CINCINNATI
Glimpses of Its Youth

SESQUICENTENNIAL CELEBRATION

Cincinnati Public Schools
CINCINNATI
Glimpses of Its Youth

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CINCINNATI: Glimpses of Its Youth is one of a series of books prepared for use in Cincinnati schools in connection with the city’s celebration of its coming to 150 years.

This book is especially designed for the intermediate grades. It describes the struggles for the Northwest Territory and sketches the character of Cincinnati in its early and middle years.

Harriette Simpson, Harry Stevens, and Walter Richardson, members of the project staff at Cincinnati, are chiefly responsible for the text. We are grateful to officials of the Cincinnati Public Schools for their sponsorship of these books and for the lively interest with which they have encouraged the work.

HARRY GRAFF, District Supervisor

HARLAN HATCHER, State Director
# CONTENTS

## PART I

### THE OLD NORTHWEST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rich Country</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mound Builders</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Activity</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Advance</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French Defeat</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian Wars</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Rogers Clark</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinance of 1787</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Wars and Final Peace</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## PART II

### EARLY CINCINNATI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seed of Three Towns</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Winter</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sprouting</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pioneer Life</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Settlers</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Town Life</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Problems</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## PART III

### LATER YEARS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Canal</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The River</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schools and Churches</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Arts</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City Life</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and Visitors</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Landmarks</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## ILLUSTRATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cover: Fort Washington</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frontispiece: William Holmes McGuffey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map: Northwest Territory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From One House (1789) to Many (1840)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling to Cincinnati (1838, 1841)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth Street and Burnet House (1840's)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. Trollope's Bazaar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earle Sargeant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Book Co.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earle Sargeant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enquirer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble Co.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Lehman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NOT long after the Spanish and English seamen discovered America and explored its southern and eastern shores, the French joined in the great search for a seaway to China. As they sailed due west from their native shores, they came to the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, and soon pushed on into the very heart of the North American continent.

They did not discover the way to China, but south of the Great Lakes they did find a rich land clothed with thick forests and crossed by mighty rivers. Part of that land would be known later in history as the Old Northwest. At this time it was simply the rolling plain north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi Rivers, leveled off by the glaciers which pushed southwards millions of years ago. In the south it was broken up into hilly country, as we see it today; and along the north, where the glaciers had scooped out deep holes in the earth, was strung the chain of Great Lakes—Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario. Over all lay the fertile soil which the glaciers had brought down and left when they slowly melted away.

In the tangled woods grew oak, beech, hickory, walnut, and sycamore trees, with maple, birch, larch, and many evergreens farther north. Trumpet vines and wild grapes clung to their branches, and in the shade roamed deer and bear, wildcats, wolves, and panthers. The woodchuck, opossum, fox, rabbit, squirrel, and wild turkey scampered among them. Pawpaws, crab apples, wild cherries, and nuts fell to the ground from their branches each fall.

Towards the west, on the uplands between the river valleys, the country sometimes opened out into broad stretches of prairie, covered with deep grass. The heavy summer rains and the cold, snowy winters fed the Mississippi and St. Lawrence Rivers, which drained this land. On the east, the Appalachians, the “endless mountains,” as the Indians called them, shut off all knowledge of the ocean. On the west, across the Mississippi, stretched the unbroken prairie of the Great Plains, where millions of buffalo roamed among the dense grasses and the tiger lilies.
Mound Builders

We do not know who first lived in the Old Northwest, but long before Columbus ever sailed from Spain a mysterious people was here. The mound builders, as we call them, built their mounds over much of the country. Some of these were forts, where they defended themselves against their enemies. Other mounds were for religious celebrations. They were built in the shape of the animal gods of the people—serpents, birds, and animals such as the opossum.

Explorers who dig in the mounds find tobacco pipes, pottery, flint arrowheads, jewelry, copper bowls, mortars for grinding corn, carved bone, and statuettes, which show something about the way the mound builders lived.

Many of these mounds have not yet been explored, and many others doubtless have not been discovered. More than five thousand of them are known in Ohio. They range in size from the Miamisburg Mound, sixty-eight feet high, to mounds so low we scarcely notice them. Fort Ancient, in Warren County, and the Great Serpent Mound, in Adams County, are among the largest. At one time there were a good many mounds in Cincinnati, and some can still be seen in Madisonville.

Some day the mystery of the mound builders may be solved. If it is, the mounds themselves will have to give the clues; for these people disappeared without leaving any other trace.

Indians

When the first European explorers came to the Old Northwest, early in the sixteen hundreds, they found here many related Indian tribes, each speaking a dialect of the Indian language called Algonquin. But by 1650 the Iroquois Indians, coming from New York, had driven many tribes far to the west. They pushed the Algonquin Indians from Ohio, and for almost a century the land which was to become our State was an empty wilderness.

But the Indians were restless; they wandered about the land. Some of them returned to Ohio, and learned that the Iroquois were no longer here. They had nothing to fear if they returned to their old homes. Besides, in the East, year by year, the English settlers cleared more land and destroyed more of the animals on which the Indians relied for food and clothing. The Eastern Indians were being forced back from the ocean into the Appalachian Mountains. As the English colonists sprinkled mountains and foothills with their farms and towns, the Indians moved still farther away, across the mountains, down the western slopes of the Appalachians, into the Ohio Valley. From 1720 to 1750, in this way, the Delaware, the Tuscarawa, and the Shawnee Indians came into Ohio.

About the same time, the Indians in the western part of the country, in Wisconsin and Illinois, were distressed by wars with the French. They, too, had to move once more. They could not go still farther west, for they did not know how to live
on the Great Plains. But they could slip back into the Ohio Country. From the north and west, the Seneca, the Mingo, the Wyandot, the Ottawa, and the Miami Indians returned to Ohio. By the year 1750 Ohio had again become the home of many tribes.

Most of these Indians lived in little villages, usually in a river bottom or near a supply of fresh water. They were ruled by the chief, his council, and the medicine man. Their homes were usually oval-shaped wigwams, covered with the bark of trees placed over a framework of light boughs or saplings. For clothing they wore the skins and furs of the animals they shot or trapped.

They lived by hunting and farming. The abundant game of the forest and the fish of the many rivers supplied food. In the open land the Indian women planted and harvested corn, beans, squashes, melons, pumpkins, gourds, and tobacco. All the Indians, whether young or old, enjoyed playing games, but they were fierce in their petty wars with neighboring tribes. These Indians led this sort of life from the time the first explorers found them in the Old Northwest until they were driven from their homeland.

**French Activity**

While the English and the Spanish were planting colonies along the Atlantic coast, the French, who had slipped beyond the Appalachian mountains by going up the St. Lawrence and down the Mississippi, were exploring this great region. In 1534 Jacques Cartier, sailing from St. Malo for the King of France, examined the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In the next century Samuel de Champlain discovered two of the Great Lakes—Huron and Ontario. In 1609 he founded Quebec. From that center Champlain sent out young men to explore the country and to trade with the Indians. Soon many Western Indian tribes were sending their furs to the French trading posts in exchange for brightly colored cloth, knives and kettles, combs, beads, and many bits of cheap jewelry.

After a few years a new class of traders arose—men who “ran through the woods” instead of waiting at the trading posts for the Indians to bring their furs. These men, almost all outlaws, lived with the Indians for years at a time. Some of them married Indian women, and brought up families in the Indian villages. In their travels they may often have been the first to discover some new lake or river. Perhaps the Ohio River was found by these French traders before any official expedition reached it. They gained the friendship of the Indians, and spread the influence of France.

Other French explorers who worked among the Indians were the Jesuit missionaries, such as Father Marquette. Father Marquette’s missionary service began in 1668 at Sault Ste. Marie, where Lake Superior passes into Lake Huron. While he was preaching to the Indians near there in 1673, Father Marquette met
Louis Joliet, a young man who was much interested in the fur trade. Together, they set out to explore the West in two bark canoes, with only some Indian corn and smoked meat for food.

"The joy that we felt at being selected for this expedition," wrote Marquette, "animated our courage and rendered the labor of paddling from morning to night agreeable to us. And because we were going to seek unknown countries, we took every precaution in our power, so that, if our undertaking were hazardous, it should not be foolhardy." They came to the Mississippi just one month later, in June 1673. They were the first Europeans to see the Father of Waters since De Soto had discovered it and died there more than a hundred years before (1541-1542).

The greatest of all the French explorers was a young nobleman by the name of LaSalle, who came to America in 1666. From the village at Montreal he looked west with longing eyes. He hoped to bring the Mississippi basin into the empire of New France, as the French lands in America were called. LaSalle's first visit to the West was made in the winter of 1669-1670, when he seems to have discovered the Ohio River and floated down it to the falls at Louisville.

Thirty years later, and a hundred years after the building of the French forts in Canada, French villages began to appear along the Gulf of Mexico and the Mississippi River. New Orleans was laid out in 1718, and four years later it became the capital of Louisiana. Then down the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence and down the Mississippi, furs and peltries were sped on their way to the French posts.

Where the Great Lakes and the Mississippi came close together in the Old Northwest, many trading routes were beaten through the wilderness and many French forts were built. The French found a welcome for their goods, and they set up their little villages and "factories" where now lie the States of Illinois and Wisconsin. The land that was to become the State of Ohio was still desolate; its Indians had not yet returned.

**English Advance**

While the French in America divided their time between converting the Indians to Christianity and selling them cheap goods at a handsome profit, the English along the Atlantic gradually killed off the Indians to make way for settlements.

Very little trading and almost no missionary work was done by the founders of Jamestown (1607) and Plymouth (1620). A hundred years after these first colonies had been settled, the English discovered there was money to be made by trading with the Indians. As the English settlers chopped down the forests and drove the Indians back, the traders had to go farther west to reach their customers. A conflict therefore arose between these two groups of colonists. The
settlers hated and feared the Indians, whom they wished to drive out. The traders depended on the Indians for their livelihood. Finally the traders had to cross the Appalachians to reach the Indians. As the copper-colored tribes moved into Ohio, the colonial traders came along with them.

Some of these traders, such as George Croghan and Conrad Weiser, were great and powerful men, but most of them were "vicious and abandoned wretches," as Benjamin Franklin described them. They were away from the white man's settlements for so long that they felt free to do as they pleased. They tricked the Indians as much as possible, and stole their property. For valuable furs they traded to the Indians gunpowder which would not explode and knives which would not cut, and then disappeared before the Indians realized that they had been swindled. Although the red men hated the settlers who drove them from their homes, they despised even more those traders who came among them lying, cheating, robbing, and murdering. Yet, as bits of steel are drawn toward a magnet, the traders followed the Indians wherever they went. Soon every Indian village in Ohio had its Pennsylvania trader.

While the Eastern Indians were moving across the mountains into Ohio, the Indians in the West were rising up against the shady practices of the French. In a series of wars from about 1710 to 1740, the Indians in Wisconsin and Illinois shook off French authority and put an end to French trade in that part of the Northwest. Many tribes had to move as a result of that war, and some of them, such as the Miami, came east, entering Ohio and settling along the Miami and Maumee Rivers.

The French, too, had to move. They had to find another route from New France to the Mississippi River and Louisiana. They found it in Ohio. Instead of going across Lake Huron and Lake Michigan, and down the Illinois or the Wisconsin River to the Mississippi, they followed Lake Erie to the Maumee River, went down the Maumee to the Wabash, made their way down to the Ohio, and then journeyed on to the Mississippi.

**French Defeat**

When both the French and the English tried to enter the same land, there was bound to be trouble. It started almost as soon as the two nations realized that each was threatened by the other. First, George Croghan and Conrad Weiser, representing the English colonies, gave the Indians valuable presents, and made many promises of friendship. Then the French sent an expedition, under the command of Celoron de Bienville, to win the Indians back to their side, while French soldiers captured English traders and took them off to Montreal and Quebec. In turn, the Governor of Virginia sent Christopher Gist, in 1750-1751, to put a stop to French terrorism, and to hold the friendship of the Indians. Now the English had the advantage, and now the French. First one side was ahead,
then the other; and whichever side was ahead got the Indian trade. George Wash­ington was sent on one of these trips in 1753, but was unsuccessful. In 1755 he went along with General Edward Braddock, to be defeated when only a few miles from Fort Duquesne, the French military headquarters. The French were winning all the campaigns. The great interior basin of America, including the Ohio Country, belonged to France. Men here called Louis XV their king.

Then in 1756 in America, in India, and in Europe, France and England went to war. This “Seven Years’ War,” or the “French and Indian War,” as we call it, lasted from 1756 to 1763. Together with King Frederick the Great of Prussia, England defeated the French armies; and the British navy kept France from sending supplies to its American territory.

The armies in New France were unable to maintain themselves without aid from home. A Moravian missionary, Christian Frederick Post, in 1758 persuaded the Ohio Indians that it was better to live at peace than to take the warpath, and the French discovered that their Indian allies would not fight. Then, without even a single battle, they gave up Fort Duquesne, which in November 1758 was taken over by British General John Forbes and renamed Fort Pitt.

By the Treaty of Paris in 1763, Canada and the whole eastern half of the Mississippi Valley became English territory, and the second part of the great war between the French and the English ended. Never again did French traders, missionaries, or soldiers pass through Ohio. The future of Ohio lay in the hands of Indian natives and English, German, and Scotch-Irish colonists who were to come.

**Indian Wars**

While the French had ruled in New France, American traders had never been safe. They had been in constant danger of capture, and their goods had been seized and taken to Montreal, Detroit or Quebec. American settlers had also been afraid to go too far; for they were sometimes attacked by French soldiers. But after the French left the Ohio Valley, traders and settlers came across the mountains and down the deep valleys of the rivers.

The Indians did not fail to notice the difference between the way the English behaved before and after the war. Before 1756 the white men had brought treaties offering friendship and presents. Now they disregarded the Indians’ rights. The few French who still remained in the West pointed out that, just as the Indian lands east of the mountains had been seized, so their lands in the Ohio Valley would next be taken by the white man if he were permitted to settle in this region.

The unhappy Indians found a leader in the Ottawa chief, Pontiac. His name was known and respected throughout the Indian nations. Far and wide, to the tribes in the Ohio Valley, along the Great Lakes, and even down on the Mississippi, Pontiac sent his messengers bearing war belts of wampum and blood-stained
tomahawks. Late in the year 1762 Pontiac himself visited many of his red brothers and laid plans. The following May all tribes were to rise together and with a general rush destroy all the British forts.

At the appointed time in May 1763, the attack began. Fort Sandusky, the only British outpost in Ohio, was the first to fall. Then in quick succession the other small and lonely British posts yielded to the Indians. In all the Northwest, only Detroit and Fort Pitt remained in the hands of the British. Then, having seized or destroyed the British forts, the Indians fell on the frontier settlements along the western borders of Virginia and Pennsylvania, burned cabins, and carried away captives. During 1763 and 1764 the entire frontier line of white settlements felt these furious attacks.

In three expeditions, under Colonel John Bradstreet, Colonel Henry Bouquet, and George Croghan, the English suppressed the uprising and took revenge on the Indians. The trails and rivers of the Northwest were now safe for the boats and pack-horses of the colonists.

With the French removed and the Indians, as it now seemed, no longer a menace, the American colonists were eager to take possession of the fertile land in the West. The Royal Proclamation Line of 1763 and the Quebec Act of 1774, both intended to keep the colonists on the eastern side of the mountains, meant little to the Americans. The more sharp-sighted British statesmen saw that if settlers were allowed to move into the West they would be far from the authority and control of the British government. They felt the danger of a revolt in America, and they tried to keep the colonists from gaining this feeling of security and independence. But the colonists did not heed the British King and Parliament. The West was too great an attraction.

No sooner was Pontiac's Conspiracy crushed than the fears of the Indians came true. The stream of settlers now rushed where traders first cut a channel. With an easy disregard for Proclamation Line, Indian treaties, and provincial laws, the newcomers poured into the valleys along the headwaters of the Allegheny, the Monongahela, the Cheat, the Kanawha, and the Cumberland Rivers.

Alarmed at rumors of Indian hostility, a number of surveyors and frontiersmen gathered at the mouth of Wheeling Creek on the Ohio to march against the Indians. Two Indians paddling a canoe along the Ohio river were fired on and killed. Other incidents followed, and the frontier was aflame. Chief Logan took the lead among the Indians. The Shawnee, Mingo, and Wyandot Indians were the main tribes on the Indian side, while the Virginia government took the colonists' part.

On June 10, 1774 the Royal Governor of Virginia, Lord Dunmore, called out the militia, and another war began. Thousands of pioneers who had gone to settle in Indian lands began to crowd back to the East, abandoning their farms and stockades and driving their cattle before them. A thousand settlers are said to
have crossed the Monongahela River in a single day. Arthur St. Clair wrote to Governor Penn, of Pennsylvania, that he “did not meet less than a hundred families, and I think two thousand head of cattle in twenty miles riding.” An expedition under Colonel Angus MacDonald raided the Shawnee territory and burned villages and crops. This only made the Indians more furious than before.

Finally, Colonel Andrew Lewis marched more than a thousand backwoodsmen down the Kanawha River to the Ohio River. There, at Point Pleasant, West Virginia, they camped for a few days. One night Shawnee scouts found them sleeping. The next morning, October 10, 1774, Chief Cornstalk and his Shawnee followers attacked. It was a long and desperate battle. Hundreds were killed or wounded on each side. Not until late in the day did the English begin to beat back the Indians—although years later soldiers used to sing around the fireside:

Like thunder from heaven our rifles did roar,
Till twelve of the clock, or perhaps something more,
And during this time the Shawnees did fly,
Whilst many a brave man on the ground there did lie.

That night, protected by the darkness, the Shawnee recrossed the Ohio and returned to their villages on the northern side of the river. Terms of peace were arranged, and Lord Dunmore’s War was over. The frontier was quiet for a little while.

George Rogers Clark

When the American Revolution began at Lexington and Concord and Bunker Hill in 1775, the war whoop was heard once more in the West. The light of burning cabins colored the hills of Kentucky, and back and forth over Ohio, north and south, east and west, marched Indians and Americans.

The expedition of George Rogers Clark into the Northwest was the most important of the many campaigns from 1777 to 1782. In 1777 Clark was busy organizing the defense of Kentucky against the Indians. He discovered that the British were stirring up trouble. They were supplying the Indians with guns and ammunition, making false promises, and urging the redskins to attack the pioneers. If Kentucky were to be protected, the Indians and British would have to be conquered in the land north of the Ohio River.

That fall, Clark himself made the long trip to Williamsburg, Virginia, where he told Patrick Henry of his plan. Henry, Thomas Jefferson, George Wythe, and George Mason, a neighbor of George Washington, approved the plan. The Virginia Assembly was told about the idea, and it gave Clark the authority to get up an expedition.
Everything seemed fine. But not many soldiers enlisted, for men feared to leave their homes without protection from Indian attacks. Never-the-less, Clark set out with less than half the men he needed, and made his temporary headquarters on Corn Island, in the Ohio River. For the first time he then told his men the real purpose of the expedition. A few of them were frightened, and they tried to escape from the island. But the rest were enthusiastic to go along.

On June 26, 1778 the army got under way. As the boats came through the rapids of the Ohio River, the sun went into a total eclipse. The old-timers grumbled; they said this meant bad luck. But they kept going. At an abandoned French post at Fort Massac the men hid their boats and set off on foot to march the 120 miles to Kaskaskia.

Fortunately, they had as a guide an American trader who had recently been among the Illinois Indian villages. Marching in single file, carrying all their supplies on their backs, the men made their way through a dark forest for nearly fifty miles, and then came out on a broad prairie. Here their guide lost his way, and Clark suspected that he was being led into a trap. Yet there was nothing he could do about it. After a short time the guide found his bearings and the march was resumed. On the evening of July 4 the little army reached the Kaskaskia River, a short distance above the village.

After waiting until nightfall, Clark led his men into the town and took possession without firing a single shot. The dirty, unkempt invaders presented a fearful sight to the French villagers. Clark was careful not to destroy the impression he made, so that the people would appreciate his generosity later. A group of villagers came asking permission to gather in the church. Clark rudely granted this request. A priest and a few others soon came begging that families be kept intact and that the women and children be allowed to keep their clothing and provisions. Clark felt the game had gone far enough. He told them that America and France were now allies, and that they might go back to their usual life with perfect freedom.

It was then easy to win the allegiance of the French settlements at Vincennes and along the Mississippi. But late that fall more trouble came. The British commander at Detroit gathered a force of whites and Indians and on December 17 suddenly appeared before Vincennes. The little garrison there had no choice except to surrender.

It was more than a month before news of this loss reached Clark, but when he heard about it he saw there was only one way to save the American cause in the Northwest. He would have to make a surprise attack on the British, and drive them from the strongholds which were giving them power in the territory.

Clark and his men marched 180 miles in the dead of winter, waded up to their shoulders through icy waters of flooded rivers, and carried their guns and powder over their heads as they slipped through the deep bogs. Finally they
arrived at Vincennes. They then marched back and forth, and the British command­er thought he was being attacked by a large force. Later, against superior odds, Clark recaptured the fort.

From that time on, though fighting continued in the West for three more years, the country remained in the hands of the Americans. Finally, by the Peace Treaty in 1783, Great Britain at last admitted that the American Colonies had won their independence, and that the Northwest, with Ohio in it, belonged to the new United States.

**Ordinance of 1787**

In the midst of all this warfare and revolution there had been little time to think about an organized government for the wilderness north of the Ohio River. Connecticut, New York, and Virginia all held claims to the land that was to become Ohio. After the Revolutionary War, the new State governments continued to make their claims. But the new Federal Government had greater claims on the Western lands.

To settle the disputes, Congress took over the Northwest Territory. It allowed Connecticut to keep the title to the region along Lake Erie, which it called the Western Reserve. It permitted Virginia to keep a large area in the south-central part of the state, called the Virginia Military District. In 1785 Congress passed a law providing for the survey and sale of the land, so that those who wanted to settle on it would know where they could buy land and how much they would have to pay.

Then it was time to consider a plan for government. Congress talked over the matter. While Congress was talking, a small group of Revolutionary War veterans made plans for moving into the West. They called themselves the Ohio Company of Associates, and sent Reverend Manasseh Cutler to the National Capital to speak for them. Cutler told Congress what they wanted, and then spoke to several members personally.

Congress finally made a law known as the Ordinance of the Northwest Territory, or the Ordinance of 1787. This law established the government of the Western lands. It set down the rules by which the territories could become States like the original thirteen States in the Union. It prohibited slavery in the Northwest Territory forever, and encouraged education.

Now that people knew what to expect in the Northwest Territory, many wished to live there. Some were frontiersmen, who were always anxious to be out in the open, far away from their neighbors, with plenty of land to farm. Others were young men who felt that they did not have a chance to get ahead in the East, especially since there was a long, hard depression in that part of the country. They wished to come west because they would then be more independent and could succeed. Still others were the brave men who had fought to win
our freedom from Great Britain. After spending years in the armies of Washing­ton, Putnam, or Ethan Allen, they had returned home weary and penniless, to find their farms overgrown with weeds and their homes neglected. Many of these veterans decided to begin a new life in the West.

In addition to the Ohio Company of Associates, there was a smaller company, owned largely by John Cleves Symmes, a Congressman from New Jersey. Symmes planned to buy almost a million acres of land on the north bank of the Ohio between the two Miamis. This land he would divide into lots and fields and sell to settlers coming to the new country. He had first heard of this fine region from Major Benjamin Stites, an ex-Revolutionary soldier who had accidentally explored the valleys of the two Miamis in the summer of 1786.

Major Stites had come on a trading expedition from his home in Pennsyl­vania to Limestone (now Maysville) in Kentucky. While he was at a small settlement nearby, a band of Indians stole some horses from the Kentucky settlers. Stites organized a party to go after the Indians. Following their trail, he crossed the Ohio and went up the Little Miami. He never recaptured the horses, but curiosity led him to go west until he came to the Great Miami, which he followed downstream a short way before striking off toward Mill Creek Valley and then down to the Ohio.

Stites was so impressed by the fine land he saw that he walked all the way from his home in Pennsylvania to New York City. There he met John Cleves Symmes, and interested him in the land between the Miamis. Symmes came to see for himself, and he decided to buy.

Congress finally agreed to sell land to companies. The Symmes Purchase and the purchase of the Ohio Company were made at the same time, but members of the Ohio Company, headed by General Rufus Putnam, were the first to make a settlement. They founded Marietta in April 1788. Marietta is considered the first regular settlement in the whole Northwest Territory. Though it was for a short time capital of the Territory, it did not long remain the most important town.

New Wars and Final Peace

When the Indians saw more and more white men coming, they again rose in arms to protect their hunting grounds in the Ohio Country. To keep the settlers from cutting down the forests, the Indians tried to destroy the farms. They stole cows, trampled down corn and flax, and uprooted potatoes and pumpkins. The settlers carried guns to chase away the Indians, and in a few months there was open warfare.

In the fall of 1790 General Josiah Harmar and fifteen hundred militiamen marched 170 miles up the Miami from newly founded Cincinnati. He burned Indian homes and destroyed their corn. Far from Cincinnati, his disorderly,
jealous, and poorly trained men were met by the Indians and completely defeated. They were forced to return to Cincinnati as quickly as they could.

The next year, General Arthur St. Clair was put in command of the soldiers in the Northwest Territory. Just one year after Harmar had started off, St. Clair led his troops north from Cincinnati into the Indian country. When they were far from their base, they were attacked suddenly by the Indians. The redskins killed more than half the army and captured much of St. Clair's baggage and supplies. This time the defeat of the white men was even more overwhelming than before.

In 1792 the command passed to General Anthony Wayne. Brave "Mad" Anthony was a hero of the Revolutionary War. He came to Cincinnati in the spring of 1793 and drilled his soldiers in the woods near the town, to prepare them for Indian warfare in the forest. Then in the fall of 1793 he advanced cautiously to the north. He often stopped to build forts, to send out spies for information, and to train his soldiers still more. Finally, in the summer of 1794 he marched down the Maumee Valley towards Lake Erie, where the Indian army was stationed.

In August, at a place called Fallen Timbers, the Americans and the Indians drew up for battle. Between them lay rows of dead trees, blown over by a terrible storm a few years before. Within an hour after the first shots were fired, the Indians were fleeing. They had met a man who knew how to fight them from behind trees and bushes in the dim light of the forest.

For three days the Americans continued the work of destroying the Indian power. Then they returned to Greenville, Ohio, for the winter.

A year later, many of the Indian chiefs came to Mad Anthony Wayne to ask for peace. In the Treaty of Greenville, which was signed in August 1795, Americans and Indians agreed to stop fighting each other. Prisoners of war were exchanged, and the Indians were told they could live in northern Ohio beyond a certain boundary line. Because Wayne was fair to the Indians after he had defeated them, they remained true to their agreement.

Indian warfare had now come to a close in what was to be the State of Ohio. The settlements which had already been founded along the north bank of the Ohio River would never again be attacked by Indians. They were free to expand, to become prosperous towns and cities. By far the largest of these was to be Cincinnati.
FROM ONE HOUSE (1789) TO MANY (1840)
PART II.

EARLY CINCINNATI

Seed of Three Towns

The first settlements on the land between the two Miamis were made in the late fall and early winter—a time of cold rains, snow, ice in the river, and sharp winds that came through the thick trees and sent chill into the brush pole huts and hastily chinked log cabins.

The first settlement in southwestern Ohio was Columbia, founded by Major Benjamin Stites, who landed with twenty-six adults and several children on November 18, 1788. When the families stepped out on the land after their long journey down the Ohio in flatboats, they made a clearing in a pawpaw thicket. In this clearing, while the women and children knelt on the ground and the men stood guard clutching their long rifles, they prayed for the success of the settlement.

Next, all fell to work and built open-faced brush huts—a fair shelter from snow or rain, but filled with cold and the smoke from a fire kept burning by the open door. As soon as there was time, the men began building stout, heavily timbered log cabins, into which they moved their families.

Although it was small, Columbia soon made plans for a church and a school. The settlers had been here little more than a year when they organized the Columbia Baptist Church and a pay school for boys—the first church and school in Hamilton County.

The churchyard and many graves of the first settlers can be seen down near Lunken Airport, but there is nothing to mark the site of the first school building, and its location has been forgotten. However, we do know that its first teacher was John Reily, a former Revolutionary War soldier. His pay was small. Much of it he took out in board and lodging, staying with first one family and then another for a week or so at a time. He taught the older boys such subjects as arithmetic, grammar, reading, writing, and spelling. Very young children usually learned the alphabet and a bit of reading and writing at home. The next year, 1791, Francis Dunlevy, also an ex-soldier, came to teach Greek and Latin to the Columbia boys.

The second settlement to be made in the Symmes Purchase was Losantiville, begun on December 28, 1788. Though Colonel Israel Ludlow and other men
first came to live here on that date, they had already spent some time in planning streets for the prospective town and dividing the forest lands into fields and lots.

John Filson, a young school-teacher from Lexington, Kentucky, had been one of those who helped plan the town. He had wished to give the place a name that would describe its location. Taking French, English, and Latin words, he created the name, “Losantiville,” meaning “the city opposite the mouth of the Licking.” John Filson never lived to see the first cabins built in the settlement he named. While he, Ludlow, and other men were surveying the land and planning the settlement, he went off into the deep forest and disappeared. He never came back.

For the first few days after Colonel Ludlow and other men came to live at Losantiville, they stayed in small shacks made from the timbers of their flatboats. But soon Ludlow built a log cabin at the northeast corner of Front and Main Streets, the first cabin in what was to be downtown Cincinnati. By February three cabins had been built, and other settlers continued to come in small groups.

Judge John Cleves Symmes, the man who had first bought the great chunk of land that later made up most of Hamilton County, thought he would rather live at the bend on the Ohio beside the Great Miami. Early in 1789 he therefore went past Columbia and Losantiville on down to the Great Miami. There, with his family, his friends, and some soldiers who had come to guard him, he founded North Bend.

Early in the year 1789, therefore, three settlements lay in Hamilton County. But they were so small that they were more like the seed of towns sown in a wilderness than like real towns. And all through the winter there were many times when it seemed the seed could not grow, for they were hindered by many troubles.

Long Winter

Getting food was at first the greatest problem. True, there was much game in the forest, but a continued diet of bear, deer, and wild turkey meat, combined with little bread and no vegetables, was tiresome and often sickening. The supply of flour and meal was low, and it was almost impossible to get more in the winter weather. Streams were swollen, and filled with great slabs of drifting ice. Since most travel was either by flatboat or pirogue on the streams and rivers, trips for supplies were slow and dangerous. The flatboats were safe enough unless overtaken by ice cakes, but they were almost useless for traveling upstream. To go against the current the settlers used pirogues, long, canoe-shaped boats such as the Indians had, but these were given to tipping over and were hard to manage in a swift stream.

The swollen streams and rivers not only made travel difficult, but also caused much trouble at both Columbia and North Bend by flooding most of the cabins
in both settlements. Since none of the settlers had known what the Ohio River and the two Miami Rivers would do in the early spring, they had built their homes too near the water for safety from even mild spring floods. At North Bend the soldiers were trapped and forced to take to higher land by boat, and at Columbia conditions were little better. At Losantiville, however, Colonel Ludlow and the others had built their cabins out of danger of the rising waters.

Fortunately, through this first bad winter, when the settlers were so few and Fort Washington had not yet been built, the Indians gave more help than trouble. Early in 1789, before settling at North Bend, Judge Symmes had sent a string of white beads to the Indians in token of friendship, and he had also written them a letter. In his letter he said:

If the red people will live in friendship with him [Judge Symmes] and his young men who came from the great salt ocean to plant corn and build cabins on the land between the Great and Little Miami, then the white and red people shall be brothers and live together, and we will buy your furs and skin and sell you blankets and rifles and powder and lard and rum, and everything that our red brothers may want in hunting and in their towns.

Brothers, a treaty is holding at Muskingum. Great men from the thirteen fires are there to meet the chiefs and head men of all the nation of the red people. May the Great Spirit direct all their councils for peace. But the great men and the wise men of the red and white people cannot keep peace and friendship long unless we, who are their sons and warriors, will also bury the hatchet and live in peace.

A few days after the settlers had landed, they had been surprised to find a band of friendly Indians. With the Indians was a white man named George, who had lived among them so long that he dressed and acted-like the Indians, and spoke their language. Yet, in spite of his long stay in the Indian towns, he had not forgotten how to speak English. When he first met the settlers, he called to them as they were working on their small fort. The settlers thought that he was one of them and that he was loafing among the trees. They called back and told him to get to work. Through the winter he acted as interpreter for Major Stites and the Shawnee who lived a short distance away.

The people of Columbia and the Indians grew more neighborly, and soon exchanged many friendly visits. The squaws, with their papooses strapped to their backs, would even come to the cabins and stay overnight. When the food was gone at Columbia, the Indians loaned and sold the settlers all the corn they could spare. They also taught the women what wild roots could be found under the snow in the woods and how to bake and boil them for use instead of bread.

In spite of bad weather and food so scarce that many settlers were often weak, the winter was a busy time. The work of surveying the land and dividing
it into lots and fields, crisscrossed by streets and roads, went forward in all kinds of weather. It took many of the men on long journeys into the snowy woods. Others were occupied hunting game for food.

When all their work was finished, most of the people planned for the spring. Cutting down the great trees and getting the land ready for seed was a hard task. Trees six feet thick were common, and their huge roots stopped the plow.

The settlers of Columbia were more fortunate than those in the other towns. Near them on the banks of the Ohio was a great sweep of level land called Turkey Bottom, wonderfully fertile because the river had often come up over it and deposited rich soil. Furthermore, the hard work of felling trees and clearing away brush and tree trunks had been done many years before by the Indians. They had used the Turkey Bottom for a cornfield, just as the white men planned to do. Thorny locust trees and shrubs and vines now jutted up in the Bottom. These the men of Columbia cleared away, and the land was soon ready for spring planting.

**Sprouting**

Not all the problems of the Ohio pioneers were solved with the coming of spring, nor even by the good crops of corn that grew in Turkey Bottom in the second summer. Lack of food ceased to be the greatest hardship. Troubles of a graver nature shadowed the settlements.

The Indians, who had been friendly and helpful for a while, grew hostile. The settlers needed better protection than that given by the small band of soldiers at North Bend. The United States Government decided that it should build a good, strong fort. After a discussion of all possible locations, it was agreed to erect the fort in the middle one of the three small settlements—Losantiville.

Fort Washington, named in honor of George Washington, was finished before the end of the year 1789. It consisted of five large log blockhouses, four placed so as to form the corners of a square, and the fifth at the corner of a triangle on one side. All were connected by cabins of thick logs set close together like some mighty fence. Inside the fort were quarters for General Harmar and the three hundred officers and soldiers who came to protect the people in the Symmes Purchase.

Losantiville ceased to be simply a few log cabins limited by the Ohio River on one side and vast reaches of forest on the other sides. True, no more than forty or fifty new settlers came within the next year or so, but the fort with its soldiers made the small settlement important in the Northwest Territory. It was no longer a village governed by laws of its choosing, but a military post ruled mostly by the army.

The fort and its soldiers dominated the life of the village. Small boys ran away to visit the fort and to watch the soldiers drill. Boys and girls grew accus-
tomed to the sound of the sunrise and sunset guns and the sight of soldiers marching through the muddy streets or drilling for war.

There was one soldier, a tall, black-eyed lieutenant by the name of William Henry Harrison, who in later days became one of the best-loved and most-respected men in the Northwest Territory. When in 1811 the Indians made a desperate attempt to hold that part of the Territory that is now Indiana, it was he who led the soldiers against them in the famous victory at Tippecanoe. Later still, he married a daughter of Judge John Cleves Symmes, and in 1841 became President of the United States.

When Harrison was a young lieutenant at the fort, there were several other men, older than he, who were outstanding people in the Ohio Country. One of these was Arthur St. Clair, first Governor of the Northwest Territory. Early in January 1790 he came down the Ohio from Marietta to visit Losantiville and Fort Washington.

St. Clair looked over the few log cabins and the short, miry streets that lost themselves in the nearby woods. He decided that Losantiville was no fit name for the place. Perhaps he thought the name too fancy for such a little village, or maybe he only wished to honor the Society of the Cincinnati, to which he belonged. The Society of the Cincinnati was an organization of men who had served three years as officers in the Revolution. The men were pledged to help each other, and it was agreed that when a member died his oldest son would take his father's place. In honor of this society St. Clair named the little town Cincinnati.

Shortly after the naming of Cincinnati, St. Clair, with the help of the judges of the Supreme Court, decided on the boundaries of Hamilton County. Judge Symmes named it Hamilton in honor of Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury. Cincinnati was chosen the seat of the new county and the capital of the Northwest Territory.

**Pioneer Life**

Early life in the Ohio Country required not only strength and bravery, but patience and ingenuity as well. Many families came, but with few supplies except seed, farm animals, and some tools. They could not carry much on the long trip over the rough, muddy roads in the Eastern mountains and their foothills, then down the Ohio by flatboat.

Once they arrived here, even though they might have a good bit of money there was at first little opportunity to buy such things as nails, clothing, dishes, food or medicine. The pioneers learned to do without many things or to make them in their homes.

Most of the first settlers who came to Cincinnati were skilled in many arts and crafts which people today do not need to know. The women prepared every-
thing their families ate—from bread baked in Dutch ovens to wild fruits dried in the sun and stored for winter. They spun thread, wove it into cloth, and then sewed all the family clothing. The whirr and buzz of the big and little spinning wheels and the bang and rattle of the clumsy wooden looms were often heard coming from the log houses or the little weaving rooms nearby. It took many yards of jeans and linsey-woolsey to clothe the usual pioneer family of from six to twelve children.

With his ax, gun, and knives a skillful borderman could build a home, supply his family with meat, and make most of his tools and furniture. He could fashion wood into wheels, looms, buckets, bowls, plates, beds, tables, and chairs. He could build a chimney of sticks and clay, make hickory bark into chair seats, and pour lead in molds for bullets.

In those days iron had to be melted, forged, and shaped by hand, and it was expensive and hard to get in Cincinnati. The settlers therefore used wooden pegs in place of nails, and wood and leather strips for door latches and hinges. They even substituted hickory withes for the iron rims of their heavy wagon wheels that wore out on the rough roads.

Though cutting timber was a sore trial to the farmer in a hurry to clear his land and sow his seed, he could hardly have managed without trees. Three kinds were especially useful—oak, hickory, and horse chestnut, or buckeye. All these trees were plentiful in the land between the two Miamis.

Some say that Ohio was nicknamed the "Buckeye State" because so many buckeyes grew here and the first settlers put buckeye timber to so many uses. The wood was excellent for making bowls and spoons, for it was fine-grained and yet soft enough to be whittled easily.

The hickory was noted for its toughness. Young hickory saplings could be bent into many shapes without breaking, and the strong wood of the older trees was made into ax and hoe handles. Since seasoned hickory wood made the hottest of all wood fires and gave off little smoke, the pioneer housewife prized hickory embers for baking bread or broiling meat. Children, as well as squirrels, loved the nuts of the hickory tree. In autumn they gathered and stored hickory nuts to eat on winter evenings by the hearth.

Because they were so plentiful and so strong, the oaks helped the pioneers in many ways. Their wood was easily split, and could be made into clapboards, fence rails, boards for flatboats, and puncheon floors. Later, when Mad Anthony Wayne had brought peace to the Ohio Country and farmers could let their hogs roam in the woods, the acorns of the oak trees fed great droves of porkers.

The trees were not the only things in the forests which the settlers learned to use. Wild animals were trapped and hunted to supply food and skins. At home the women tanned and softened deer and bear skins and other pelts the men brought from the woods. Skins were used for rugs on the hard-packed clay floors; quilts on the beds (that were like shelves on the walls); trousers, caps, and
hunting shirts for the men; moccasins; and leather pouches for carrying shot or parched corn.

The pelts not needed at home could be exchanged for supplies at Yeatman’s Tavern, the first store in Cincinnati. Since money was scarce, a certain value was set on the pelts—fifty cents for a deer skin and $0.75 cents for each rabbit hide. Instead of receiving money, the trapper took home coffee and salt and other things he could not grow or make for himself.

The woods also furnished many varieties of wild fruits, nuts, and berries—grapes, chestnuts, walnuts, pawpaws, and blackberries. High in the trunks of hollow trees lived huge families of wild honey bees, whose golden honey combs were stored all about them. The settlers learned to find such “bee trees” by following a honey bee on her way home.

Many wild plants were useful for herbs and dyes. Yellowroot and the bark of butternut and black walnut trees made good dyes. When there was sickness in the pioneer family, boneset and fever-weed were gathered, dried, and then brewed into teas and lotions. The sassafras tree was prized for the fragrant, orange-colored tea that could be made from its inner bark and used as a tonic in the spring.

All the trees and animals of the forests, however, were not half so valuable to the settlers as the fertile land. Now that the rolling corn and wheat lands of the prairie States and the broad river valleys of the Pacific States and the Southwest have been added to the United States, it is not easy to understand how much the rich soil of the Ohio Country meant to men of 150 years ago. The pioneers had come from small farms of thin, rocky soil in the New England States, and to them the fertile soil between the two Miamis was a farmer’s paradise. They were determined to clear the land of trees and to farm it in spite of constant danger from the Indians. As early as January 1789, men were coming from the East to buy farms a day’s journey from Cincinnati.

Because of the unfriendly Indians, however, the pioneers often could do little farming, and few men dared live alone. Instead, a number of families would build a log stockade, and inside of this set their cabins. When the woods showed no signs of Indians, the men would go out to their fields and tend their crops, or cut down trees and prepare the soil for planting. Often bands of marauding redskins forced them to stay behind the stockade walls.

Nor were the farmers in the stations the only ones attacked. Most of the first settlers in Cincinnati planned to farm. They bought fields, or out-lots, on the edge of the town. But in spite of strong Fort Washington, the Indians prevented them from raising crops of grain. Many settlers were killed while out planting. The men took their guns along with them to the fields, and kept them handy. After the first season, several of the men at Columbia stood guard on the edge of the clearing while the others worked the fields of Turkey Bottom.
Despite Indians, poor tools, and clumsy plows, and squirrels, crows, and chipmunks bent on destroying their crops, Hamilton County farmers in the first few years managed to raise enough corn to feed their families and the soldiers at Fort Washington.

New Settlers

Though it was the seat of a sizable county, the capital of a vast territory, and one of the most important army bases in the United States, Cincinnati grew but slowly during the next few years. Most people in the Eastern and Southern States thought that it was foolish for men to build homes so far away across the mountains and in an Indian country. Others felt that the United States was large enough without the Northwest Territory. The young nation, they said, should not spend money or risk the lives of soldiers in defending settlers foolhardy enough to move to such a place.

After the defeats of both Harmar and St. Clair, this feeling grew especially strong. Almost no new settlers came. Many who were already here became weary from constant fear of the Indians, and returned to the East or moved into Kentucky. But there were others, such as Major Stites and Colonel Ludlow, who stayed and struggled to improve the life in their settlements and make it more like that of the communities from which they had come.

Mad Anthony’s defeat of the Indians in 1794 changed the opinion in the Eastern States concerning the future of the Ohio Country. Frontiersmen were no longer looked upon as stubborn fools risking their lives to settle a wilderness. During the early years only the strongest and most courageous dared come. Such men and women were not plentiful. But when the Indians had been driven back, great numbers of settlers, drawn by stories of the fertile land, streamed to Ohio.

Stories are told of hardship and misery undergone by families taking the overland route. One father and his oldest son dragged a cart, loaded with food for their family, many miles to the Northwest. Behind the cart walked the mother with a baby in her arms, and behind her toddled seven small children. Day after day, father and son heaved at the cart. They hauled it up hills, forded creeks and rivers, and walked through rain and frost beneath towering trees of the forest that threw a shade like twilight over their way.

Although many came overland, hundreds of people floated down the Ohio by flatboat and raft and settled in the country between the two Miamis. They made their clearings along the two rivers and their branches, back in the hills from Cincinnati. Acres of flax, barley, and apple orchard spread where, a few years before, the Indians had slain their deer. Corn cribs and cider presses were near the houses, and grist mills creaked beside the streams.
For the next few years Cincinnati grew slowly. Settlers were too busy clearing the forests. But as the number of farmers increased, the general store in Cincinnati stocked more goods for them, and farmers came to town to sell their produce in the local markets.

In 1802 Cincinnati was large enough to be incorporated as a town. The soldiers at Fort Washington moved across the river to Newport, and in 1808 the fort was torn down. The hamlet changed from a cluster of cabins under the shelter of a great army post into a quiet little country town. The trill of the bugle was replaced by the toot of the postman's horn and the tinkle of the cowbell.

By 1810 Cincinnati had almost twice as many people as it had had ten years before. The War of 1812, fought between the frontiersmen on the American side and the British and Indians on the other, brought many soldiers from Kentucky. They came to Cincinnati to enlist with William Henry Harrison, now a general. As they passed through Cincinnati, they stopped to buy supplies here. The town also flourished as a source of supplies for armies fighting in the West.

Small Town Life

Even when Cincinnati was nothing more than a few log cabins built close to the protecting walls of Fort Washington, it aroused much comment. Later, as the pioneer settlement grew into a country village, and then into a busy little town, Cincinnati became even more noticeable both as a place to visit and as a place to write about. Many visitors, as well as Cincinnatians, penned accounts of their travels. By looking through such writings we can watch early Cincinnati grow.

Describing the city in 1810, S. S. L'Hommedieu, one of the city's pioneers, says:

Cincinnati was then a village, containing about two thousand inhabitants. The houses were mostly log or frame cabins, located generally on the lower level below what is now Third Street. The principal street was Main, and it was pretty well built up as high as Sixth and Seventh Streets, the latter being the northern boundary of the village. It had its Presbyterian meeting-house, a frame building on the square between Fourth and Fifth, Main and Walnut streets; its graveyard, courthouse, jail and public whipping post, all on the same square. Upon the same ground, between the courthouse and the meeting-house, bands of friendly Indians would have war-dances, much to the amusement of the villagers; after which the hat would be passed around for the benefit, it may be, of the papooses.

A visitor of 1817, Timothy Flint, finds the markets of Cincinnati particularly interesting:

When you see this city apparently lifting its head from the surrounding woods, you find yourselves at a loss to imagine whence so many people could be furnished with supplies. In the fine weather, at the
commencement of the winter, it is only necessary to go to the market of this town and see its exuberant supplies of every article for consumption, in the finest order and of the best quality; to see the lines of wagons, and the astonishing quantities of every kind of produce. ... Fowls, domestic and wild, turkeys, venison—quail, all sorts of fruit and vegetables, equally excellent and cheap—in short, all that you see in Boston markets, with the exception of the same variety of fish. Flint notices that the markets displayed wild animals, birds such as the parrakeet, herbs, nuts, mittens, stockings, and dry goods, or "Yankee notions."

A book that contains many word scenes of the city is Dr. Daniel Drake’s Picture of Cincinnati, published in 1815. This book tells of the early Cincinnati physicians. It describes their troubles in reaching distant country patients over rough, muddy roads that could be traveled only on foot or by horseback, and of the small fees they collected for their services. These pioneer doctors received only a dollar for sitting up all night with a patient, and twenty-five cents for pulling a tooth. They charged twenty-five cents for each mile out of town they had to travel to reach the patient. They expected half of this sum to be paid in hay or corn for the horse.

In addition to Doctor Drake’s writings and to accounts of various other people, early Cincinnati newspapers narrate many daily happenings of the town. The first newspaper of the entire Northwest Territory was The Centinel of the North-Western Territory, established in Cincinnati in 1793. This paper and those that came soon after carried, in addition to the news, many advertisements, such as lists of incoming river cargoes to be offered for sale, and descriptions of stray cows.

Many of the newspaper notices concerned schools, none of which was free, as are our public schools today. Cincinnatians were beginning to give more time and attention to education. There were schools for boys and girls, where subjects such as arithmetic and grammar were taught. There were special classes for singing, dancing, oratory, French, medicine, and other subjects, attended chiefly by adults. The largest school in the Northwest Territory was the Lancaster Seminary, founded in 1815 mainly through the efforts of Dr. Daniel Drake, who was as interested in education as he was in medicine.

In 1802 Cincinnati acquired a public library. It was not free, as is ours today, but was supported by people who paid ten dollars in books or money for the privilege of borrowing books. The city soon had museums, music and literary societies, a small theater, and a natural history museum.

Negroes were among the early settlers of Cincinnati. Some were free; others were runaways from slavery. The first of the "Black Laws," intended to discourage Negroes from making their homes in Cincinnati, was passed in 1807. Because the city was so close to the slave States, there was much opposition to free Negroes.
EARLY CINCINNATI

But the Negroes continued to come. They found friends among the abolitionists, who were opposed to slavery. Some of these abolitionists became agents for the Underground Railroad, a secret way of transporting slaves from the South to Canada. Levi Coffin, who came to Cincinnati in 1847, was called the “president” and “chief dispatcher” of the Underground Railroad.

Many of the Negroes worked long hours at the river front, and others were employed as stewards and porters on the river boats. Some of the more thrifty ones were later able to buy real estate or set up places of business, and these laid the basis for the Negroes' fuller participation in present-day Cincinnati life.

As the town grew, it spread the fame of its industrious people. The writings of the visitors and of Doctor Drake carried word of the lusty young town to many countries. As early as 1820 the Germans, fleeing harsh persecution in Germany, began to come to Cincinnati. Though it was not until 1840 that they came in such numbers as to make parts of Cincinnati seem taken right out of Germany, the early ones hastened the growth of the city. They developed such industries as brewing and furniture manufacturing; and they became interested in music, cultural societies, and education.

New Problems

Cincinnati was now a prosperous little place filling up with new people. It had many products, but it had few ways of getting them to market. The settlers had not yet had time to build good roads. The charge for hauling even light freight over the rough roads was beyond the purses of most men. It cost a dollar a barrel to transport flour by wagon from Cincinnati to Hamilton. On longer hauls the transportation bill was often much greater than the original cost of the article.

This situation caused early Cincinnatians to use the roads as little as possible. Nor could they depend too much on the Ohio and the smaller rivers. In summer weather the streams were often too low to float the flatboats or keelboats. In winter small rivers were sometimes frozen, and even the Ohio River was dangerous because of its cakes of ice and high water.

All such trouble made the cost of transportation very great. Rather than pay huge prices for having such things as furniture, clothing, paper, window glass, and dishes brought across the mountains, the settlers began manufacturing these articles when the city was very young. Men began to make soap and candles for lighting. They also started to shape stone ware and brick from clay, and soon brick houses began to appear in Cincinnati.

New markets were opened for Cincinnati's farm produce and manufactured goods when the United States bought the huge tract of land west of the Mississippi known as the Louisiana Purchase. Great numbers of American settlers
went to live in the southern reaches of this territory. And many of the people who moved there needed the things Cincinnati had to sell.

Loads of corn whisky, lard, and pork were sent down the river by flatboat or keel-boat. Unlike the flatboat, the keel-boat was not broken up nor were its timbers sold when its destination was reached. Instead, keel-boat owners hired twice as many men as they had used coming downstream, and they rowed loads of cotton, coffee, spices, and other things from the Southwest and the port of New Orleans back up to Cincinnati. It took many strong men to bring goods up the river. All the things that Cincinnatians could not make themselves were therefore very expensive.

In 1811, when the New Orleans, first steamboat to be seen on Western rivers, chugged its puffing, sooty way down the Ohio, many laughed at the ugly, clumsy thing. Some people, however, saw the steamboat as a solution to the problem of bringing goods upstream. When the New Orleans made a triumphant return journey, everybody was convinced that some day freight would be transported as cheaply up the Ohio as down.

Soon other steamboats appeared, and goods could be sent quickly and cheaply both up and down the river. However, not all transportation problems were solved. As Cincinnati grew, the farmers and the towns in the countryside also flourished. More and more farmers produced crops on the rich lands north of the town. Little farming villages began to dot the country.

These farmers had corn, wheat, and other products to sell. They needed more manufactured goods from Cincinnati. But roads through Ohio continued to be rough and few; many were little better than wagon ruts. Some farmers could build flatboats and take their produce down small rivers, such as the Miamis, to the Ohio. Not all men lived beside the rivers, however, and flatboats were useless for return journeys.

Cincinnati merchants complained that even though farmers from the outlying districts had the money and the desire for many things to be had in the city, they bought little. The cost of getting furniture or a new plow home was often greater than the value of the article. Thus, in spite of the coming of the steamboat, Ohio’s farmers and merchants remained in need of some form of cheap, sure transportation, so that the produce of the country could be exchanged for that of the city.
PART III

LATER YEARS

The Canal

THE problem of bringing supply and demand together was not new, nor peculiar to Cincinnati alone. The State of New York had taken steps to solve the difficulty by building canals. The State of Ohio thought that this was a good solution, and the year 1825 saw the beginning of canals in Ohio that linked Cincinnati merchants and the Ohio River with inland towns and farmers.

No sooner had the legislature voted for the building of two canals than industry began to expand. The work of digging the canals was a mighty task needing many men, for miles of dirt and rock had to be moved. In those days there were no steam shovels. The men digging the canals used only picks and shovels, and power furnished by mules and horses.

It required two years of hard digging to complete the canal from Hamilton to the outskirts of Cincinnati. By 1831 water flowed down what is now Central Parkway and reached the Ohio River. But it was not until 1840 that 244 miles of canal were cut across Ohio to Toledo.

Long before the canal was completely finished, Cincinnati had begun to profit by the stretches that could be used. Short roads were laid from nearby communities to the canal banks, and at each of these loading points quantities of outgoing farm produce and incoming goods from Cincinnati were loaded and unloaded.

Flat barges filled with wheat, corn, and other farm produce came down the canal to Cincinnati, to feed the city or to be processed and shipped away to other American cities. Manufacturing increased immensely. Corn for the manufacture of whisky and lumber for the making of furniture could be had more cheaply and quickly by means of the canal. The canal aided the farmers north of Cincinnati not only by carrying their products, but also by bringing them supplies from Cincinnati.

Thus both the merchant and the manufacturer in Cincinnati profited. More and more goods came up from the South to be unloaded at Cincinnati and then shipped upstate by canal barge. The city grew like a young tree with its roots in rich, well-watered soil.

During those days the canal was a busy highway. On the deck of the canal boats were often seen little groups of Irish or German immigrants who
TRAVELING TO CINCINNATI (1838, 1841)
had come to Cincinnati and were now completing their long trip to a new home in the back country. In fine weather people used to take pleasure excursions on the canal boats and boys would swim and fish; and in winter, since the canal froze over more quickly than the river, skating parties would meet on the canal ice.

Only a few years after the completion of the canal, still another form of transportation made its appearance in Cincinnati. This was the Little Miami Railroad, laid from Springfield by way of Dayton to Cincinnati in 1846. Some people laughed at the first trains. There were few who dreamed that the railroad would some day take over all the work of the canal and most of that of the river.

Because of its outlet on the Ohio River, Cincinnati was peculiarly adapted to river and canal transportation. In spite of the building of the railroads, the canal therefore continued to do a heavy business until some years after the Civil War. But gradually, as transportation by rail became cheaper and speedier than transport by canal could ever be, the canal fell into disuse.

Though the railroads took over the work of the canal, they never brought the new life to the city that the canal had brought. The lines that were laid here were sufficient for the needs of the town and its trade with the South. But the great trunk lines connecting the industrial East with the agricultural West were laid through the northern part of the State.

After 1890 almost no one used the canal to ship goods or to travel on, and the water was drained from the channel. The canal became nothing more than a long, empty ditch. In 1926 the City of Cincinnati built Central Parkway over the old canal bed. You probably often ride over the very ground where boats and barges once floated.

The River

No sooner was the canal built than traffic up and down the Ohio and the Mississippi became thick. Great fleets of steamboats were soon tying up at the sloping, cobblestoned Cincinnati landing.

The city was a hustling, busy place, the most important stop along the river. To its Public Landing was brought all the lumber and farmers' produce collected in the interior of Ohio, and furniture, farm machinery, and other goods manufactured in Cincinnati. Travelers kept going back East or down in the direction of gay New Orleans. On the river landing were the Negro roustabouts, trundling or carrying great loads up and down the gangplanks. They sang as they heaved sacks of wheat and corn and rolled barrels of salt pork and whisky and hogsheads of tobacco. Up the landing they lugged loads of coffee and spices, bales of cotton, bolts of silk, and all the other things Cincinnati could neither grow nor make for itself.
The busy life on the river wharf attracted men and boys, who came to see the goings-on of the river men, roustabouts, merchants, farmers, and tradesmen who had business there. They came in greatest numbers on Sunday mornings. The landing was to them what the country store is to farmers and the hotel lobby and club is to many city men—a place at which to gather and pass the time of day. They strolled about to hear the gossip of the river, for in those days the river and its life stirred the minds of men and boys. Perhaps they heard the rivermen singing an old song:

The boatman is a lucky man,
No one can do as the boatman can,
The boatmen dance and the boatmen sing,
The boatman is up to everything.

CHORUS
Hi-o, away we go,
Floating down the river on the O-hi-o.

Since there were no railroads, boys had never heard of railroad men or engineers. Some therefore determined to be steamboat captains when they grew older. Others thought they would rather be pilots and guide the boats down through the dangerous crooks, bends, sandbars, and sunken cypress logs of the Mississippi. There were no license plates of cars to read, but the barefooted farm boy hunting cows on some hill above the river often heard the sound of a steamboat bell and knew the name of the boat and of its captain. All captains tried to have distinctive, sweetly toned bells on their boats. One foundry in Cincinnati, which is still operating, used to make nothing but steamboat bells.

The sound of the many whistles blowing for fog, a bend, or a landing was heard at intervals all through the day and the night. The wild races between rival steamboat captains drew half the men and boys of the city to watch by the river bank. The races were as exciting in their way as today’s airplane races at Cleveland—and sometimes more dangerous. The boilers were not equipped with safety valves, and when they were overheated they often blew up. The greatest disaster of this kind happened in 1838 when the heavily loaded Moselle exploded a short distance out of Cincinnati and eighty men, women, and children were killed. In his American Notes, Charles Dickens says “... western steamboats usually blow up one or two a week in the season.”

Later, when the railroads spread their network over the country, the steamboat was not so important as it had been. Grass began to grow among the cobbles on the landing. The roustabouts, the teams of mules hauling loads of cargo to and from the wharf, the carriages waiting for passengers, and the passengers themselves grew fewer and fewer as the years rolled on. But a few steamboats and many smaller craft still frequented the river. Small store boats well-stocked with
groceries and notions, flatboats, and showboats traveling with the current stopped at the river towns.

In our time, the river has come back into its own. The drifting ice, which endangered boats in the winter, and the long summer droughts, when the water was so low that only a canoe could float on some parts of the Ohio, have been conquered by modern science and engineering. In 1929 President Hoover visited Cincinnati and dedicated a monument in Eden Park marking the complete canalization of the Ohio River for nearly a thousand miles, its entire length from Pittsburgh to Cairo. This monument celebrates the building of dams and locks which keep the water from falling below a depth of nine feet; the removal of hidden rocks, submerged trees and snags, and treacherous sandbars; and the marking of a clear, deep, safe channel which steamboat pilots can follow. Once more, the river brings trade and prosperity to Cincinnati.

Industry

The earliest Cincinnati industries were based on agricultural produce. During the 1820's, and even a bit earlier, when transportation was expensive and slow and the price of corn down, many corn-growing farmers, rather than sell their corn at such low prices or try to carry it to market, fed it to the hogs. Like mules, sheep, and cows, hogs could be driven long miles at little expense. They were especially well-suited to parts of Ohio during the time when much of the land was in forest. A good many of the early forest trees were oak, beech, chestnut, and hickory trees, which bear nuts in the fall. When the acorn crop was good, the hogs fattened quite as well on mast, or acorns, as on corn. When they had grown fat, they were driven down to Cincinnati to be slaughtered. Barrels of salt pork were then shipped up and down the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers. The pork packing business gave rise to many forms of manufacturing. Just as today's packers use all parts of the cow—even bones for fertilizer and gelatine—so did the early packers use all parts of the hog. Even hogs' bristles were cleaned and shipped away. But the most important products of meat packing were those, such as soap and candles, that could be made from the fat. At an early date candle making was an important Cincinnati industry; it cleared the road for the great soap making industries of today. Cincinnati is now more famous for its soap than for its pork, but in 1825 and for years afterwards, the pork packing business was so prosperous that Cincinnati was nicknamed "Porkopolis."

Not all the surplus corn and other grain was fed to hogs. Much of it was ground into meal and flour, and Cincinnati was for many years the most important milling center west of the Appalachians. As early as 1812 men began building a steam flour mill between Broadway and Ludlow Street on the river front. Though it burned down, the mill was rebuilt in 1828. For many years it was a marvel to travelers from smaller towns, who were accustomed to nothing better
than grist mills turned by water power or by a blindfolded horse walking around and around.

Other important and profitable industries built on grain were brewing and distilling. Many barrels of whisky and kegs of beer were consumed in Cincinnati, and still greater numbers were shipped away.

The making of brick, tile, and stone ware grew more profitable and important as the years passed. The many fine woods, such as walnut and maple, furnished the raw material for the making of sturdy furniture. The oaks were in great demand for lumber, and white oak was much used for cooperage, the making of barrels. Many barrels were needed to ship the quantities of pork, whisky, beer, and tobacco that went out from Cincinnati.

Since the city was a supply point for farmers and steamboat men, numerous industries arose to fill their need for tools and machinery. The day of using such simple tools as the hoe and the single plow was soon past, and in the late 1830's Cincinnati was a center of farm tool manufacture. Half a century later, however, when such inventions as the Bessemer steel process and the gasoline engine increased both the cheapness and the need for iron and steel, heavy goods manufacturing rapidly shifted to northern Ohio. There the cheapness of Great Lakes transportation was like a magnet drawing together Northern iron ore and Eastern coal.

There were many other forms of manufacturing here, carried on for the most part by hand. Cincinnati was the center of clothing manufacture for the West, and many girls came hunting work in the textile shops, just as many men came to get jobs packing pork or making candles. The time of huge factories filled with complicated machinery had not yet come. Instead of working in clothing plants where garments are cut and sewn by machinery, young girls and women spent long hours with scissors, needle, and thread in rooms that were often overcrowded and poorly ventilated.

Though industry flourished, Cincinnati workers were too poorly paid to afford the good homes and conveniences which many have today. There were no laws regulating the number of hours a man, woman, or child might work, so that most people labored twelve hours, six days each week—and some even more.

Since the Civil War, many things have happened to change the character of Cincinnati industry. First, the Southern market collapsed. Southern plantations no longer bought the whisky, the salt pork and corn meal, the hand mills, and the textiles of our manufacturers. After the war, heavy industries suddenly became prominent. Iron and steel were the foundation of the new America, and Cincinnati had neither the iron ore nor the coal that was needed to smelt it. The cities along the lake, such as Cleveland, or near the coal fields, such as Pittsburgh, surpassed Cincinnati in population and industry.

But workers in Cincinnati retained their skills. Although they did not have millions of tons of coal and iron to work with, they knew how to fashion the
material they had. Instead of developing great mass industries, Cincinnati became concerned with the more highly skilled trades. Clocks and watches, shoes, clothing, printing, and, above all, the machine tool industry developed here. Besides, many farm products were still grown in Ohio and Indiana. Wheat and corn were still brought to Cincinnati, and milling and food industries prospered. Livestock and hogs were still raised and brought here, and they supplied the material for more food, packing, lard, soap, and leather industries. Thus we can see how the industrial Cincinnati of today has come by its general outline.

**Schools and Churches**

From its earliest days Cincinnati was known for the great attention its people paid to religion and education. The town had an ample number of churches and schools, housed at first in rude log structures, but later in brick and stone buildings, some of which are still standing.

All Cincinnatians agreed that there should be churches open to everyone, whether rich or poor. In the early days of the city, however, most people thought schools for poor children were unnecessary.

But there were a few men, such as Doctor Drake and Nathan Guilford, who believed that all people should have at least a common school education. Nathan Guilford, a lawyer from Massachusetts, believed strongly in free education. He talked of it so much that in time he interested enough Cincinnatians to elect him State senator. He soon influenced the Ohio legislature to pass a bill making free education compulsory for the State of Ohio. The law was passed in 1825, and in 1829 Cincinnati had free schools.

The first free public school stood somewhere between East Front and East Pearl Streets. At first it was not very popular. There were many parents who thought that their children could not learn so much in a free school as in a pay school. But those who at first had doubted and scoffed were soon sending their children to the free school, and in a short time the one small school was not enough.

Though there were no laws against child labor, and children were not forced to attend school, old records show that an unusual number of children went to school. At first no one had thought of free schools beyond the eighth grade, but soon plans were made for the establishment of a free high school, and in 1847 the Central High School was built.

William Woodward and Thomas Hughes, whose bequests established two Cincinnati high schools, Nathan Guilford, Doctor Drake, and the Beechers were only a few of the many people who helped give Cincinnati its present high standard of education. They did not leave so great an imprint on education as did the McGuffey brothers, William Holmes and Alexander.

Your grandparents can tell you all about the McGuffey Readers, little books of stories about children. These books were for many years the most widely used
FOURTH STREET AND BURNET HOUSE (1840's)
grammarschool books in America. William Holmes McGuffey lived in Cincinnati for a few years before and after he became associated with Miami University at Oxford in 1826. His brother, Alexander, dwelt here many years, and became the principal of Woodward High School.

Along about 1880 Joseph Heberle came penniless, friendless, and uneducated to Cincinnati from Germany. Heberle saw great numbers of children, who should have been in school, working long hours in factories. He saw that other children in school were too poor to buy their textbooks. He thought that such conditions should be ended. Heberle influenced public opinion to embrace his ideas. Largely because of Heberle, therefore, Cincinnati had free textbooks and compulsory attendance earlier than most cities. There is a monument to Joseph Heberle in Spring Grove Cemetery, but the one that he would perhaps like best, if he were alive, is the Heberle School, at Dayton, Freeman, and Bank Streets.

Thus it was largely because of interested citizens that Cincinnati's educational system grew and improved through the years, until today the public school system of the city is outstanding. The pupil of a hundred years ago would be amazed by the multitude and the variety of Cincinnati's schools today, and also by such subjects as stenography and electric welding which are taught.

The idea of free education did not stop with the high school. In 1858 a man by the name of Charles McMicken bequeathed money for a college, which in time became part of the University of Cincinnati. Today it is the largest university in the United States entirely supported by city funds. The university affords a wide variety of courses, and draws students from many States. The co-operative School of Engineering, so planned that a student may study a few weeks and then work for a time in an industry connected with his studies, is one of the few of its kind in the country.

The Arts

The literature of an age, it is often said, expresses the spirit of the age. One of Cincinnati's most famous authors, Harriet Beecher Stowe, expressed the spirit of the 1850's. Harriet Beecher (as her name was before she married Calvin E. Stowe) had come to Cincinnati in 1832 when she was a young woman. She lived here with her father, who was a professor at Lane Theological Seminary. In those days the question of slavery was hotly discussed in the seminaries and colleges. Some of the students and teachers at Lane Seminary thought it was a good thing, but most of them believed that everyone should be free in America, and that slavery should not be allowed in the South.

Harriet Beecher Stowe listened to what both sides had to say. She also went to see for herself how slaves lived. Some of them were treated very well, but many were handled brutally. Mrs. Stowe determined to do whatever she could to stop the torture and inhumanity. While in Cincinnati she collected much information about slavery.
After she left the city, Mrs. Stowe wrote a book, *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*, which told about the life of the slaves. Hundreds of thousands of people read her book, and it was famous all over the world. Abraham Lincoln read the volume and said it was one of the most powerful books he had ever read.

About the time when Mrs. Stowe was rousing the country to take action against slavery, there lived quietly on a farm near Cincinnati a clergyman who had two daughters, Alice and Phoebe Cary. Both girls liked to write little rimes even when they were children. They cultivated this talent, and after a few years became well-known poets.

The Cary sisters were popular because their poems contained simple ideas. They expressed what everyone thought. They did this with so much gracefulness, however, that people who read their poems said to themselves, “I have always thought this myself, but I could never say it as well as the Cary sisters have said it.”

The Clovernook Home for the Blind, in Mt. Healthy, is a far better reminder of the two sisters than their published works. Clovernook was their girlhood home, and the subject of one of their books. The two sisters were very sentimental about leaving home, and they often wrote about their desire to return to the farm where they grew up. But after they moved away from Cincinnati to New York they never came back. They found peace and quiet in religion.

Painters and sculpters came early to Cincinnati, and by the 1840’s the city was one of the art centers of America. As early as 1819 James Audubon lived here for a while, and he once taught the young ladies in a girls’ school how to draw and paint. Audubon became one of the best bird painters the world has ever had. He made pictures of many native American birds. Many reproductions of these paintings in color are in the Public Library.

Thomas Buchanan Read, who wrote the poem, “Sheridan’s Ride,” was here before the Civil War. He painted portraits, historical scenes, such as “De Soto Discovering the Mississippi,” and pictures of life in and about the city. A man named Beard did a picture called “The Long Bill.” It shows the inside of an old Cincinnati store as it looked in those days, with men sitting around a stove to keep warm. In the center is a man holding a long bill for all the merchandise he has bought. He is scratching his head. You can see this picture and others by Cincinnati artists at the Art Museum in Eden Park.

Important sculptors such as S. V. Clevenger, John Q. A. Ward, and Hiram Powers worked in Cincinnati. Hiram Powers was especially well-known. He carved his figures in the simple, classic style which was then fashionable, and made a statue, called “The Greek Slave,” which shocked many people at that time. He also shaped busts of George Washington and of Benjamin Franklin.

These men and others first established Cincinnati as an art center, and after the Civil War the Art Academy, with its great teachers, Frank Duveneck.
and Clement J. Barnhorn, ranked with those of New York and Philadelphia.

Music was an art which everyone could enjoy. In the early days of Cincinnati people sang at home much more than they do now. In the evening they would often gather in the sitting room, or living room, and sing hymns or other favorite songs, such as “Tannenbaum, O Tannenbaum,” “The Minstrel Boy,” “Rock of Ages,” “Flow Gently, Sweet Afton,” “Annie Laurie,” “Bringing in the Sheaves,” and “Home Sweet Home.”

They also sang many of the melodies of Stephen Collins Foster, who lived in Cincinnati in the 1850’s. He wrote some of his best songs while he was a clerk in a shipping office here—songs such as “Camptown Races,” “My Old Kentucky Home,” “Swanee River,” and “O Susanna.”

The older people often belonged to singing societies, many of which were begun by the Germans who had come to Cincinnati. A few good friends would gather at a tavern one or two evenings a week, sit around a table, and sing their best-loved songs. A club such as this was called a Liedertafel, or “song table.” Many of these singing groups had only six or eight members, but there were so many clubs that the lives of thousands of people were cheered by song. Singing is good fun, and the people who met to sing together often said, “Good songs make good citizens.”

These clubs so inspired Cincinnati with their enthusiasm that the city soon began to hold the Sängerfests (1849), or “festival of singers,” which led to the great May Festivals still held every two years. The activities of these people formed the nucleus around which many other famous musical institutions of our own day were created. The Cincinnati Conservatory of Music (1869), the College of Music (1878), and the Symphony Orchestra (1895) show that Cincinnati has loved, and still loves, good music.

**City Life**

In the days before the Civil War, people in Cincinnati lived in houses closely crowded together, and they lacked many modern conveniences. Families had to live near where the father of the home worked, for there were no streetcars in Cincinnati until 1859, when a company began to run horse-drawn cars over tracks on the city streets.

In the winter, homes were poorly heated. The stove in the kitchen and sometimes in the “sitting room” kept those rooms warm, but the rest of the house was usually damp and cold. People did not stay up late in the evening, for there were no electric lights. Everyone used oil lamps, which gave a smoky, unsteady light, and sometimes exploded. Windows were small, and they had many little square panes of glass.

Wealthier people lived in fine brick houses, often fronted with limestone.
Many of these sturdy old homes can still be seen along Fourth, Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Streets in the West End, but the people who lived in them have long since moved away to other parts of the city. If you ever see these houses, you will notice that they, too, are crowded closely together. They have tiny front yards, and there is sometimes no space at all between one house and the next.

Cincinnati boys and girls of a hundred years ago enjoyed many simple forms of recreation. Instead of going to the movies or to baseball and football games, they made their own diversions. The girls quilted bedspreads, hooked rag rugs, painted chinaware, and embroidered. The boys used to swim and fish in the Ohio or in the canal in summer, and skate on the ice in the winter.

In old Cincinnati only the main streets were paved; the others were dirt. In wet weather these roadways became thick, sticky mud; in the hot, dry summer they were dust heaps blowing into pedestrians' eyes, hair, and clothing whenever a carriage went by. To make matters worse, everyone threw garbage into the open street, and the drovers who brought hogs to Cincinnati from surrounding farms had to drive them right through the city. Often the Cincinnatian out for a walk almost collided with a drove of squealing, grunting pigs being herded down the street. The dirt and odor were very unpleasant, and finally the people passed laws which made the drovers take their pigs directly to slaughter-houses and stockyards without going through the streets where people lived and worked.

For many years people in Cincinnati kept cows which they would take out every morning to pasture in the surrounding fields. In the evening, at milking time, the cows would then come home. Strangers were perhaps surprised, early in the evening, to see the street gradually fill up with cattle straggling back to their stalls.

Amidst all this poor sanitation, disease spread rapidly. A mysterious illness called Asiatic Cholera, starting in India, came by way of Russia and England to America, and in the summer of 1832 spread to Cincinnati. People fell ill with cholera and died in a few hours—sometimes even before a doctor could come to examine them.

Hundreds of people died of the plague every month. No one knew what to do about it. One old Negro suggested that all water used for drinking and cooking should be boiled, and someone else thought that dead cats and rats should be removed from the streets and alleys. Many people tried to make money by selling useless "remedies," but others thought a clean-up campaign and a wholesome diet would help.

The cholera disappeared during the winter, but came back the next year. It was more than thirty years before cholera was stamped out; the last great epidemic in Cincinnati came in 1849. After the Civil War the dreaded typhoid fever compelled Cincinnati to pay more attention to sanitation and public health, and these diseases thereafter were rare in the city.
**Hotels and Visitors**

Early Cincinnati settlers waiting for their homes to be finished stayed at Griffin Yeatman’s tavern (1793), which soon became one of the most frequented places in the town. The ball room and dining room of Yeatman’s, and of the other taverns which were afterwards built, were the most popular places at which to eat, hold dances, go to concerts, or entertain friends.

As Cincinnati grew, it acquired more hotels. Some of them came to be showplaces of the city, where renowned visitors stayed, historic events took place, and the spirit of the city found full expression in good cooking and fine entertainment.

Two of the most famous hotels were the Burnet House and the Spencer House. The Burnet House, which stood on the northwest corner of Third and Vine Streets, was noted for its service, its decorations, and its food. Here Abraham Lincoln stood in 1860, speaking from a balcony to a large crowd gathered below him on Third Street. He was telling his listeners what he thought about slavery. He talked in a loud voice, and said he wanted it to be loud enough to carry across the river. “I want Kentuckians to hear me,” he declared. A few months later he was elected President of the United States.

When the Civil War broke out, this hotel became the Union military headquarters in the West. Here Generals William T. Sherman and Ulysses S. Grant met, and planned the campaign which brought the Civil War to an end and restored peace and unity to our country. The Burnet House stood until 1925, when it was torn down to make way for the annex to the Union Central Life Insurance Company Building.

The Spencer House, at the northwest corner of Front Street and Broadway, was as well-known as the Burnet House. Through the doors of the Spencer House passed the people who made the steamboat age colorful. Southern planters and Northern merchants, politicians and gamblers, singers and actors, princes and soldiers—all visited the Spencer House. Abraham Lincoln stayed at the Spencer House, and later President Andrew Johnson was given a lavish reception there. After the Civil War, the Spencer House was owned and operated for years by Charlotte Cushman, one of the greatest American actresses of her day. The decline of the steamboat and the moving of more well-to-do people away from the Basin into the surrounding hills brought a long, slow fall in the fortunes of the Spencer House. It was torn down in 1936, and the site of so much splendor is now occupied by a filling station.

Many important travelers came to Cincinnati after 1825, stayed in its hotels, and wrote about the people and the appearance of our city. One of these was Harriet Martineau, a strong-minded Englishwoman who was favorably impressed by the city. Another Englishwoman who came to Cincinnati was Mrs. Frances Trollope. She felt sorry for what she considered to be the poor, ignorant people in this country, and wanted to bring them some of the refinements of civilized life.
To do this, Mrs. Trollope built an elaborate store which she called The Bazaar. The people in Cincinnati called it Trollope's Folly. Cincinnati did not buy very much from Mrs. Trollope, and she was highly disappointed. After a few years she went back to England, and wrote a book called *Domestic Manners of the Americans*. In this book she told some things about America which were unpleasant but true, and other things which were unpleasant but not true.

A third famous traveler who came to Cincinnati was Charles Dickens. We know him chiefly as the author of *David Copperfield*, *Oliver Twist*, and *A Christmas Carol*, the story about Scrooge; but he also wrote about America. When Dickens came to this country in 1842 he did not like it either, but he was a little more good-natured than Mrs. Trollope. He liked Cincinnati, and left a pleasant description of it in his book, *American Notes*:

> Cincinnati is a beautiful city; cheerful, thriving, and animated. I have not often seen a place that commends itself so favourably and pleasantly to a stranger at the first glance as this does: with its clean houses of red and white, its well-paved roads, and foot-ways of bright tile. Nor does it become less prepossessing on a closer acquaintance. The streets are broad and airy, the shops extremely good, the private residences remarkable for their elegance and neatness. There is something of invention and fancy in the varying styles of these latter erections, which, after the dull company of the steamboat, is perfectly delightful, as conveying an assurance that there are such qualities still in existence. The disposition to ornament these pretty villas and render them attractive leads to the culture of trees and flowers, and the laying out of well kept gardens, the sight of which, to those who walk along the streets, is inexpressibly refreshing and agreeable. I was quite charmed with the appearance of the town, and with its adjoining suburb of Mount Auburn; from which the city, lying in an amphitheatre of hills, forms a picture of remarkable beauty, and is seen to great advantage.

Dickens also described Cincinnati schools which he visited while he was here. You can read about them in his book, *American Notes*, and compare the schools of that time with our own.

Many other famous men and women visited Cincinnati and left their accounts of the city—Lafayette, who helped us win our independence; Charles Lyell, great English geologist; Louis Kossuth, romantic Hungarian patriot; and the Prince of Wales, who afterwards became King Edward VII of England.

In later years, when Cincinnati was no longer the largest city in the West, visitors continued to come, though there were not so many as before. The beauty of Cincinnati's natural setting, however, was unchanged, and when Winston Churchill, the novelist, came to Cincinnati in 1932, he was surprised at the charm of its topography.
New Landmarks

After the Civil War Cincinnati began to look more like the city we live in today. Between 1869 and 1872 the city spread very quickly over the hills. Instead of being crowded in the Basin, people began to move out where there was more sunshine and fresh air. In those four years Mt. Auburn, Corryville, Camp Washington, Fairmount, Clifton Heights, East Walnut Hills, Mt. Lookout, and many other communities were added to Cincinnati. In 1871 the Tyler Davidson fountain was set down on Fountain Square; in 1875 the Zoo was opened; and in 1878 Music Hall was completed. The first incline, built to Mt. Auburn in 1872, was so successful that other inclines were soon constructed to Mt. Adams, Price Hill, Bellevue, and Fairview. Today only two of these inclines are still in use.

In some thirty or forty years after the end of the Civil War, Cincinnati became even more important than before as an art and music center. Unfortunately, the same fine things can scarcely be said of political life in Cincinnati during the half-century after 1865. Shortly after the Civil War, Cincinnati was governed by unscrupulous people. Once in a while public-spirited citizens would object and start a reform movement. In the past twenty years civic-minded citizens have been successful in remedying this unhappy condition of Cincinnati’s government. Now in its public life, as well as in art and music, Cincinnati is famous among American cities. It has earned the title, “the best-governed city” in America.

Cincinnati has come through many years to gain its fine institutions and government. In the past it has won good fame and then lost it when people took little interest in its doings. Whether or not the Cincinnati of tomorrow will continue to be a fine, strong city depends upon the children who are in our schools today. By exploring the tradition of their city, appreciating its beauty and advantages, and taking an active part in its civic life, they may make the future Cincinnati even greater than the Cincinnati of today.