the days when a sightseer calling for a cab at the old Tremont House was asked whether he would like to drive to Mr. Mc Cagg's garden or to Dr. Egan's place.

"William B. Ogden had one of the fine gardens of old Chicago. It was bounded by Cass, Rush, Ontario and Erie streets. He had two beautiful greenhouses, one partly filled with plants and the other filled with grapes. At that early day there was a passion for hothouse vines, but gradually it died out.

"On the South Side Jonathan Young Scammon had a marble block (Terrace Row), and a garden that extended from Michigan avenue to Wabash, south of Congress. There was a greenhouse and a grapery, and on one occasion Mr. Scammon, returning from Europe, told his gardener that no spot he had seen compared with the home plot.

"As early as 1846 Chicago had its horticultural society. It gave several exhibitions prior to 1849, in which year it had eighty members. In all these years Chicago was a mud wilderness, save where the roads had been planked. It had a population of about 90,000, and on the north shore there were few evidences of civilization beyond the present line of North avenue. 'No Bottom Here' was the sign in scores of streets, and yet in spite of this the term 'Garden City' came and stuck. This name is supposed to have attached to Chicago through the remark of a man visiting the old greenhouse of Samuel Brook at Clark and Monroe in 1843. He had been on a trip through the West, and was so struck with the beauties of the greenhouses that he called Chicago the 'Garden City,' a name that will endure.''

As the population of the city increased, the large estates with their vegetable gardens and flower gardens gave place to small city lots with offices and apartments. And yet Chicago through her parks and boulevards has retained the right to be called "Garden City." The first park, Dearborn Park, was set aside for public enjoyment as early as 1839, and since that time parks and boulevards have grown in number and beauty.

The World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 was the greatest inspiration toward beautification of the city. Daniel H. Burnham was the supervising architect of the fair, and was primarily responsible for the beauty of "The White City" in Jackson Park. After the close of the fair he developed a plan for the City Beautiful. The commercial clubs and the city administration adopted his ideas and have put many of them into effect. Michigan avenue, Wacker drive, the Michigan avenue bridge, and many of the boulevards are all developments of his vision of the more beautiful city. Through the help of the Ferguson Fund many monuments have been erected in the parks to commemorate historic events and historic persons. Bordering the city is a series of forest preserves probably unequalled by any city. Though Chicago is seldom referred to now as "The Garden City," she is entitled to her title of "The City Beautiful."
CHAPTER XXIV

1845 "The Dearborn School, known as 'Miltimore's Folly,' stood in Madison street opposite McVicker's Theater. The first permanent public school building in Chicago."



J^N MAY 1844 the first step was taken towards the erection of a permanent school building in the adoption by the school inspectors of the following preamble and resolution:

"Whereas, The trustees of School District No. 1 have this day reported to the board of inspectors that they are unable to continue the School No. 1 in said district for the want of a suitable schoolhouse; therefore,

"Resolved, That in the opinion of the board of inspectors and the trustees of the common schools good economy, sound policy, and the necessity of the case demand of the common council an immediate attention to the subject of common houses in this city; and that in our opinion the most feasible plan that can be adopted for the present is to build a good, permanent and spacious brick house so located as to accommodate in the best manner for the present wards Nos. 1 and 2; that upon this plan cheapness, with comfort of the scholars, will be promoted and a permanent improvement made to the city."

The subject was taken under advisement by the common council during the same month, and on the ninth day of May, 1844, the committee on schools, Ira Miltimore chairman, presented a report recommending the erection of "a good, permanent brick schoolhouse, on the school lot in the first ward, $60 \ge 80$ feet, two stories high; to be fitted up on the best and most approved plan, with particular reference to the health, comfort and convenience both of scholars and teachers." In June 1844 proposals were received for the erection of the building, and the contract for the mason work was awarded to A. C. Wood for the sum of 1775; and for the carpenter work to E. Wetherbee for the sum of 2,075.

The lower story of the building was completed, ready for occupancy, about the middle of January 1845, and the whole building was completed in the spring of 1845. It was known as School No. 1 till early in the year 1858, when it received the name of the "Dearborn School."

It was located on Madison street, opposite McVicker's Theater on ground occupied later by the Crystal Block, the Recorder's office and Hershey Music Hall, and now occupied by the Boston Store. The building was regarded by many at the time as far beyond the needs of the city, and the mayor of the city, Hon. Augustus Garrett, in his inaugural address in 1845 recommended that the "Big Schoolhouse" be sold and the money received used to build several schoolhouses in different sections of the city. The building was often referred to as "Miltimore's Folly."

Upon the opening of the building districts Nos. 1 and 2 were consolidated into one district and were accommodated in this building. From this time until the opening of the new building on block 113, School Section Addition, afterwards known as the Jones school, the reports were headed "Districts 1 and 2." One year after the opening of the building there were enrolled in the school 543 pupils, at the end of the second year 660 pupils, and at the end of the third year 864 pupils.

The first teachers in the school were Austin D. Sturtevant, principal, who had been in the employ of the city in districts Nos. 3 and 2 since October 1840, and Misses Lucia A. Garvin and Martha Durant. In May 1845 an additional female teacher, Miss Margaret A. Clarkson, was employed. In May 1846 Miss Anna Day was appointed, making the corps of teachers four besides the principal. In May 1847, two years after the completion of the building, there were six teachers, besides the principal.

Mr. Sturtevant remained in charge as principal until August 1846, when he resigned and was succeeded by Mr. A. W. Ingalls, who remained in charge till his death, some time in April 1850. After the death of Mr. Ingalls Miss H. B. Rossiter appears to have been in charge till August 1850, when F. A. Benham was appointed. He remained till April 1854. J. P. Brooks served as principal from April 1854 to February 1855; Perkins Bass from February 1855 to May 1856; C. B. Hewitt from May 1856 to April 1857; George D. Broomall from April 1857 to November 1863; Albert R. Sabin from November 1863 to July 1865; George D. Broomall September 1865 to July 1866; Daniel S. Wentworth from September 1866 to July 1867; Leslie Lewis September 1867 to October 1869; Andrew A. Brooks from October 1869 to January 1870; Alfred P. Burbank from March 1870 to July 1871.

The Dearborn school building was used for school purposes till the close of the school year in June 1871, when the lot was leased by the common council to Rand, McNally and Co.; and a building known as Johnson Hall, located on Wabash near Monroe street, was rented for the accommodation of the school at a rental of \$3600 per annum.

The Dearborn school building was torn down during the summer of 1871. The school was continued after the summer vacation of 1871 in Johnson Hall under the charge of Miss Alice L. Barnard as principal, until the Great Fire of October 8th and 9th, 1871, swept over the whole territory of the Dearborn school district, when the organization of the Dearborn school became extinct. Leslie Lewis, who was principal from September 1867 to October 1869, tells the following incidents of his experience in the Dearborn school: "The floors of the old building were made of soft white pine and hundreds of little feet wore them out rapidly. In 1868 they were so badly worn in places that I was afraid that some child would step through, and I asked for a new floor. Long John Wentworth was a member of the Board at that time and the committee man on the school. He came to inspect the building and to see if a new floor was really needed. He was six feet seven inches tall and very heavy. I met him at the door and said to him: 'Be careful, Mr. Wentworth, or you may step through.' He looked at the floor and refused to come in. A new floor was ordered at once.

"In June of that year we had a heavy rain and the roof leaked badly in many places. I sent a boy to the office and asked them to send me 400 umbrellas. I did not get the umbrellas, but I got a new roof. Many of our prominent citizens received their early schooling there. The rapid encroachment of business drove the residents out of what is now the loop, and the old building was no longer needed. It had served its purpose and was torn down during the summer of 1871, and thus escaped being burned at the time of the fire."

Miss Alice L. Barnard was a teacher at the Dearborn school from 1847 till the fire in October 1871, part of that time as head assistant. On one occasion the boys in the yard got into some difficulty and were settling it as boys will. The principal, Mr. Lewis' immediate predecessor, standing at the window and maybe appreciating the procedure, remarked, "They fight like devils." Miss Barnard was so horrified at such profanity in her presence that she reported the matter to the Board of Education, and the principal was duly reprimanded. On another occasion Mr. Lewis asked her if she had a copy of Shakespeare among her books. Her reply was, "If I found a copy of Shakespeare among my books, I would take it with the tongs and put it in the stove." And yet probably few men did more for character building in Chicago than Alice L. Barnard.

CHAPTER XXV

1847 "During the Mexican War the Chicago Horse Company, comprising the flower of the city's young men, was accepted as an infantry company in the new Fifth Illinois."



PEOPLE of the United States have usually spoken with pride of their part in past wars, claiming that these wars have been fought only for justice to others or protection of their own rights, not for the gaining of territory and not against the rights of other nations. With regard to the war with Mexico there has always been a question of the part played by this country.

In May 1845, after the annexation of Texas by the United States, General Taylor was ordered to defend that state against an expected attack by Mexico, from which country Texas had just seceded. On the 29th of March, 1846, his troops were stationed along the Rio Grande, the disputed southern border of Texas. Congress on May 11 declared that a state of war existed "by act of the Republic of Mexico," and empowered the President to accept 50,000 volunteers for the war. In Illinois and Chicago this news spread like wildfire. Governor Ford called for thirty companies to serve for twelve months, with the privilege of electing their own officers. Chicago was granted the honor of providing two of these thirty companies. With the stirring music of fife and drum these two companies were quickly raised and sent to the front, going first to La Salle by stage and from there to Alton by steamer. At Alton on June 18, 1846, they were mustered into service in the famous First Regiment. Many of the Chicago boys fell at Buena Vista and Cerro Gordo.

A second requisition for volunteers was made on April 19, 1847, by the secretary of war. They were to serve during the war, to take the places of those whose terms of enlistment were expiring.

When Governor French issued his call for one regiment in the state, volunteers in Chicago enlisted as if by magic. On May 18 the following item appeared in the Chicago Democrat: "Colonel Hamilton has just arrived from Springfield, and we learn that he has had the Chicago Horse Company accepted as a company of infantry." This company was ordered to report at once at Alton, where they arrived May 30, 1847. Here they were presented with a banner by the ladies of Alton. They hoped to join the army of General Scott which was then on the march to Mexico City. Instead they were sent to Santa Fe. Murray F. Tuley, later judge, was one of this company. They were finally mustered out on October 18, 1848. Of the 790 young men who took part in this war from Cook county about 500 returned.

In Congress there was much talk about the Mexican War. The Whig party denounced entering the war, but their representatives in Congress voted for supplies needed to prosecute it with vigor. Abraham Lincoln, a Whig representative, introduced a series of resolutions which were nicknamed the "Spot Resolutions" because in them he called upon the president to name the "spot" where Mexican armies had invaded our country and shed the blood of our citizens on our soil.

The cartoonist, however, emphasizes the all-time attraction for the ladies of a uniform.

CHAPTER XXVI

1847 "The River and Harbor Convention met July 5-7, 1847. Distinguished men from eighteen states discussed improving western waterways."



A LL THE WORLD loves a parade with its blaze of colors, its blare of trumpets and its roll of drums. While one half the world marches, the other half stands and cheers. It has ever been thus and will ever continue to be thus. As it was on September 26, 1939, when for hours a hundred thousand legionnaires from forty-eight states marched through the streets of Chicago, so it was on a smaller scale when representatives from eighteen states paraded through the eity to City Hall Square on the sultry day of July 5, 1847. A threeday solemn deliberation of internal improvements was inaugurated with this colorful parade.

Another motive, or emotion, was responsible for the idea of this convention — resentment. People of the Middle West keenly resented the slight placed upon them, as they believed, by President James K. Polk and his advisers, particularly the politicians of the South. And resentment is a powerful incentive.

Still another incentive for this convention was that of self-preservation. If the West should continue to grow as it had been growing, it must improve its opportunities for commerce, must dredge and straighten its rivers and must provide harbors on the Great Lakes. Otherwise the West would be strangled by the competition of the East and of the South. But — the story.

Both Houses of Congress in July, 1846, by a small majority passed a bill for the improvement of harbors and for the navigation of rivers. The bill provided for the ex-

penditure of many thousands of dollars for specified harbors and rivers. Many of these were relatively unimportant, or at least of merely local importance. One item of the bill was for \$80,000 to improve the harbors at Racine, Little Fort (Waukegan), Southport, Milwaukee and Chicago.

On the third day of August President Polk sent to Congress his veto of this measure. The veto was carefully prepared, presumably with the advice of the Cabinet and of other advisers. In it President Polk said: "Some of the objects of the appropriation contained in this bill are local in their character and lie within the limits of a single state, and though in the language of the bill they are called harbors, they are not connected with foreign commerce, nor are they places of refuge or of shelter for our navy or commercial marine on the ocean or lake shores." The president's veto was upheld.

This action of President Polk aroused resentment among the people of the Northwest. Among them the feeling was rather strong that the President and Congress were dominated by strong commercial interests of the East and of the South and that appropriations from the national treasury were largely restricted to the benefit of manufacturing in the East and of shipping in the South. In commenting on the presidential veto, the Chicago Daily Journal said on August 19, 1846: "The objects of improvement (in the bill vetoed) lie north of Mason and Dixon's line and would benefit the North and West, whose growing prosperity is hateful to the slave owners of the South."

William Mosley Hall was the first to take definite action in opposition to this sentiment in Congress. He was at that time agent for the Lake Steamboat Association, with headquarters at St. Louis. His company had a line of steamboats running between Buffalo and Chicago. Between Chicago and St. Louis connections were made by the Frink and Walker stage line and later by boats on the Illinois and Michigan Canal. He was therefore vitally interested in improvement of western harbors and rivers, and particularly in improvement of the harbor at Chicago, otherwise the Illinois and Michigan Canal, then under construction, would be of little value. A meeting was held in New York on September 28, 1846, at which Mr. Hall was present. The discussion about internal improvements was frank and was fully reported in the daily press.

Citizens of Chicago met in the Court House on the thirteenth of November, 1846, and laid plans for a convention to be held in Chicago during the following season. Several committees were appointed, one of which was to prepare an address to the country explaining the situation and urging a large attendance upon the forthcoming convention. John Wentworth, congressman at the time, was chairman of this committee. Chicago then had a population of 16,000 and three public schools. The Illinois and Michigan Canal was still two years short of completion. Not a mile of railroad or of telegraph had been built in the vicinity. The only public means of reaching the place were by stage coaches or by lake steamers. And yet Chicagoans had supreme confidence in their future.

In his address to the public John Wentworth said the first lake harbor bill had been signed by President James Monroe and that he had never raised the question of constitutionality nor had members of Congress in their debates distinguished between salt water and fresh water improvements.

Prior to the convention the Chicago Democrat, John Wentworth's paper, expressed deep regret that Chicago had but one military company with which to receive the visiting company from Cleveland and to make a display on public occasions. This article urged that all professional men, mechanics and laborers be forced to do military duty so that the city might have companies worthy of representing her on such occasions.

As the opening day of the Convention approached fears were expressed as to Chicago's ability to entertain her visitors. The Democrat on July first said: "There are thousands of teams loaded with the products of the earth and there are stages and carriages innumerable loaded with the wealth and talent of our land on the way to the convention. The people are coming here by thousands and something must be done. Who expected such a rush at such an early day?"

Dr. Philip Maxwell, who had come to Fort Dearborn in the early 30's, was Marshal of the Day. Through the papers he gave full directions for the grand procession, with which the Convention was to open on July 5. At $9\frac{1}{2}$ o'clock, at the signal of a gun, the Cleveland artillery and other military, sailors and marines were to form on Water street. Judiciary and civil officers, clergy, mayor and common council, ex-mayors and committees were to meet on Randolph, societies and orders of Chicago on Washington and the Illinois delegation on Madison. Foreign delegates (delegates from other states) were to assemble at ten o'clock in Dearborn Park. Four bands were included.

The same paper that gave detailed directions for the march said that a Whig from Summit had brought to town a splendid hickory pole upon which it had been proposed to swing an effigy of the president, with a copy of the vetoed bill in his pocket, and to place it upon Mount Polk, the bar at the mouth of the river. The writer, however, condemned such action and said, "All our proceedings should solely be devoted to the cause that calls so many together, divested of every particle of political, personal or sectional prejudice." On the following day, July 2, the Democrat further said: "The vetoed bills were supported by such Democrats as Senators Benton, Cass and Allen and by such Whigs as Crittenden, Webster and Corwin. So we see nothing involving politics in the whole matter."

The morning of the great day, July fifth, arrived. According to plan the procession formed and marched southward on Michigan to Monroe then west. Following the marshals were the Cleveland Light Artillery, an honor to the Buckeye State. Behind them were the Montgomery Guards of Chicago, a band of forty-five, who owed much of their equipment to Captain William B. Snowhook. A company of horse under command of Richard K. Swift was next in line. The good ship "Constitution," under full canvas and completely manned, was drawn by eight horses. Every fire company paraded with banners and with polished engines and equipment. Preceded by a band of music, the "Fire King," Chicago's pioneer engine, wheeled into view, standing upon a broad carpeted platform and drawn by six horses gorgeously caparisoned. Three young ladies clad in white graced the platform, while Company No. 1, fifty-six in number, marched behind in white uniforms. In the procession were also six hundred delegates from Illinois alone.

Horace Greeley, in an account to his paper, the New York Tribune, commented as follows on the procession: "The spectacle was truly magnificent — the music, the military, the ships on wheels, ornamented fire engines, etc. I never witnessed anything so superb as the appearance of some of the fire companies with their engines drawn by led horses tastefully caparisoned."

After circling the town the procession ended at City Hall Square, where an immense tent had been pitched, capable of seating four thousand people. The rest of the ten thousand delegates and other spectators were compelled to watch the proceedings over the heads of those seated.

Newspaper men were present from all the important towns and cities of the nation. Among the delegates was the Honorable Abraham Lincoln from Sangamon County, recently elected by the Whig party to Congress. Mr. Lincoln was called upon for a speech and responded, but no record of his remarks was made. He did, however, on this occasion make several acquaintances that were influential in his later political career.

The Convention protested vigorously against the attitude of President Polk. It adopted a series of fifteen resolutions expressive of the sentiment of the meeting and chose an executive committee of two members from each of the eighteen states to present to Congress the views of this national gathering. In substance the resolutions declared that internal navigation and trade were of as much national concern as was foreign commerce, that national aid was permissible under the Constitution and that theretofore national appropriations had not been fair to the interior of the country.

Judge Edward Bates of Missouri was the presiding officer. In his remarks bringing the Convention to a close he compared the attendance to "a flood of humanity which exceeded every other outpouring of which he had ever heard except the flood of Noah." "Never before," he said, "have I heard such lofty and high-minded eloquence, or seen such a display of cool and practical wisdom."

What were the practical benefits from this Convention? It was not until 1852 that Chicago received an appropriation for her harbor sufficient for its needs. Political maneuvering in Congress in 1851 had blocked a generous appropriation of \$2,300,000 for the West. But the attention of the whole

Early Chicago

country was drawn to the needs of internal improvements, and the attention of the nation was drawn too to the advantages and possibilities of the city growing up rapidly on Lake Michigan at the mouth of the Chicago river. William Bross in his History of Chicago places this Convention second only to the starting of the Illinois and Michigan Canal in its influence upon the development of Chicago.

CHAPTER XXVII

1848 "On October 26, 1848, the 'Pioneer', with tender and two cars, started on strap rails for Sand Ridge (Austin) over the Galena and Chicago Union Railroad, forerunner of the Chicago and Northwestern."



0^N AN OCTOBER DAY in the year 1848 the vessel "Buffalo" sailed into the Chicago river. She had on board the "Pioneer," a second-hand engine that had been bought in the east for use on the new railroad. It was taken off the boat and run on temporary tracks to the beginning of the road, at Halsted street. This road was the Galena and Chicago Union. It had been planned that the road should run from Chicago to Galena, and because Galena was the larger city that name came first in the naming of the road. When the engine arrived, the road was only ten miles long, reaching as far as Sand Ridge (Austin). Six old freight cars belonged to the road and another second-hand engine had been ordered. The rails were thin strips of iron nailed to heavy wooden beams. Sometimes when the train passed over these rails the spikes would curl up and once in a while the ends would be pushed up through the bottom of the car. Not a very safe way to travel!

On the twentieth of November 1848 two of the baggage cars were fixed up with seats and about a hundred of the citizens took their first ride to the end of the line and back again. At the other end of the road they found a farmer had dumped a load of wheat. This wagon load of wheat was put into one of the cars, and in this way the first load of wheat by train was brought into the city. A week later the business men of Chicago were surprised to learn that more than thirty loads of wheat were waiting at Sand Ridge to be hauled into the city. The president of this little railroad was William B. Ogden. As far back as 1836, twelve years before, the road had been started, but the hard times stopped the work, and it wasn't until 1847 that another start was made. During this year of 1847 Mr. Ogden and some of his friends bought the charter of the road and then made their plans for finishing it. Mr. Ogden and Mr. Scammon, a close friend, went to Boston to raise the money that was needed. Mr. Weld, the "railroad king," as he was called, said in reply to them: "Gentlemen, I do not remember that we men of Boston have ever taken hold of a task like this merely on figures. Go home, raise what money you can, spend it on your road, then when you fail, as you almost surely will, we will take it and finish it."

That made Ogden and his friend angry, and they made up their minds that they could finish the job themselves. They came back home and asked the men of Chicago how much they would give, but no one person could give over \$5000. They got only \$20,000 in that way. Some of the merchants would not give because, as they said, "If a railroad is built it will take away some of our trade; people will go to other towns to buy their goods."

The two men then drove out along the route that had been planned for the road and called on the people in the small towns and on the farms. There was almost no money in the country, but the people were eager to have a railroad. They bought as much stock in the new road as they could, promising to pay when they received money from the sale of their crops. The women sold butter, eggs and other things from the farm to raise money. They even took the money that they had planned to use in giving their children an education, for they felt that a railroad would be a great help to them and to their children.

The first grade stake was driven on July 10, 1848, at the

corner of Kinzie and Halsted. Halsted was then the Western boundary of the city. West of Halsted the city council had no authority to stop the construction. William B. Ogden, president of the railroad, was at that time a member of the council. He tried to secure the right to bring the road into the city along Kinzie street, but failed in this. He did, how₇ ever, get permission to lay temporary tracks from the river to the beginning of the road at Halsted. This was for the purpose of transporting two second-hand locomotives he had purchased in the east from the boat to the railroad.

The Galena and Chicago Union was completed as far as Elgin in January 1850, a distance of 42.44 miles. During 1851 it bought land north of the Chicago river and built a depot on North Water street, west of Clark, with a drawbridge over the North Branch. The road was continued westward as far as Freeport in 1853, but it never reached Galena, its original goal. Instead, the Illinois Central provided the connecting link between Freeport and Galena. On June 2, 1864, the Galena and Chicago Union was consolidated with the Chicago and Northwestern, which William B. Ogden had been building and of which he was president. Its memory is retained in its designation as the Galena Division of the Chicago and Northwestern.

CHAPTER XXVIII

1850 "On Wednesday, Sept. 4, 1850, Chicago first used gas. Lake street was brilliantly illuminated by torches on both sides of the street."



THE EARLY PIONEERS in Chicago used wood for cooking and for heat, and used the tallow candle for light. Later the kerosene lamp took the place of the candle for light in the home. In 1850 gas made from soft coal became the chief source of light in the home. Still later electricity took the place of gas for lighting, but gas is still used by most people for cooking.

In the fall of 1848 a group of men gathered in the law office of Norman Judd to form a company for the purpose of making gas. One of these men was Francis C. Sherman, owner of the Sherman House and maker of much of the lime and brick used in building Chicago. Soft coal was needed for the making of gas. There was a great deal of this soft coal in and near La Salle, Illinois, but there had been no way of getting large supplies of it to Chicago until the Illinois and Michigan canal was opened in the spring of 1848.

On the fortieth birthday of Abraham Lincoln, February 12, 1849, Governor French signed the charter giving to the Chicago Gas Light and Coke Company the right to make and sell gas. This gas was to be used for lighting streets and buildings in Chicago. The next fall the company signed a contract with the city, promising to provide good gas for the street lamps at \$2.50 per thousand cubic feet. According to the terms of this contract the company had the sole right to furnish gas to the city for the next nine years. For five years the company was given the right of paying no personal tax.

A Philadelphia firm laid 24,000 feet of mains through the

principal downtown streets. There was an underground connection with the river, by which to get the water needed for making the gas. At first there were only 99 street lights and 125 homes in which gas was used. The manufacture of the gas actually began in August 1850. On the fourth of September there was enough gas in the tanks so that it was turned into the mains and pipes on that day in order to drive out the air.

One of the weekly papers gave this report of the occasion: "Wednesday marked a new era in Chicago. At about two o'clock the gas pipes were filled and brilliant torches flamed on both sides of Lake street as far as the eye could see, and wherever the posts were set.

"The burners in Reed and Co's. and in Keen's were lighted about the same time, presenting a bright golden flame. We believe these establishments had the honor of first lighting up with gas; others will not be much behind them. In the evening the lamps were again lighted, and for the first time in the history of Chicago several of the streets were lighted in regular city style. Hereafter she will not 'hide her light under a bushel'".

The company was able to pay part of the cost of the coal through the sale of coke and coal tar. These are left when the gas is driven out of the coal. In 1851 the company paid a real estate tax of \$78.80. In 1925 the total taxes of the company (Peoples' Gas Light and Coke Company) were two and a half million dollars.

In 1880 the Peoples' Gas Light and Coke Company, which had been given a charter in 1855, had driven out most of the other companies. At that time it began to make "water gas." This water gas was made by passing steam through hot beds of coke or coal and then adding other elements to the hydrogen gas thus formed. This gave a much better light than the coal gas. Before 1890 all the gas works in Chicago were making water gas.

In more recent years gas has been replaced by electricity for lighting, but it still holds the leading place for cooking purposes.

CHAPTER XXIX

1856 "The Illinois Central Railroad Company was the first to establish a suburban train service. On June 1, 1856, three trains were placed on the line between the city and Hyde Park."



JOHN S. WRIGHT in 1848 was actively circulating petitions in favor of a land grant from the federal government to aid in the building of the Illinois Central railroad. Judge Sidney Breese, the original sponsor of the movement, was active in the United States Senate in behalf of the road. Judge Stephen A. Douglas said the signed petitions poured into Washington by the hundreds and had much influence upon the congressmen. The original plans had in mind a road from 'Cairo to Galena, with no Chicago connections. But Judge Douglas had made Chicago his home in 1847, and he naturally used his influence in favor of a Chicago branch of the Illinois Central.

In 1850 a grant of 2,595,000 acres of land was made by the federal government to the state of Illinois to be used in financing the building of the Illinois Central. The Illinois Central company, a private corporation, was granted a charter by the legislature on February 10, 1851 and was given the entire grant of land. The company in return pledged itself to build a road from Cairo to Galena, with a branch to Chicago, on or before July 4, 1854. It also agreed, in consideration of its charter and its grant of land, to pay to the state annually seven per cent of its gross earnings.

Roswell B. Mason of Connecticut in March 1851 was chosen engineer in chief for the new railroad. He later made Chicago his home and still later became mayor of the city. Both the legislature and the city council granted to the road the right to build tracks northward from Twelfth street to the south pier of the harbor, about Randolph street. This right of way was to be parallel to Michigan avenue and four hundred feet distant from the west side of Michigan avenue.

The company thereupon built a breakwater for protection, and laid its tracks on stilts. By February 1856 trains of the Illinois Central, the Michigan Central, and the Chicago and St. Louis were running over these tracks on stilts into the new depot at Randolph street. The first suburban trains were run June 1, 1856, when three daily trains each way were scheduled between the city and Hyde Park.

Paul Cornell in 1853 bought a tract of 300 acres along the south shore, upon which he subsequently laid out the village of Hyde Park. Sixty acres of his property he sold to the Illinois Central with the understanding that the railroad company must run regular suburban trains to the village. This they did in 1856. Hyde Park was named in honor of Hyde Park, London, and Mr. Cornell believed that the second Hyde Park was more beautiful than the first.

When the legislature granted the charter to the Illinois Central, it provided that the road should be exempt from taxes other than the annual seven per cent. In 1853 Mc Lean county brought suit against the company for back taxes. Abraham Lincoln of Springfield was retained as attorney by the railroad. In the lower court the case was decided in favor of the railroad but was appealed to the Supreme Court. Here the case was finally decided in 1855 in favor of the railroad. Mr. Lincoln thereupon presented a bill for legal services of \$2000, in addition to a retainer fee of \$250 previously received. The railroad official to whom the bill was presented refused to pay it, exclaiming, "Why, this is as much as Daniel Webster himself would have charged."

Lincoln thereupon consulted with other attorneys, and was advised by them to make his bill \$5000. He did, and sued the company for this amount. He won his suit.

CHAPTER XXX

1860 "Republican National Convention nominated Abraham Lincoln for President, May 16, 1860. It was held at the Wigwam, corner of Market and Lake streets."


POLITICAL AFFAIRS were in a turmoil in the early summer of 1860. James Buchanan, a Democrat, had taken office as president in 1857. The day after his inauguration the Supreme Court announced the Dred Scott decision, which only fanned the hatreds already existing with reference to slavery. John Brown at Harpers Ferry attempted to rouse the slaves against their masters. Some of the Southern states threatened to secede and form their own federation. Buchanan was unable to control the situation.

In 1860 the new Republican party met in Chicago in May to choose a candidate for the presidency. Governor Seward of New York was the outstanding figure, but he was known as an abolitionist, and it was doubtful if an abolitionist could win the election. Senator Douglas was hoping to secure the Democratic nomination. It was necessary in order to win that the Republicans nominate some one who could defeat Douglas at the polls. Lincoln had shown himself an able antagonist in his debates with Douglas in 1858, when Douglas had secured his re-election to the Senate, but when Lincoln had forced him into an embarrassing position on the slavery question.

Norman Judd of Chicago was campaign manager for Lincoln. He was a practical man. "Wideawake Clubs" paraded the streets of Chicago in torchlight parades. Bands were present in numbers. Tickets to the Wigwam, recently erected for the convention, were given freely to Lincoln rooters, and a Democrat with stentorian voice was hired to lead the cheering for the Lincolnites. Judd, however, saw that this wouldn't be sufficient. Lincoln was scarcely known outside his own state. Two-thirds of the delegates favored Seward. So a telegram was sent to Lincoln in Springfield stating that in order to secure the delegations from several doubtful but necessary states it would be necessary to promise certain cabinet positions to the favorite candidates of these states. Lincoln replied, "I authorize no bargains and will be bound by none." Judd, however, disregarded this telegram and traded cabinet positions for votes in the convention.

On May 16, 1860, the convention opened in the Wigwam, near the corner of Market and Lake. On the third day, May 18, the balloting began with Seward in the lead and Lincoln trailing, a bad second. In the second ballot Seward was still in the lead, but Lincoln had made a tremendous gain and was almost equal to Seward, but neither man had a majority. On the third ballot Lincoln received $231\frac{1}{2}$ votes, not quite the required 233, but then came a rapid change of votes, and Lincoln became the unanimous choice of the convention.

When the nomination was announced, the cannon on the roof of the Wigwam boomed out the news to the crowds in the streets, and a telegram notified Lincoln of his nomination.

Two interesting sidelights on the convention were published forty-seven years later. Professor Franklin W. Johnson of the University of Chicago said that he had been a delegate to the convention though never previously interested in polities. "My father was a missionary in Oregon," he said. "Just before the convention I planned to go east to college. The Republicans of the neighborhood, who didn't have much money with which to pay delegates' expenses, suggested that I stop at Chicago, attend the convention as delegate, and vote for Lincoln. This I did and then went on to college."

Horace Greeley, editor of the New York Tribune, got into the convention through a bit of ingenuity. He was an enthusiastic Lincoln man but New York was for Seward, and Greeley couldn't get a place in the New York delegation. He discovered, however, that an Oregon proxy was available, and he secured that, though the people of Oregon had never seen him.

Even in Lincoln's day politics seemed to be a profession peculiar to itself.

CHAPTER XXXI

1860 "The Prince of Wales, now Edward VII, visited Chicago in the autumn of 1860. Numerous entertainments were arranged, including a grand ball."



A LBERT EDWARD, Prince of Wales, traveled through Canada in the fall of 1860. In order to avoid formalities due royalty he used the title of Baron Renfrew. A committee of prominent Chicagoans met him in Canada and urged him to visit Chicago. He agreed, and arrived here at eight o'clock on the evening of September 21, coming from Detroit on a special train over the Michigan Central. An immense crowd welcomed him at the station on Randolph street and lined the route from the depot to the Richmond House at the northwest corner of Michigan avenue and South Water street. The entire second floor of the hotel was reserved for the royal party. Great crowds surrounded the hotel, but the prince stuck close to his apartment.

When it was announced the next morning that the prince would appear on the balcony for a few minutes at one thirty, other crowds were attracted to greet him then. At two o'clock the prince and his party drove in carriages down Michigan avenue between crowds estimated to be 50,000. The party went on to Bridgeport to inspect the machinery for pumping water from the river into the Illinois and Michigan canal. Before leaving Edward expressed a wish to visit the principal grain elevator in the city, near the mouth of the river.

Fernando Jones has related this incident. "The prince climbed to the top of the elevator with several members of his party, Mayor Wentworth and myself. There was an English vessel in the slip at the elevator, and while the prince watched the work the wheat from a canal boat was unloaded, hoisted to the hopper in the top of the elevator, and then dropped into the hold of the vessel. The grain was loaded as a present to Queen Victoria and a souvenir of her son's visit to Chicago."

That evening at six o'clock the royal party left on a special Michigan Central train for Dwight for a day of hunting. The prince gave a diamond pin to the superintendent of the railroad in recognition of his courtesy. And so ended the great social event of the year.

CHAPTER XXXII

1868 *"Terrace Row, one of the most fashionable blocks of dwellings in Chicago, stood on Michigan avenue, extending from Congress to Van Buren streets."*



THIS ROW of eleven apartment buildings was built in 1855 and 1856, the outgrowth of an idea of J. Young Scammon, the banker. It was known as "Terrace Row," though more commonly referred to as "Marble Terrace." The material of which it was constructed was Lemont limestone, which was often called "Athens Marble."

Chicago had become the leading lumber market of the world, and many of the citizens looked upon the erection of these aristocratic apartments as a sign of undue pride and as casting reproach upon one of Chicago's chief articles of commerce. These buildings, of three stories and basement, extended to about ten feet of the sidewalk, but were without the usual Chicago gardens. One writer described them thus: "These lofty fronts, coming squarely to the sidewalk, have a glittering, heartless appearance that stamps them as apt representations of fashion. They have display, richness, a sort of stern, unpitying grandeur, but no warmth, no geniality. There are in buildings a species of human-like attributes that attract or repel the observer."

CHAPTER XXXIII

1871

"The Great Fire began on Sunday evening, October 8, 1871, in the rear of No. 137 De Koven street, on the West Side."



IN THE FALL of 1871 there were about 334,270 people living in the city. Now there are more than ten times that number. In 1871 the city contained a little more than 35 square miles. Now it contains 208.6 square miles, nearly six times as much space. At that earlier time there were five miles of stone paving for the roads and forty miles of Nicholson pavement. This was a roadway made of wooden blocks three inches square and six inches deep. There were thirty miles of stone sidewalks but nine hundred miles of plank, or wooden, sidewalks. What a fine chance for a fire that once got a start — with many of the streets and most of the sidewalks of wood, and not only that, but with the sidewalks raised up above the ground and with plenty of air space below!

Many of the houses and some of the other buildings were made of wood. Those that were not of wood were built of bricks or of limestone, often called Lemont marble. Of course, the wooden buildings would burn readily, but the brick and stone buildings were supposed to be fireproof.

The summer of 1871 had been dry, very dry. Since the third of July hardly any rain had fallen, only a little over an inch, and now it was October, more than three months of dry weather. There were fires, forest fires, all over the northern middle west, and they were getting closer to Chicago. And there were a great many little fires starting here in Chicago. It seemed almost as though some persons were trying to start fires and to do damage, but so far the firemen had been able to put out all the fires without very much trouble.

At that time the fire department had four hook and ladder trucks, seventeen steam engines and fifty-four hose carts. The tall stone water tower at Michigan and Chicago avenues was standing in 1871. Inside this tower was an iron pipe three feet in diameter and extending up to the top of the tower, about 130 feet high. The pumps were in the stone building just east of Michigan avenue. They were used to force water from the lake through a tunnel into this iron pipe. This made the pressure on the water so great that it was forced all over the city through the water mains. So there was water distributed all over the city, ready for fighting fires, if only the pumps kept on pumping and pumped fast enough. The pumping station then, as now, was of stone. The main part of the roof, however, was of wood covered with slate; the rest of the roof was covered with tin. Under ordinary conditions this would have been all right, but things weren't ordinary in October 1871.

The courthouse stood where the city hall and county building are now. It was three stories high and built of stone. The basement was used as the jail. On the third floor was stationed the operator of the fire alarm system. In the cupola, or tower, above him was the great bell weighing over five tons, which rang out warnings of fires and which tolled for deaths. In the tower also was the watchman, whose business it was to be on the lookout for fires and to notify the operator to which fire station to telegraph warnings of a fire.

On Saturday night, the seventh of October, there had been a big fire on the west side. It had broken out in a planing mill on Canal street near Van Buren and before it could be put out had burned four blocks of buildings, from Van Buren north to Adams and from Canal east to the river. This was the worst fire Chicago had ever had up to that time, with the damage amounting to \$750,000. The firemen were tired out with their eighteen hours of hard fighting. At four o'clock Sunday afternoon they went back to their quarters to rest, some of their engines out of commission and some of their hose destroyed.

That night, about half past nine, while many people were on their way home from church, the watchman up there in the cupola on the courthouse saw a red glow off to the southwest. It looked as though it might be only a glow from the old fire of the night before — it was in that direction but pretty soon the watchman was sure it was a real fire, so he shouted to the operator below, "Strike Box No. 342." That meant the fire was near Halsted and Canalport. As he kept watching, he saw that he had made a mistake and that the fire wasn't that far away by a mile, so another alarm was sent out, and still later ones. The great bell, too, peeled out its alarm to warn people of danger, but most of those who heard it then thought there was only a little flare-up of the big fire of the night before, so they retired to sleep without worry.

But what was happening? Down on De Koven street, No. 137 as it was then, but No. 558 now, was a little wooden shanty. The O'Learys lived in the rear. The front was rented by the McLaughlins. On the back of the lot was a stable, in which were a horse, six cows and a calf. It was in this barn that the fire started that Sunday night. Afterwards a broken lamp was found here, but nobody would admit that he knew how that fire started. Many of the old timers were certain that someone went out to milk one of the cows at night with that lamp to get some extra milk for a party that was going on in the McLaughlin half of the house, and that the cow, because the milker was a stranger, kicked over the lamp and set fire to the shed. away. The streets of the business district were now filled with people trying to hurry their families, with whatever possessions they could carry, to the West Side, or the North Side, or the farther South, or even to the lake shore, where they thought they might be safe on the beach. Expressmen were hauling off office furniture and records, charging \$25, \$50, or even more, to take them a few blocks to apparent safety. The Lake street bridge was jammed with a frenzied mob hurrying to the safety of the West Side. The Washington street tunnel was crowded, as was also the La Salle street tunnel leading to the north. The gas works had burned, and the tunnels were pitch dark, but the lines of people streamed through in both directions, shouting, "Right! Right!"

The courthouse was next attacked. The mayor, Roswell B. Mason, had left his home to eome down to help and to direct. The roof caught fire in several places, and the big bell fell, pealing out its warning to the last. This was a signal that there was no more hope here, so the mayor left to save his own home on the South Side, and most of the prisoners were turned loose. Just outside the courthouse was a truck loaded with clothing. When the prisoners appeared, they swarmed over this truck, helped themselves to new suits and disappeared. A few of the prisoners, the murderers, were chained together and herded over to the North Side, and then later taken farther out. All the city and county records were destroyed.

And now the flames leaped the main river and headed straight for the pumping station. The men were busy, were watchful for fire brands, but the heat caused the roof to catch fire, and the interior was quickly in flames. The men fled for their lives, the pumps ceased working, and no more water was available for fighting the terrible fire demon.

On the North Side the sight of the flames, the flying

When the firemen reached the fire, they found three or four buildings in flames, wooden shanties all around them, and the wind blowing a perfect gale from the southwest. One fire engine couldn't do anything with a fire that already had a start in such a district, and soon others arrived, but they were helpless, too. The flames raced on to Taylor street and still farther, the wind hurling the blazing shingles far ahead of the regular fire and so starting new fires in many places. The families living in these shanties were hurrying out their goods, and were even fearful of their own lives. The fire raged on toward the burned out district of the night before. Surely this would be the end, if the wind didn't change, for there were four blocks of ruins ahead, with the river on the right, and the wind blowing furiously from the southwest!

But the flames didn't stop where they were supposed to. Burning pieces of wood were carried across the river to the east side and started fires in the old shacks along the river near the gas house. The Van Buren street bridge began to burn, and men swung that around, for the bridges then were all built on pivots in the middle of the stream, but it was too late, and the bridge went up in flames. All this time the big bell in the courthouse was ringing out its alarm. People on the South Side and on the North Side, as well as those on the West Side, got up to see if there were really any danger. Business men went downtown to see if their offices or factories were likely to be burned.

The flames raged on, in two great columns now, both heading toward the northeast, each seeming more eager than the other to get at the waterworks a little north of the river. Wooden buildings burst into flame, windows were broken by the tremendous blast of hot air, and the insides of brick and stone buildings flashed up in sheets of fire. Brick walls crumbled. Stone also crumbled and even seemed to melt brands, the tremendous heat and the excited crowds aroused most of the residents. As long as there was water, people tried to save their homes by keeping pails on the roof from which they threw water on any places that started to blaze up. They also hung up blankets in front of the houses and kept these wet with water. When the water failed, some of the men brought up cider from their cellars and threw that on the blankets, but it wasn't of any use. Scarcely a house in its path withstood this terrible storm of fire. However, the house of Mahlon D. Ogden did survive the attack. It was the only house in its block, was surrounded with lawn and trees, and was faced on the south by Washington Square. On the front of Newberry Library, Dearborn and Walton streets, is a bronze plate that says there is the site of the Mahlon Ogden home. This was a long way from where the fire started on the southwest side, but the fire kept on about two miles farther, to Fullerton avenue, then the north limit of Lincoln Park.

Frank J. Loesch has described a scene that he witnessed on the North Side in these words: "The fire had crossed Kinzie street some four blocks south of Ohio street where I was standing. The roar of the flames, the air alive with flying embers, the fierceness with which the wind and fire combined were whirling the flames into and circling in and above the street, fascinated me. No voice could make itself heard above the roar. Even in the house we had to shout into each others' ears to make ourselves heard. As I came down the steps facing south, the three blocks south of Indiana street caught fire with the suddenness of the explosion of a bomb, including the pavement and the sidewalks, and were a mass of flames in a moment. It was the first and only instance in which I saw an enveloping movement of the flames to that extent and especially the burning of the street pavement. The dryness of the season, the superheat for hours of the fiercely driven flames, the tarred-over pavement, were sufficient explanation to account for the street's burning, while the thousands of falling burning brands, added to the other factors before mentioned, easily explained how three blocks of buildings, including brick business buildings, could burst into flames at almost the same instant."

General Phil Sheridan was stationed in the city at this time, in command of this military district. He took charge of trying to stop the fire from working farther southward by tearing down some of the wooden buildings, in some cases placing chains around the buildings and jerking them down with teams of horses. In many cases buildings were blown up with powder, so as not to leave more fuel for the flames to feed upon.

One of the saddest features of this awful calamity was that some men acted more like wild beasts than like men, refusing to help those in need and robbing houses and stores, often running off with valuable articles that had been piled in the streets waiting for wagons.

It wasn't known how many persons perished in the fire, but 95,000 persons were made homeless by the fire, and the value of the property destroyed was estimated as \$200,000,000. As soon as other eities heard by telegraph of Chicago's disaster, they immediately arranged to send clothing, food and money. These supplies were handled by the Relief and Aid Society at the request of the mayor.

By Tuesday morning people were already laying their plans for rebuilding. William D. Kerfoot, a real estate man, was one of the first to make a new start. With the help of his clerk and another man, he put up a twelve by sixteen foot shanty. On this was a sign: "W. D. Kerfoot. Everything gone but wife, children and energy." Upon the ruins of Wood's Museum was placed this sign: "Col. Wood's Museum. Standing Room Only." Another sign read: "Owing to circumstances over which we have no control, we have removed."

The German woman who was being cared for in one of the churches after the fire didn't take quite such a cheerful view of the situation. One of the women helpers went to her in a corner of the church where she had her nine children of all sizes, and asked, "Where is your husband?" "Ach, Gott in Himmel! I took the children, and he took the feather bed. He was so slow I think he got burned up, mit the feather bed. There was no water, and all the men on the North Side drinked beer and whiskey, and then they could no go fast. If I had taken the feather bed mineself, now I would have it." "Yes, but you should be thankful that you have all your children." "Aber! What can I do mit the children mitout a feather bed?" she asked.

It was a tremendous job to clear away the ruins, but the rubbish was dumped along the lake shore, in a basin between the Illinois Central tracks and the beach, and so our Grant Park was being built up, making land at the rate of \$1000 a day.

Shortly after the fire Joseph Medill, the veteran publisher of The Chicago Tribune, was elected mayor. In his address he said: "I have been called to the head of the city government under extraordinary circumstances. In a single night and day 125,000 of our people were expelled from their homes and compelled to flee for their lives into the streets, commons, or lake, to avoid perishing in the flames. Many lost their lives from heat, suffocation or falling walls — how many may never be known. Of the total property in Chicago created by labor and capital, existing on the eighth of October, more than half perished on the ninth. What lesson should this cruel visitation teach us? There is no economy whatever in erecting tenements of pine. Self preservation is the first law of nature. So the preservation of the city is the highest duty of its rulers. Except for the most temporary uses. I am unalterably opposed, from this time forward, to the erection of a single wooden building within the limits of Chicago. In a few years we can have a city solid and safe, durable and beautiful. Happily there is that left which fire cannot consume — habits of industry and self-reliance, personal integrity, business aptitude, mechanical skill, and unconquerable will. These created what the flames devoured, and these can speedily re-create more than was swept away. Under free institutions, good government, and the blessings of Providence, all losses will soon be repaired, all misery caused by the fire assuaged, and a prosperity greater than ever dreamed of will be achieved in a period so brief that the rise will astonish mankind even more than the fall of Chicago."

Because of the great disaster befalling Chicago on that ninth of October, 1871, October ninth has been proclaimed "Chicago Day," and on that day is emphasized the need of care in connection with fires or anything, like matches, that can start fires.

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