CULTURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN WISCONSIN: VOLUME 1
A MANUAL FOR HISTORIC PROPERTIES

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STATE HISTORICAL SOCIETY OF WISCONSIN

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The State Historical Society of Wisconsin began its state historic preservation program in earnest in 1972, in response to the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. In 1973 the Society's "State Historic Preservation Office" began surveying the state to identify significant historic and prehistoric resources. In 1977 the Society established the Division of Historic Preservation, committing itself formally to carrying out a preservation program for the state. By 1986, the division had identified some 70,000 properties of historic and prehistoric significance and listed them in a statewide inventory.

As the state's inventory and historic preservation program has grown, it has become apparent that all the data it has generated need to be rendered comprehensible through (1) computerization and (2) planning. Entering the manual inventory into an electronic database was begun, with technical assistance from the University of Wisconsin, in the early 1980s. Because this can only be done when a few dollars can be found to hire temporary employees to enter data, this work has gone too slowly for our taste. Nevertheless, we have begun and intend to continue automating the inventory until the job is finished.

This document represents the culmination of the initial phase of the second ingredient of comprehensibility--planning. We have identified thousands upon thousands of potentially significant properties, but it remains the task of comprehensive planning to place those properties into logical contexts by which they can be evaluated, and to understand the relative importance of each of Wisconsin's rich collection of historic, architectural, and archeological resources. Sound decisions about preservation imperatives and priorities only can be made based on such evaluations, which are rendered through the planning process.

Credit for defining and implementing Wisconsin's comprehensive historic preservation planning process to date belongs first and foremost to Project Director Barbara Wyatt, Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer and chief of the division's Survey and Registration Section. She had the vision, practical knowledge, and tenacity to carry this project to its present form, in spite of the innumerable hurdles of bureaucracy, research standards, time pressures, federal requirements, and the need to work with a continually changing cadre of temporary employees.

This plan should begin to build the foundations for future decisions relating to the preservation of Wisconsin's historic resources. As Barbara notes in her introduction, it is not a static document, but is subject to revision--as the notebook format suggests--as our knowledge and understanding grow. We encourage readers to let us know their reactions to this report and advise us about any errors they may find or improvements they wish to suggest. Through such exchanges of information we can build upon the work Barbara and her staff have begun to realize for Wisconsin a truly comprehensive historic preservation planning process.

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RESOURCE PROTECTION PLANNING PROJECT

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Several individuals edited and augmented the research presented in these study units, notably staff and limited term employees of the Historic Preservation Division. The primary authors of each study unit contained in Volume 1 of the cultural resource management plan are listed below.

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Planning Process
Historical Overview

Barbara Wyatt
Donald Anderson

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Robert Fay
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The cultural resource management plan for historic properties provides the state's historic preservation community a framework for planning for the identification, evaluation, and protection of cultural resources in Wisconsin. The plan identifies types of cultural properties that occur and guidelines for evaluating these properties, and suggests which properties should be of highest concern to preservationists. The Plan initially was developed as a requirement made by the National Park Service when the Resource Protection Planning Process ("RP3") was implemented. The Historic Preservation Division of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin quickly realized that the federal requirement would provide excellent opportunity to develop a framework for Wisconsin's historic preservation program and to standardize procedures in all program areas. This plan is intended for cultural resources associated with Wisconsin's historic period. A preliminary plan for prehistoric resources has been developed in a separate publication, Introduction to Wisconsin Archeology. It is supplemented by the various regional archeology reports prepared through the survey program.

Although the plan was designed primarily for use with the National Register of Historic Places program, its usefulness to local, state, and federal programs is considerable. Local historic preservation commissions can use the information for local evaluations, for setting priorities for accomplishing work within their municipalities, and to augment comprehensive plans. State and federal agencies can use the information to plan strategies for preservation and development, and for nominating properties and districts to the National Register of Historic Places.

A plan is not intended as a static document. It is formulated in a given period, within the parameters then in effect, and with the information currently available. This cultural resource management plan is no exception. It was developed with the level of knowledge available in the mid-1980s, with the understanding that guidelines and priorities would change as further research and survey work is undertaken. The format of the publication makes a clear statement of that intent: with the notebook format any of the pages can be replaced as priorities change and as new information is revealed. The Historic Preservation Division's intensive survey program will continue to gather information that is useful to the planning process. As intensive surveys are completed and survey reports prepared, the information will be assessed for its impact on this plan. Updating study units and researching study units not yet written will be an on-going activity of the Historic Preservation Division. Periodically, the division staff will assess the survey and registration priorities listed for each theme, considering work accomplished and work that still must be undertaken. New priorities that have surfaced will be added to these sections of the report. The priority lists and other information in the plan will be used each year for the following activities:

- establishing criteria for selecting subgrant projects;
- determining staff survey, registration, and research projects;
- determining limited term employee projects; and
- deciding to what extent compliance surveys are necessary

Information in the plan can also contribute to important decision making concerning expenditures. Conducting fruitful surveys and nominating numerous properties to the National Register are necessary concerns of the Historic Preservation Division so that it can maintain its competitive standing among other states competing for federal historic preservation funds. Even though budgeting must take into consideration these factors, the major concern of the division is to work efficiently to protect as many Wisconsin properties...
SUMMARY OF RESOURCE PROTECTION PLANNING PROCESS

Who Should Use the Plan?

1. State Historical Society of Wisconsin
2. National Register preparers
3. Surveyors
4. Historic preservation consultants
5. Local historic preservation commissions
6. Local, state, and federal government agencies

Activities that Require Use of the Plan

1. National Register nomination preparation
2. Surveys
3. Historic Preservation Fund subgrant funded activity
4. Environmental reviews when compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is warranted
5. Development of work plans for the Historic Preservation Division

Activities that Can Benefit from Use of the Plan

1. Local landmark designations
2. Comprehensive planning at the municipal level
3. Planning by state and federal agencies
4. Development of work plans by historic preservation organizations

How the Planning Process Works

1. Priorities are established for survey and registration activity in the 1986 plan.
2. Historic Preservation Fund subgrant work, Historic Preservation Division staff work, compliance activity, and local preservation activity is based on the priorities established for each theme and the needs identified for each study unit.
3. As work is completed by the Historic Preservation Division information in the plan is updated and priorities are revised.
4. As local survey and registration work is completed, particularly by historic preservation commissions and Certified Local Governments, the Historic Preservation Division is provided with information to update the plan and is apprised of new priorities identified by the local units of government.
5. As state and federal agencies complete survey and registration work, the Historic Preservation Division is provided with information and new priorities, as above.

How Evaluation Activity is Affected by the Plan

1. Information in the study units is used to identify the appropriate historical contexts.
2. Information in the plan, augmented by local and site specific research, is used to develop historic contexts or to demonstrate a property is of historical significance. Although every property may not have historical significance, an evaluation of non-significance should be made only after the appropriate study

INTRODUCTION
The Wisconsin cultural resource management plan for historic properties was designed to influence several programs operated by the Historic Preservation Division, State Historical Society of Wisconsin, and to assist public and private participants in those programs. The division's overriding concerns were to improve the identification and evaluation of historic properties, to develop a basis for establishing priorities for staff work and subgrant awards, and to improve its ability and the ability of state, federal, and local agencies to comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. To those ends, the division required study units that contained specific information on every important aspect of the history of Wisconsin that could be used in the evaluation of specific properties or districts. Further, the study units would be most useful if they were presented in a format that related to the National Register areas of significance and the state intensive survey program.

Since the late 1970s intensive surveys in Wisconsin have been conducted on a thematic basis, with survey reports structured around thirteen standard themes such as agriculture, commerce, etc. For the body of information already accumulated in the intensive survey program to be most useful, development and implementation of a thematically-based plan was considered essential. Thus, the division selected an approach based on themes of history, rather than chronology or geography. Within each theme, however, temporal and geographic limits have been established.

Throughout the three-year preparation stage of this plan, the division evaluated the effectiveness of the approach in its survey and registration programs. Intensive survey reports have continued to be structured around the themes of history, in some cases resulting in National Register nominations that were prepared from the thematic chapters prepared for the survey report. The survey reports also proved useful when individual properties or districts were nominated after the survey was completed.

Surveyors have used draft versions of the Historic Preservation Division's study units to familiarize themselves with subjects and as an aid in developing historical contexts. Based on the experience of surveyors, study units have been added, deleted, and combined to better cover Wisconsin history and take advantage of available research. The list of study units finally decided upon may still be incomplete, but it covers the major aspects of Wisconsin history and provides preservationists with the major historical contexts necessary for evaluation purposes.

In their draft form, study units were used by the Historic Preservation Division to evaluate properties that were the subject of National Register nominations and properties involved in review and compliance cases. The historical information in the study units sometimes alerted the division staff to potential areas of significance. Descriptions of property types also were useful. Before the study units were available, in some cases the division had to conduct lengthy searches for information, request such information from constituents or, for lack of time and resources, ignore the potential historical significance of properties.

In summary, the Historic Preservation Division has already benefitted from the thematic approach to cultural resource management and its definition of study units. Both conceptually and practically it has been useful, from providing information necessary to evaluate individual properties to structuring surveys.
PARTICIPATION OF PROFESSIONALS AND THE PUBLIC IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

The Historic Preservation Division attempted to involve as many people as possible in the planning process. Reviewers helped define study units and reviewed their context. Generally, reviewers fell into the following categories:

- historians, geographers, and scholars in related disciplines, who reviewed historical information;
- anthropologists knowledgeable about the historic Indian study units;
- architectural historians and scholars in related disciplines, who reviewed the definitions of architectural styles and agricultural outbuildings;
- surveyors, who field tested the thematic approach and used the historical background sections in draft form;
- other knowledgeable people, such as ministers, rabbis, people of ethnic heritage, and employees of state agencies.

The division searched far and wide for reviewers. Known experts who did not reside in Wisconsin reviewed study units and, although most reviewers were at least in the Midwest, a woman in Israel and a man in Boston were helpful. In some cases several people were approached before a willing reviewer was found. Reviewers for the religion study units were particularly difficult to find. In a few cases, a national organization provided the necessary review, while in others the review was a minister. Often, letters from the Historic Preservation Division made a circuitous route through a church or its hierarchy, finally landing on the desk of a willing and knowledgeable reviewer.

Every attempt was made to have each study unit reviewed by more than one person. Although the majority of reviewers were historians, they represent many aspects of the profession. Academic historians were helpful, as were historians working in libraries, museums, and in local, state, and federal agencies. Staff of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin was particularly helpful.

Comments received from reviewers were addressed to the extent possible by the Historic Preservation Division staff. Some comments proved too lengthy to address, while others easily could be addressed by editing or further research. Comments that could not be addressed were included in the "Survey and Research Needs" sections of the study units.

The Historic Preservation Division was fortunate to receive widespread cooperation in the review process. As a result, not only is the accuracy of the report enhanced, but many historians became aware of the project and may be able to benefit from it.

In addition to the general review of completed study units, in the initial stages of the project several individuals were consulted about the list of proposed study units and about the conceptual framework of the plan. Each member of the initial project team consulted with a group of individuals related to his or her area of professional expertise. Thus, the project historian travelled the state to talk with about half a dozen historians. The historic archeologist consulted several of his colleagues, and the architectural historian twice gathered in Madison a group of the state's experts in attempt to achieve consensus on some aspects of Wisconsin's architectural heritage. These consultations helped guide early phases of the project and resulted in widespread acceptance among reviewers of the structure of the themes and study units.

INTRODUCTION
DEVELOPMENT OF THE CULTURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PLAN

Preparation of Wisconsin's cultural resource management plan was begun in September 1983 when three people were hired by the Historic Preservation Division to identify and research study units. These individuals represented the three disciplines that the division hoped to affect by completion of a long-range plan: history, historic archeology, and architectural history. The plan began to take shape over the next several months, as the team consulted with their colleagues and began to formulate study unit definitions. During this period, the Historic Preservation Division staff began to realize that for study unit definitions to be of greatest use to participants in the program, complete research efforts would have to be undertaken. Thus, after this initial phase, researchers with expertise in specific subject areas were hired on a limited term basis to complete certain study units.

A cultural geographer with an interest in religious history, wrote almost all of the settlement and religion study units. Three students from the University of Wisconsin History Department researched study units concerning education, social and political movements, and military history. An engineer with an interest and expertise in historic bridges, was hired to write the metal truss bridge study unit, and an individual knowledgeable about industrial architecture researched study units in the industry theme. The staff historian worked on agriculture and government study units and the staff archeology assistant worked on the historic Indian study units.

In the summer of 1985 another historian from the University of Wisconsin was hired to begin to address the comments that were received from reviewers from around the state. The staff historian also addressed comments submitted by reviewers. In the fall of 1985 a history graduate student did an internship with the division and wrote the Jewish study unit.

After two years of research the Historic Preservation Division had to draw the research phase of the project to a close. Of the 153 study units identified, 48 were not completed for the three volumes published in 1986. Because of the number of study units, early in the project the Historic Preservation Division was aware that all research would not be completed for the initial publication. Thus, a notebook format was selected for the publication so that additional study units could be inserted in the report as they were subsequently completed. Four of the themes, art, commerce, planning and landscape architecture, and recreation and entertainment, probably will be published in a fourth volume at a future date. However, the handful of incomplete study units that pertain to the themes in the three 1986 volumes will be inserted into those volumes.

Throughout the project the Historic Preservation Division was fortunate to have a talented and dedicated support staff. Cartography and graphics were completed by several students who had worked at the University of Wisconsin Cartography Lab. The State Historical Society's artist was also helpful. Several people helped with the word processing and undergraduate students helped with a variety of tasks.

The fact is, a project of this magnitude cannot be completed without the assistance of people with a variety of expertise and with a tremendous team spirit. The Historic Preservation Division was lucky to have such a team. The location of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin on the University of Wisconsin campus was indeed an asset in this project. Much of the division's talented team was affiliated with the university in some fashion.

One final step in the comprehensive planning process should be mentioned. Throughout the project period, Jeff Dean, Wisconsin's State Historic Preservation Officer, allocated funding for this important project, permitting the preparation of a comprehensive plan.
ELEMENTS OF A STUDY UNIT

Each study unit is presented in a standard format, using subtopics that are pertinent to the National Register evaluation process and the Historic Preservation Division's program needs. Each study unit definition includes the subtopics described below.

Temporal Boundaries

The temporal boundaries give inclusive dates for the occurrence in Wisconsin of the subjects of the study units. Usually, the first date is the earliest manifestation of the phenomenon and the last date marks its demise or the cessation of its period of significance. For some study units "peak periods" also are given, referring to periods of unusually rapid growth or development. Some study units replace an end date with the word "present" because a clear demarkation of the end of the phenomenon is not known or the significance of the phenomenon today is as great as it was historically. An example would be the study unit "State Government," which begins with the establishment of the state in 1848 and extends to the present. State government has, in fact, maintained its significance, perhaps even growing in significance.

Spatial Boundaries

The spatial boundaries of a study unit are the geographical limits of its occurrence in the state. Usually the boundaries are vague, such as "southwestern Wisconsin," but sometimes they specifically name counties or cities. Many study units define spatial boundaries as the "entire state" because the phenomenon is universal. The study unit Primary Education is an example. The geographical location of associated resources is further described in the section "Locational Patterns of Resource Types" (see description below).

Related Study Units

Most study units contain information that is pertinent to other study units or touch on subjects that are more fully described in other study units. These other study units are mentioned in the section "Related Study Units." The religion and settlement study units present a good example. Usually ethnic groups are associated with particular religions, which might also pertain to other ethnic groups. Instead of including extensive information on the religion in the settlement study units, the reader would be referred to the pertinent religion study unit.

Historical Background

This section highlights significant aspects of the history of a study unit and outlines its development within the spatial and temporal boundaries of its occurrence in Wisconsin. To the extent possible, the subject is described in the context of United States or world history. This section is not intended as a comprehensive history of the subject, but as a summary that is useful in studies of specific resources or areas. The bibliographies (see description below) present a list of sources used to compile the study unit, as well as other sources that may prove useful.

In some study units the "Historical Background" section contains information that is particularly useful in evaluating related property types. Thus, many industry units contain a description of the manufacturing process or machinery used in the process. Tables that contain facts and figures over time or for a specific period are used in a great many study units. Some of these tables give precise locations of the phenomenon, such as cities in which a certain religious denomination was represented or the locations of Carnegie funded libraries. Most study units contain at least one map, indicating the
significance may not be listed for their historical significance. Either the historical significance was not known when the nomination was written, the architectural significance was so pronounced that the historical significance was overlooked, or an area of significance was misrepresented. In the latter case, a property may have been listed only under Criterion B for its association with a prominent person, when in fact it should also have been listed under Criterion A for the events it represents. The "Religion" study units contain lists of all properties listed or determined eligible that pertain to a religion, even if "religion" was not considered an area of significance. Many churches are listed for architectural significance only. They have been included in the study units because of their potential significance for historical reasons and because an examination of the nomination form may be useful in future evaluations.

Context Considerations. In this section hints on establishing the appropriate historic context for evaluation purposes are presented. Suggestions include whether properties would tend to be evaluated on the national, state, or local levels and what the integrity considerations might be. The context considerations provide general guidelines and are usually not specific as to location. They should only be taken as general guidelines, as in specific cases they may not pertain. For example, it may be suggested in the "Secondary Education" study unit that associated properties would nearly always be evaluated at the local level. However, a school associated with the state's first vocational education program, and which constituted a model upon which other schools designed vocational programs, may well be of state wide significance.

Bibliography. The bibliography at the end of each study unit contains sources that were used to prepare the "Historical Background" section of the study units. Some units also contain other secondary sources and archival material that may be useful for further research, even though it may not have been used for preparation of the study unit. This source material is listed for the benefit of future researchers and to apribe the reader of the extent of material that is available. Even so, the bibliographies should not be considered complete; they were mainly compiled from libraries on the University of Wisconsin campus, particularly the State Historical Society of Wisconsin library. Some bibliographies were annotated by the authors, indicating the overall usefulness of the source, its limitations, or parts that were particularly pertinent.
THE EVALUATION PROCESS

Information in this manual is useful in the several steps that comprise the process of evaluating historic resources. Resources are evaluated to determine their significance according to the criteria of the National Register of Historic Places or some other criteria that may have been adopted for local historic preservation programs. This cultural resource management plan is based on the National Register criteria, although the planning method and historical information will be applicable to other evaluation criteria in use in Wisconsin. The National Register recognizes cultural resources that are buildings, structures, sites, objects, and districts. It acknowledges the local, state, and national significance of properties, and requires retention of the integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. The criteria state that significance is present if cultural resources:

A. are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

B. are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

C. embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

D. have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

According to the criteria, ordinarily cemeteries, birthplaces, or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the National Register. However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

A. a religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or

B. a building or structure removed from its original location but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or

C. a birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no other appropriate site or buildings directly associated with his or her productive life; or

D. a cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or

E. a reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or

F. a property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own historical significance; or
A critical step in the evaluation process is determining if a resource should be evaluated within the context of local, state, or national history. Actually, each resource must be examined for its relevance to all three aspects of history, but one will surface as the most appropriate context and, therefore, define the geographical parameters of the survey needed. Relatively few resources are evaluated primarily in the context of national history.

The study units may indicate that a comparison of related resources around the state is in order; thus, the survey would be state-wide in scope. Resources associated with Wisconsin's territorial government provide an example. To evaluate a resource associated with this period of Wisconsin government at Prairie du Chien, the potential for resources at Green Bay, Portage, and Belmont, and other territorial settlements should be examined.

The majority of resources will be examined in a local context, and the survey effort will be local in scope. Thus, the "Secondary Education" study unit suggests that a secondary school in a community will nearly always require a survey of other secondary schools in the community to establish its significance. The study unit may suggest a tip that some developments in secondary education may have had farther reaching consequences. Thus, a high school that developed and implemented a vocational program for girls that was emulated by other schools in the state and lauded by educators of the day should be considered in the context of other early vocational secondary schools around the state, as well as in the local context.

Information contained in the "Spatial Boundaries" section of a study unit can be used to determine where surveys should occur. Information in the "Historical Background" section can be even more specific. For example, some of the religion study units present a list of communities or counties in which a religion was active. Thus, the surveyor would know where to look for resources that pertain to that study unit. Most of the study units include maps, which are useful for pinpointing concentrations of the occurrence of a particular phenomenon. In some study units they display the total occurrence of the phenomenon in Wisconsin; in others they present information of a limited scope. In either case, they graphically display information summarized in the "Spatial Boundaries" section of the study unit.

The study units also include some information on the temporal framework within which associated properties should be evaluated. The "Wheat Cultivation" study unit reveals that cultural resources associated with Wisconsin's period of wheat agriculture date from roughly 1830 to 1870. A survey effort to locate resources associated with wheat agriculture need not address farms and barns developed much after this period; they probably are not related.

One aspect of the evaluation process is determining which resource types need to be examined. Each of the study units contains a section entitled "Related Property Types," which presents a list of types of properties that are related to the subject of the study unit. When undertaking a survey, it is usually appropriate to examine all property types, within the selected geographical and temporal boundaries, unless the survey intent is to examine one property type, such as half-timbered barns associated with wheat agriculture. Through the survey process, preliminary evaluations will be made concerning the integrity of resources and the strength of association with the subject. Thus, only those properties with the highest integrity and closest associations will be extensively researched in later phases of the evaluation process.

Any survey should follow guidelines promulgated by the Historic Preservation Division and, ideally, should produce products that can be integrated into the "Wisconsin Inventory of Historic Places" maintained by the division. Information concerning the survey
abstracts, architectural drawings, minutes of meetings, etc. Some information may be available in secondary sources, such as books and periodicals. The publications listed below describe some aspects of site specific research.


When the research phase is completed, resources are subjected to the final phase of the evaluation process, the evaluation itself.

**Evaluation**

The purpose of an evaluation is to establish that a particular resource meets at least one of the National Register criteria. An evaluation is made at the conclusion of the survey and research phases, synthesizing and summarizing information obtained through these processes. The evaluation requires preparation of a document that clearly demonstrates the eligibility of a resource. Typical documents that are prepared include National Register forms, survey forms, and determinations of eligibility. The documents must be prepared according to the guidelines established by the National Park Service and according to instructions promulgated by the Historic Preservation Division.

Each of the study units contains a section entitled "National Register Listings and Determinations of Eligibility." The nominations listed in these sections can be consulted for supplementary information. The nominations should not be considered definitive. Some that were prepared several years ago do not contain extensive documentation and do not explicitly address the National Register criteria.

The major purposes of the evaluation document is to describe the parameters of the context and to verify the significance of the property or properties being evaluated. The following factors must be addressed:

- explanation of the historical context;
- explanation of the spatial context;
- explanation of the temporal context;
- description of properties associated with the overall context;
- significance of the context and the associated properties, including a comparison with other significant and non-significant properties.

Each of the factors will have been examined in the survey and research phases. In this final phase of the evaluation process, the individual resource or group of resources should clearly surface as a significant manifestation of an aspect of local, state, or national history.
WISCONSIN STUDY UNITS

Historic Indian Theme

Chippewa/Ojibwa
Dakota
Fox
Huron-Tionnontate
Kickapoo
Mascouten
Menominee
Miami
Oneida
Ottawa
Potawatomi
Sauk
Stockbridge/Munsee/Brothertown "New York Indians"
Winnebago

Fur Trade Theme

French Fur Control
British Fur Control
American Fur Control

Government Theme

Military Frontier
Civil War Installations
State Militia
Federal Military Installations
Territorial Government
* Federal Government
State Government
County Government
Local Government

* Not completed for 1987 publication
Transportation Theme

Inland Waterways
Mississippi River Navigation
Great Lakes Navigation
Early Rail Lines
Later Rail Lines
Early Road Networks
Later Road Networks
Early Mass Transportation
Later Mass Transportation
Air Transportation
Iron and Steel Truss Highway Bridges
Concrete Bridges
Other Bridges (Wood, Masonry Arch, Suspension, Moveable, Steel Plate Girder, Combination Truss)

Architecture Theme

Architectural Styles
Vernacular Forms
Construction Materials and Methods
Agricultural Outbuildings
Architects
Art and Literature Theme
- Painting and Sculpture
- Folk Art
- Photography
- Literature

Commerce Theme
- Goods and Services (Retail Businesses, Hotels, Banks, etc.)
- Wholesale Trade
- Information Services (Publishing, Radio, Television)
- Utilities (Telephone, Gas, Electricity, Water)
- Cooperative Movement

Planning and Landscape Architecture Theme
- Patterns of Community Development
- Planned Communities
- Urban Parks and Planning
- Cemeteries
- Gardens and Landscaping
- Conservation

Recreation and Entertainment Theme
- Resorts
- Tourism Industry
- Athletics
- Zoos and Botanical Gardens
- State and Local Recreation Areas
- Camps
- Performing Arts and Motion Pictures
- Fairs, Carnivals, and Circuses
HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

WISCONSIN UNDER THREE FLAGS
(Reprinted from Wisconsin Historic Preservation Plan,

No brief narrative can adequately summarize the story of a state whose detailed history would fill several volumes, nor is such the intention here. Only some of the highlights can be mentioned, and much that is important is necessarily shortened, oversimplified, or omitted. Unfortunately, history so compressed tends to lose all balance, proportion, and perspective: it is three hundred years viewed by means of a stroboscopic light, with frequency and the duration of flashes constantly changing.

At the time of its centennial in 1948, Wisconsin could look back with pride upon its people, its institutions and accomplishments, and its place in the United States. Yet within this time Wisconsin had acquired a uniqueness that set it apart from its sister states. Russel B. Nye writes: "Wisconsin possesses, as a result of its Midwestern past, a distinctive state culture which is not merely a miniature version of the national culture.

It is to be expected that a state's growth, development, and character will be influenced by its geography and natural resources as well as the makeup of its population. The latter is especially true in Wisconsin, where at least thirty-five different ethnic groups comprised the population by the turn of the twentieth century, and more came later. Such diversity--of people, religions, ethics, languages, and literature--has naturally accounted for many of Wisconsin's traditions and much of its character. As Nye puts it:

There was never an 18th century culture in Wisconsin...the roots of its society lie almost wholly in modern times...Half the people in the state of my generation were either foreign-born or born of foreign parents...There were New Englanders and New York staters who came to Wisconsin...who gave shape to the state's early institutions. The majority of delegates to both constitutional conventions were Yankees; Eastern states furnished the lawyers, educators, merchants, and political leaders for early Wisconsin society. This influence, however, can be overstressed. The great influx in immigrants, of fairly homogeneous groups, who poured into Wisconsin in the later 19th and [early] 20th centuries as the state reached maturity, added an overlay of a different culture, neither foreign nor Yankee, to Wisconsin's society that Ohio or Michigan, for example, did not possess.

Nye noted four characteristics of Wisconsin: (1) its distrust of strong autonomous government; (2) strong emphasis on planned progress through popular enlightenment; (3) a kind of self-centeredness misinterpreted by many as a form of isolationism; and (4) a tendency toward reform, based upon an investigation of the facts of society and the subsequent use of those facts as a basis for action. These ingrained characteristics helped to shape a state which pioneered in social and economic legislation. They made the Wisconsin Idea peculiarly adaptable and workable. Along with various ironies and ambivalences, some readily definable and some not, they made Wisconsin unique.

Discovery, Exploration, Fur Trade

Wisconsin's recorded history begins in 1634 with the landing of Jean Nicolet at a point on the southeastern shore of Green Bay while seeking a Northwest Passage to the Orient. For the next century and a third, exploration, and Jesuit missionary activities--all interdependent--dominated the scene. In 1659-1660 Pierre Esprit Radisson and Medard Chouart Des Grosseillers explored the south shore of Lake Superior and penetrated some distance into northern Wisconsin, where they bartered with the Ottawa and prepared the
time when it was found that the great inland streams did not flow into the western sea but instead into the Gulf of Mexico. It left no structural monuments which lasted into the nineteenth century, for no permanent ones had been built save Fort La Baye, and that had deteriorated to ruins by 1800. Nevertheless, the sites of a few forts, trading posts, and missions are known at least approximately, and the period did leave a heritage of French place names in our counties and cities, rivers, lakes and land features, and indeed in the name of the state itself, which is derived from "Ouisconsin," the French version of various Indian names for its major river. And French surnames still abound in many Wisconsin communities, perhaps more at Green Bay and Prairie du Chien and places along the Fox River, but also in other areas where the earliest settlers were French traders and voyageurs.

Although the French had never particularly encouraged settlement and had established no official colonies, Charles de Langlade, the "father of Wisconsin," started the state's first permanent settlement at Green Bay in 1764 just after the French regime ended and that of the British began.

**British Rule and the War of 1812**

Like the French, the British did not encourage settlement; the fur trade could go on best if the beaver country remained a wilderness. The small settlement at Green Bay was a natural development, for there had been a scattering of old fur traders and voyageurs and their families living in and moving about the general vicinity for some time, and it was strategically located on the trade route to the northeast. By 1781 Prairie du Chien could also be considered a settlement. But by and large the time for settlement in Wisconsin had not yet arrived.

Exploration continued throughout the British period and one expedition in particular—that of Jonathan Carver in 1766-1786—was important to Wisconsin's settlement at a later period. In due time Carver's *Travels through the Interior Posts of North-America, in the years 1766, 1767, and 1768*, which he published in England ten years after his expedition, attracted many immigrants to Wisconsin.

The fur trade continued to be the major activity in Wisconsin well into the 1800s. Indians from Wisconsin fought in both the French and Indian and the Revolutionary wars, but in Wisconsin's wilderness the trade was relatively unaffected. When the British regime officially ended in 1783, it could hardly be said to have had any more major effect than that of the French in finally shaping Wisconsin's development.

American difficulties with the British did not end with the conclusion of the Revolutionary War, however. In signing the Treaty of Paris of 1783, the British agreed to deliver several important Northwest posts to the Americans "with all convenient speed," but they actually retained the posts for several years. To perpetuate their control over the fur trade, the British held the Indians' loyalty by encouraging them to come to the posts, honoring them, and plying them with gifts. Such tactics caused the Indians to resist the advance of the American frontier and delayed settlement.

Nonetheless, in the same year the federal Constitution was adopted, the Northwest Ordinance in 1787 made statehood on the basis of equality possible and the Northwest Territory was part of the new nation by the time George Washington was inaugurated in 1789.

The Jay Treaty, concluded in late 1794, finally brought about transfer of the posts to the Americans, and in August, 1796, the British evacuated Fort Michilimackinac, the last to be relinquished, and American soldiers occupied it in October. Even so, the British were not yet ready to relax their hold on the fur trade. Jay's treaty had given British subjects freedom to travel over United States water routes and portages, thus allowing English
The third of Wisconsin's major forts, all connected with the latter part of the fur-trade era and the early days of settlement, was Fort Winnebago, built at the eastern end of the Fox-Wisconsin portage in 1828. The fort's presence was meant to preserve peace with the Indians, to protect the fur traders, and to encourage settlement in the portage area. Fort Winnebago was successful in all three phases of its mission, although it was never heavily fortified and never involved in military actions of any consequence. However the troops stationed there were responsible for building much of the eastern portion of the Green Bay-Prairie du Chien military road.

Early in the existence of Fort Winnebago, John Kinzie was stationed there as Indian sub-agent, and a new agency house was built for him and his wife Juliette a short distance outside the fort. Kinzie was a popular, competent, and fair agent, highly regarded by the Indians, to whom he was friend, father, and trusted advisor. Unfortunately, his stay at the portage was shortened because the government would not raise his position to that of full agent. He left government service in 1834.

**Lead Mining**

Wisconsin was part of the Northwest Territory from 1787 to 1800; of the Indiana Territory from 1800 to 1809; of the Illinois Territory from 1809 to 1818; and of the Michigan Territory from 1818 until the establishment of Wisconsin Territory in 1836. Throughout most of this time the fur trade had continued, but by 1834 the beaver supply in this part of the country was largely depleted and the trade now flourished in the far reaches of the new northwest that had been opened by the Louisiana Purchase. By 1818 three counties had been established west of Lake Michigan—Michilimackinac, Brown, and Crawford. In 1821 the governor of the Michigan Territory, Lewis Cass, incorporated the Township of Green Bay and the Borough of Prairie du Chien, both of which had developed around the fur trade.

Following the War of 1812 settlers began to come to Wisconsin in increasing numbers. The earliest of these nineteenth-century pioneers came not to establish farms and till the soil but to seek lead. Rich lead deposits in Wisconsin's southwest had long been known to the Indians, who had mined small amounts for their own purposes. But it was not until the early 1820s that people became seriously interested in the deposits along the Fever River. During the early 1820s lead prices were high, and there was demand in eastern markets for the white lead used in paint manufacture. News of the abundant ore in southwestern Wisconsin spread rapidly, and soon many miners moved into the area, some coming from Kentucky and Tennessee, others from Illinois and Missouri. For the next two decades or so the lead region grew in both area and population as new diggings were established and settlements developed around them. In the late 1820s a few Cornish miners sent word of the lead mines back to Cornwall, England, where many tin miners were out of work. Early in the 1830s the lead region received an influx of these men.

Because of their experience, the Cornishmen could mine profitably where surface miners would give up and move on. The easiest mining was a matter of removing the ore from outcroppings, or, at worst, digging shallow pits for that which lay immediately underground in almost pure form. For a few years at least, the Cornish, finding the area of Mineral Point not only rich in ore but reminiscent of their native land and well supplied with limestone of excellent building quality, were content to remain, establish a settlement of their own, and mine in the more conventional way of digging shafts and following veins of ore.

The Cornishmen were expert stonemasons as well as miners, and they developed a community of little stone cottages, nestled in a valley against a protecting hill, known as Shake-Rag-under-the-hill and later just Shake Rag. The men, working on a ridge across the way with their windlasses and piles of lead ore, could look down about mealtime and
elsewhere and hoped to do better with a fresh start in a new country. Southwestern Wisconsin became a booming, bustling frontier.

Not long after the opening of the Erie Canal, however, there was a change of direction in the flow of immigrants heading west. Instead of going into Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, people from the East began to establish settlements on the western shore of Lake Michigan. Agriculture was their main pursuit and they began to settle along the southwestern lakeshore, soon moving inland and northward from those areas to establish their farms.

When Michigan entered the Union, the new Territory of Wisconsin was created. Henry Dodge was sworn in as governor in a ceremony at Mineral Point on July 4, 1836. Belmont, the territorial capital, was far too small to put on an appropriate celebration for such an occasion.

Wisconsin's territorial period was a time of growth and expansion. Although the Panic of 1837 was a temporary deterrent, the population swelled with the influx of many immigrants from Europe as well as Americans from the East and South. In the lead mining region more than half the immigrants were British, but elsewhere there were others: Norwegians, Germans, Swiss. During this early period of settlement, the Germans came to Milwaukee and the Lake Michigan areas, but settle more widely in southern and eastern Wisconsin. Norwegians settled in farming country in the south. The development of important port cities on Lake Michigan and important inland settlements increased needs for transportation and port facilities, capital, schools, and local government. In July, 1836, the population of southeastern Wisconsin was 2,893; by 1840 it was more than 9,000. Within a decade the people of the territory would become convinced of the need for voting representation in Washington and other advantages of statehood.

Only a single, short session of the legislature was held at the first territorial capitol in Belmont, and most of that was devoted to the selection of a new capital site. Through the influence of James Duane Doty, later to be Wisconsin's second territorial governor, Madison was chosen as the permanent territorial capital. Personal gain, favors, and politics were all involved in its selection. The site was a beautiful one on an isthmus between two of four picturesque lakes, conveniently situated about midway between the lead mining region and Milwaukee.

Statehood

The first attempt at adopting a constitution, at a convention in 1846, failed. A second convention was held at the end of the following year, and early in 1848 a satisfactory document was completed. The second constitution was adopted by the people and on May 29, 1848, Wisconsin became the thirtieth state of the Union. The first governor, Nelson Dewey, was from the southwestern mining area.

At the time of entry into the Union, the state had a territorial debt of $12,892.75. The newly adopted constitution forbade the state's going into debt, and, unlike some of her neighbors who had simply repudiated their debts--much larger ones as a rule--Wisconsin paid hers and proudly declared herself "absolutely without debt."

The years of Wisconsin's statehood from the beginning in 1848 to the time of the Civil war constituted an era of corruption in a state that later was to become known for good government. Businessmen who wanted state contracts for services did not hesitate to buy legislators or governors. When Congress granted lands for railroad development, the real graft began. Having squandered their stockholders' money, railroad companies now distributed large quantities of stocks and bonds to get the land. Legislators, state officers, and even the governor accepted money. In 1856 Governor Coles Bashford got $50,000
During the later territorial days and early statehood, educational opportunities were probably better at the higher than at the elementary levIs. Between 1840 and 1850 Wisconsin's earliest colleges were established: Carroll, Beloit, Lawrence, and Ripon. All were denominational and remain so today. Wisconsin's legislature established the University of Wisconsin in 1848, although classes did not meet until two years later. In 1856, having refused to establish normal schools to train teachers, the legislature added a normal department to the state university, but this was hardly more than a gesture. Finally, in 1866, the first state normal school opened at Platteville.

In 1856, at the opposite end of the educational scale, in a little building which still stands in Watertown, Margarethe Meyher Schurz began the first kindergarten in America, thus initiating a highly important phase of children's education.

Begun in 1846, two years before Wisconsin entered the Union, the State Historical Society of Wisconsin was chartered by the state in 1853 and received its first grant of state funds. It is the oldest state historical society in the nation to receive continuing state financial support, and is one of the renowned cultural institutions of its kind.

**Immigration and Growth**

The first twelve years or so of statehood were a period of great population expansion. Immigration was well underway during the late territorial days, and when Wisconsin entered statehood in 1848 her population was about 250,000. Between 1850 and 1860 it increased from 305,391 to 775,881.

By the early 1850s the Wisconsin frontier offered much that was attractive. Larry Gara writes:

In the East, entrenched vested interests often prevented ambitious young men from gaining high position in political, business or professional life. Farmers in western New England and New York had begun to turn to dairying, pushing others off the land. To those who were dissatisfied in the East, Wisconsin, with its combination of river highways, fertile soil, healthful climate, and lake port markets, had a special appeal. In contrast to its western neighbors, Wisconsin had both a low debt and low taxes, and the new state offered many desirable land tracts on generous terms. Such advantages continued to lure Yankees to Wisconsin.

The same advantages appealed to European peoples. Private immigration companies promoted various parts of the state and attracted many immigrants. The state went into the promotion business, too, and in 1852 placed a state commissioner of immigration in New York to sell newly arrived Europeans on Wisconsin's advantages. Soon Wisconsin symbolized the opportunity for self-betterment in the west.

Germans especially were attracted, not only by the advantages that appealed to Yankees but also by the opportunity to escape oppressive conditions at home. Persecuted Lutherans from northern Germany came to gain religious freedom; Catholics--mostly craftsmen--from southern Germany came to escape ruinous competition from machines. The latter group made a valuable addition to Wisconsin's skilled working population--cabinetmakers, textile makers, bakers, brewers, carpenter. German doctors came, and teachers who had been educated in the world's best universities.

A group known as the Forty-Eighters, nationalistic intellectuals expatriated for their role in the unsuccessful German revolution of 1848, brought a rich background of culture, political enthusiasm, and freedom of thought. Many of these settled in Milwaukee, where their professions and occupations as well as their views enriched the culture of that city.

The vast majority of the early European immigrants, German and otherwise, were
The Civil War years gave impetus to Wisconsin agriculture. Wheat production became increasingly mechanized; more and more reapers and threshers were put into use to make up in part for the loss of manpower to the war effort, but women and children had to help too. Farming became more diversified according to the demand that arose. There was a market for oats, corn, rye, barley, sugar beets, and tobacco. Farmers raised sheep because the government needed wool.

At the end of the war there was a brief but interesting period of hop cultivation in Wisconsin, concentrated in the south central counties. The peak years were 1866 and 1867 when the crop was poor in the East. Hop growers in Sauk County raised one-fifth of the entire nation's crop in 1867 and doubled their acreage the next year. The 1868 season was a disastrous one in Wisconsin, however, with a generally poor crop made worse by an infestation of hop lice. At the same time production was again rising in the East. Wisconsin farmers lost heavily on the 1868 crop and it brought an end to the "hop craze" here.

By the end of the civil War, the state's wheat production also entered a serious decline. Scientific farming and crop rotation were still largely things of the future, and the continued growth of wheat depleted the soil. Many wheat farmers simply moved further west and began new farms. More often than not, however, the new immigrant farmers--Germans, Swiss, Bohemians, Norwegians and others--preferred to remain in one place. Some of these people bought the farms that wheat growers were leaving.

During approximately this same period several factors began to coalesce which eventually led to Wisconsin's rise as a leading dairy state. One of the most important of these was an influx of New York dairymen into the state; they brought a great deal of knowledge and experience with them from their native state where a very successful dairy industry was already flourishing. In addition, a number of European immigrants, especially the Scandinavians and Swiss, contributed their skills and energy towards the creation of a profitable dairy industry.

The state's dairy farmers first developed the cheese-making phase of the industry. In 1859 Hiram Smith established a cheese factory at Sheboygan, and in 1864 Chester Hazen opened a commercial cheese factory at Ladoga in Fond du Lac County. Both men purchased or gathered milk from neighboring farmers on a regular basis. The Swiss developed their special cheese industry in Green County, where they had settled in considerable numbers. It was not many years before cheese-making became profitable, and by 1870 there were nearly 50 cheese factories in operation in Wisconsin.

In 1872 a group of resolute dairymen created the Wisconsin Dairymen's Association of Watertown. This organization held conventions, advertised the state's dairy products, promoted scientific improvements, and lobbied for laws which would protect its economic interests.

One man in particular helped the Wisconsin dairy farmer to make a success of scientific dairying. William Dempster Hoard established a newspaper, the Jefferson County Union, in Lake Mills in 1870. It became the official papers of the Jefferson County Dairymen's Association, of which Howard was the first secretary. As a regular practice the paper devoted much space to dairy news from every conceivable source, and it was so successful that in 1885 it resulted in the establishment of a separate publication, Hoard's Dairyman, which remains the dairyman's Bible both in Wisconsin and elsewhere.

It required much argument on Hoard's part, but by the end of the nineteenth century he convinced farmers that in the final analysis success in dairying "depended on breeding a cow that would produce milk to the exclusion of other features such as beef." Other problems--quality control, proper feeding, care of milk, and marketing--were important.
immigrants came to work in these pineries or to work on the railroads, and farmers in the lumbering regions often worked in logging camps to earn money during the winter. Cities and industries were built around the lumber business, and fortunes were made in both lumbering and railroading. During much of the era, the lumber and railroad interests had held a tight control on the Wisconsin legislature. This was accomplished in no small part by active participation of lumbermen in politics as state legislators, governors, and U. S. Senators, and by an extremely powerful railroad lobby.

During the heyday of lumbering, cutting practices were not only wasteful but careless. This inevitably led to fires, including a few disastrous ones. The worst was the Peshtigo fire of October 8, 1871, which took the lives of more than 800 people, completely destroying the town of Peshtigo and burning a large area of northeastern Wisconsin and upper Michigan. In terms of lives lost it was one of the worst fire disasters in American history, many times worse than the great Chicago fire which occurred on the same evening. Out of this tragedy grew the earliest beginnings of forest conservation in Wisconsin.

Wood products industries of some magnitude developed during the lumbering era. In the Fox River Valley and northeastern parts of the state were important millworking and manufacturing companies producing finished wood products—doors, sashes, blinds, furniture, caskets, farm implements, wagons, pails, barrels and tubs, wheel spokes, and hubs. But the real giant to develop in the latter nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was the paper industry, which was a logical successor to lumbering.

Wisconsin's first paper mill was established in Milwaukee before the Civil War, manufacturing paper from cotton rags. By the 1870s, however, wood pulp had become the prime papermaking material, and paper mills soon mushroomed throughout the state, especially in the lower Fox River Valley and on the Wisconsin River, but also in other areas where the necessary combination of clean, swift-moving water and good pulpwood was available. The trees from which pulp was made were largely those that the logging industry did not use: hemlock, spruce, balsam fir, and later some deciduous softwoods.

Once more the wood supply seemed inexhaustible, but after the domestic supply was logged over to meet ever-increasing demands it became necessary to import pulpwood from Canada. Wisconsin paper makers, whose main product was newsprint, soon had a survival fight on their hands as lower-priced Canadian newsprint began cutting profits. At the turn of the century there were more than fifty paper mills in Wisconsin, and the state ranked fifth in the nation's paper production. By 1910, while paper production ranked only eighth among the state's industries, Wisconsin had risen third place among the country's paper producing states. In the ensuing years, aided in innumerable ways by the U. S. Forest Products Laboratory in Madison and the Institute of Paper Chemistry at Lawrence College (Lawrence University after 1964) in Appleton, the industry developed new and more efficient pulping processes, new paper products, new by-products from what were formerly waste materials, and new methods of disposing of unusable waste, although the latter remains a serious environmental problem. Wisconsin paper mills became almost exclusively producers of specialty products, ranking first or near first nationally in value of paper products.

Cutover timberlands in northern Wisconsin amounted to many millions of acres and left the state with serious problems of water and soil conservation and effective use of the land. It had once been thought that cutting away the forests would only open fine, fertile land to farming and create a whole new economy in the north, but it was found that much of the land was worthless for growing anything but trees. That which had been burned over would hardly support a good growth of weeds.

The worst problems were those that directly affected the people. Cutover farmers worked long and hard to seek out a living. When they could work part time at logging to
At the University of Wisconsin, beginning with the arrival of President John Bascom in 1874, significant changes began to occur giving definite impetus to political reform. In addition to bringing a high level of personal scholarship to the University, Bascom brought new philosophies of government and economics. On the tangible side came real co-education, the addition of several new buildings, and increased university income from taxation. On the philosophical side came advocacy of governmental controls on stock market investing practices, of a graduated income tax, of legal action against monopolies, and of promotion of reform through "applied Christianity."

Bascom's successor, the renowned geologist Thomas C. Chamberlin furthered the development of a high-caliber academic atmosphere and brought about a needed reorganization of the university. Faculty leadership and prestige were enhanced by the addition of Richard T. Ely, economist; C. H. Haskins, historian; and Joseph Jastrow, psychologist. Wisconsin's native son, historian Frederick Jackson Turner, who won fame for his theory of the influence of the frontier in American history, also joined the history faculty.

When Chamberlin left in 1892, he was succeeded by Charles Kendall Adams, under whose administration came growth in size but no particularly noteworthy administrative changes. Early in Adams' presidency, however, came the challenge to academic freedom which resulted in the famous declaration by the Board of Regents which reads: "Whatever may be the limitations which trammel inquiry elsewhere, we believe the Great State University of Wisconsin should ever encourage that continual and fearless sifting and winnowing by which alone the truth can be found." This not only enhanced the growing reputation of the university for academic freedom and scholarly excellence, but also contributed to an atmosphere out of which would emerge ideas and support for political reform and social legislation.

La Follette and the Progressive

Robert M. La Follette, who won the election for governor in 1900 as a progressive Republican, was the first Wisconsin-born man to hold that office. He had entered politics twenty years earlier by defying the local Republican boss, Elisha W. Keyes, going directly to the people, and winning both the nomination and election for district attorney of Dane County. He was fresh out of the University of Wisconsin law school at the time, a gifted orator who spoke convincingly and dramatically. La Follette was re-elected district attorney in 1882, and by 1884 was politically strong enough to obtain the state convention's nomination and then election to a seat in the House of Representatives. After serving three terms in Congress, La Follette fell victim to the Democratic landslide of 1890 in Wisconsin and returned to private law practice in Madison. Then in 1891 came an event of which La Follette said: "Nothing else ever came into my life that exerted such a powerful influence on me as that affair... It was the turning point, in a way, of my career."

For some time, Wisconsin state treasurers had been in the habit of investing state funds and keeping the earnings for themselves. The Democrats, who had been out of power for a number of years, took the matter to court to recover the investment-earned money for the state. The Republican boss, Philetus Sawyer, had given bond for some of the treasurers, and was in a position to lose about $300,000. He asked La Follette to meet him privately and offered him money. La Follette immediately claimed that Sawyer was trying to bribe him because the case was to be heard by Judge Robert Siebecker, La Follette's brother-in-law and former law partner. Although Sawyer always maintained that he had only been trying to hire legal help and did not know about the family relationship, La Follette, who had had no time for party bosses since his early encounter with Elisha Keyes, used the incident to dramatize what a political boss would do to protect his own corrupt interests.
La Follette candidates were the official Republicans. That fall La Follette won the governorship again and the Progressives gained strength in the legislature. The direct primary referendum (for state offices) passed as well.

Progressive reforms and innovations continued through La Follette's third term, though not without friction and compromise. La Follette found it necessary to use some machine tactics and political patronage of his own to accomplish the ends he sought. Successful as he was in establishing and furthering the Progressive movement, he never really controlled the Republican party in Wisconsin and was not always successful in dictating who would be the Progressive candidates for office. During his third term, in 1905, he was elected to the U.S. Senate by the legislature when J.V. Quail's term expired, but he did not resign as governor until 1906 when he felt his reform program was complete. Included among the enlightened Progressive legislation during his own term and that of his successors, James O. Davidson and Francis E. McGovern, were the establishment of a railroad commission, a state board of forestry, an industrial commission, and insurance commission, a state board of forestry, an industrial commission, an insurance commission, a state civil service system, and passage of such measures as laws regulating lobbying, woman and child labor, a corrupt practices act, a state income tax law, and a workmen's compensation law.

The Wisconsin Idea

University of Wisconsin involvement in state affairs went hand-in-hand with the Progressive movement. In 1903 Charles Van Hise, the first recipient of a Ph.D. degree from the University and a former classmate of Robert La Follette, assumed the presidency of the university. Under his administration the institution's services to the state expanded greatly. The Extension Division was created and its services soon multiplied. Farmers' institutes, which had begun in the mid-1880s, were expanded. Not only were dairy and short courses for farmers increased by the College of Agriculture and high school and college extension courses offered, but experts from the university went out into the state to help with various problems.

University professors who were concerned with both political reform and the regulation of business and industry advanced many ideas and participated actively in state affairs and held elective and appointive offices. They advocated or helped to write much reform legislation, including the direct primary and civil service laws as well as those establishing commissions and regulatory agencies. Faculty and state personnel also held meetings on a regular basis to exchange ideas.

Charles McCarthy, who had set up the Legislative Reference Library in 1901, labeled this relationship between the University and the State the "Wisconsin Idea," and in 1912 wrote a book about it which was widely read. The Wisconsin Idea came to mean that the boundaries of the campus were the boundaries of the state, with the university serving as a laboratory and the state a proving ground for developments in public affairs.

Although much of the Progressives' legislation related to state regulation of business and industry, it was never their intention to establish a socialistic system. What they did was to define, isolate, and try to solve some of the problems stemming from the growth of technology, the expansion of business and industry, and the changing needs of society. Not all that the Progressives did was readily accepted at the time, but much of what Wisconsin did was copied elsewhere at both state and federal levels, and the Wisconsin Idea became a model for reform elsewhere.

In 1914 there was a split in the Progressive leadership and a conservative Republican, Emanuel L. Philipp, won the election for governor. He held the office from 1915 until 1921, when John J. Blaine, another Progressive, was elected governor. By the time of Philipp's election, the conservative Republicans or "Stalwarts" had come to accept much of
dairy products, foundry and machine products, paper and wood pulp, and engines, turbines, and tractors. All of these were destined to remain high in importance, but there would be many changes and developments of new products as Wisconsin’s industry moved ahead, spurred by increased application of scientific research and engineering.

The Depression

Wisconsin’s depression problems were much the same as those of other states. There was increasing unemployment in industry as demand for products decreased, and many plants were forced to shut down. Milwaukee was especially hard hit. The effect spread to businesses, suppliers, and various service establishments. For the unemployed, direct relief through governmental agencies at local levels and distribution of food and clothing by charitable organizations provided help but was scarcely adequate. Pride and independence made it difficult for some to accept direct relief; people wanted work so that they could support themselves.

Wisconsin received about $2,000,000 when Congress passed emergency appropriations at the end of 1930, and many communities used their share for public works and civic betterment projects; but always there were more applicants than jobs. Under Governor Walter J. Kohler a Citizen’s Committee on Employment and a Bureau of Unemployment were established to work on the problems, but without much success.

In 1930 Philip F. La Follette, younger son of "Old Bob," brother of U. S. Senator Robert, Jr., and a Progressive in the family tradition, was elected governor on the Republican ticket. He used several approaches to the unemployment problem, most notably an increased income tax, which relieved local property taxes somewhat; a state grant of one dollar to local governments for each person listed in the census of 1930; and construction of fire lanes in state forests and overpasses at dangerous railroad crossings.

Although it would not become effective in time to be of much help during the depression, one of the most important and far-reaching legislative action of Philip La Follette’s administration, born in the depression’s deepest years, was the passage in 1932 of the first unemployment insurance law in the nation. It became the model for many other states and for the federal government as well. Like many of Wisconsin’s earlier Progressive measures, this was another law resulting from the Wisconsin Idea--co-operation between the University of Wisconsin and the state.

Farmers had their depression problems, too. While most farm families could at least be assured of food for the table, their income dropped to the point where they could not meet mortgage payments, and there were many foreclosures. There was some legislative help in providing means of delaying foreclosures, and Farm Holiday Associations were formed as well, providing co-operative help and the threat of force when necessary to prevent foreclosures.

Both dairymen and crop farmers tried unsuccessfusly to get higher prices for their products by withholding them from market. In the winter of 1932-1933 a milk strike was attempted. The strikers dumped milk at railroad sidings and along highways, largely in the Fox River Valley area, and succeeded in closing some cheese and butter factories. Before it was over there were a few episodes of violence and one death, but little change in the price of milk.

With the Roosevelt landslide of 1932, Philip La Follette was swept out of office, but he won it again as a Progressive in 1934 and served two terms before his defeat in 1938 by a Republican industrialist, Julius P. Heil. Philip La Follette was Wisconsin’s only Progressive Party governor, for Orland S. Loomis, who won election as a Progressive in 1942, died before he could take office. In 1946, under the leadership of Robert M. La Follette, Jr., Wisconsin’s Progressive party was dissolved. Many of its members
a student at Lawrence College in Appleton. From the prolific songwriting of Carrie Jacobs Bond, born in Janesville in 1862, have come such favorites as "A Perfect Day" and "I Love you Truly."

Wisconsin's two best-known sculptors are women. Vinnie Ream Hoxie, born in Madison in 1847, did a sculpture of Abraham Lincoln from life when she was eighteen. For five months before his assassination, Lincoln gave her half-hour sittings. When Congress later decided it should have a marble statue of Lincoln, Vinnie Ream Hoxie submitted her model and won the commission. Madison-born Helen Farnsworth Mears also showed talent at an early age and later studied under Lorado Taft. Her "Genius of Wisconsin" stands in the state capitol in Madison; her best-known work, a statue of Frances Willard commissioned by the state of Illinois, is in Statutory Hall of the U. S. Capitol.

Writers of both the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have brought attention to Wisconsin. John Muir, who lived in Wisconsin as boy, youth, and university student, recalled his day here in The Story of My Boyhood and Youth. In many of his writings, Ray Stannard Baker, a Pulitzer prize-winner for his eight-volume work on Woodrow Wilson, was influenced by his boyhood in northwestern Wisconsin. Zona Gale, of Portage, who received a Pulitzer prize in 1921 for her play Miss Lulu Bett, did much writing in her Wisconsin home. She was also a strong backer of La Follette and the Progressives and served on the University Board of Regents. Hamlin Garland, of West Salem, lived only nine years in Wisconsin, but he depicted some of the hardships of frontier life from memories of living in the coulee region of La Crosse County. Edna Ferber, who spent her formative years in Appleton, drew heavily upon her days in Wisconsin in her autobiography, A Peculiar Treasure, and more dramatically in Fanny Herself and Come and Get It. August Derleth, Wisconsin's most prolific writer, wrote many volumes about the Sac Prairie country and its people.

A Century Forward

In its centennial year of 1948, Wisconsin could look back upon a century of almost unbelievable change and progress. A century ago it was not yet far removed from the frontier. Now it was conscious of its place in both the nation and the world, and its people were concerned about the affairs of both. When it became a state, its population had been about a quarter of a million; now it was estimated at more than three and a quarter million. Through the Progressives and the Wisconsin Idea it had become an innovator of legislation much copied by other states and by the federal government. Its state university had become one of the great educational institutions of the world; its state historical society enjoyed similar renown. It had long been the nation's leading dairy state but was also a high-ranking industrial state. In the process of change, its population had become predominantly urban.

Wisconsin had been a great melting pot, and in a century had welded into one people a diversity of foreign-born citizens and their descendants. The process had not yet ended, but Wisconsin had indeed developed a distinctive state culture. The many peoples of Wisconsin were still making their contributions to the richness, color, and uniqueness of Wisconsin's traditions, customs, and flavor--still helping to shape a state.