Rural Historic Structural Survey
of
Reed Township
Will County, Illinois

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for
Will County Land Use Department
and
Will County Historic Preservation Commission

Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc.

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Executive Summary

At the request of the Will County Land Use Department, acting as liaison for the Will County Historic Preservation Commission, Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc. (WJE) has prepared this summary report of the 2010 intensive survey of farmsteads in Reed Township in Will County, Illinois. The survey included approximately twelve square miles with 24 farmsteads and related sites containing more than 107 individual structures.

Of the 24 farmsteads and other sites identified in the current survey, two sites have the potential to be considered for Will County Historic Landmark designation. One of these sites is located within the incorporated limits of the City of Braidwood. In some cases, the landmark eligibility of a farmstead site would be enhanced if certain historic features were restored or non-historic cladding materials such as vinyl siding were removed. Other sites have either been designated Contributing, which means in the context of this report that they retain their overall character as historically agricultural sites but lack individual distinction; or Non-contributing, which indicates that the site lacks sufficient integrity to present the theme of agricultural history in the survey region. Due to the limited historic agricultural use of this township and the disruption caused by historic strip mining of coal, no potential historic districts have been identified as part of the present survey.

The Reed Township intensive survey was performed to update the previous survey of the township performed in 1988. In the previous survey, 18 farmsteads and related sites were identified in the township, containing at least 235 structures. Because of the rapid pace of contemporary development in Will County from the early 1990s to the financial crisis and recession of 2008–2009, the Will County Historic Preservation Commission recognized the need to reassess the agricultural heritage of the region. WJE has previously completed eleven intensive survey projects in fourteen of the County's twenty-four townships covering Wheatland–Plainfield–Lockport, Du Page, Homer, New Lenox, Green Garden, Manhattan, Frankfort, Joliet–Troy, Channahon, Wilmington, and Jackson Townships. Copies of the previous survey reports were provided to public libraries and respective governing agencies in the area. Concurrently with the work in Reed Township, Custer Township was surveyed and the survey project in Florence Township was begun. Cumulatively, the surveys have documented almost 6,000 structures on more than 1,350 sites over approximately 610 square miles of Will County. Performing a separate survey for each township has allowed more detailed information to be collected, such as individual photographs of each historic structure, an assessment of current conditions, and preparation of site sketch plans. With the permission of property owners, the survey work was performed with close-up access to the buildings, which allowed for close range photography and a reliable identification of building materials. The survey data was compiled and analyzed using database software and geographic information system (GIS) software.

In this report, Chapter 1 contains a description of the project methodology. Chapters 2 and 3 provide the historical and architectural context within which the surveyed farmsteads were established, grew, were reconfigured, and in some cases were abandoned. Chapter 2 covers the historical context of Will County agriculture, as well as the historical development of Reed Township. Chapter 3 discusses the architectural context of the rural survey area. Chapter 4 summarizes the survey results and includes a discussion of the National Register and Will County criteria for designation of historical and architectural significance. Also in Chapter 4 are several tabulations of the survey results and an overview of a select number of historically and/or architecturally significant farmsteads. A bibliography of research sources follows the text. Appendices include historic and contemporary plat maps for Reed Township, and maps developed for this report to present the results of the survey and research.

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

Background

At the request of the Will County Land Use Department, acting as liaison for the Will County Historic Preservation Commission, Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc. (WJE) has prepared this summary report of the intensive survey of farmsteads in Reed Township in Will County, Illinois. A previous survey of farmsteads in Will County was performed in 1988. Beginning in 1999, WJE has prepared intensive surveys of individual townships in Will County. Previous townships surveyed included Plainfield, Wheatland, and Lockport (completed November 2000), Du Page (November 2001), Homer (November 2002), New Lenox (August 2003), Green Garden (July 2004), Manhattan (September 2006), Frankfort (December 2007), Joliet and Troy (April 2009), Channahon (April 2009), Jackson (December 2009), and Wilmington (December 2009). Concurrently with the field survey work in Reed Township, similar field survey work was performed in Custer Township. Also, field survey work and report preparation for Florence Township is now in progress.

The objectives of the study are to provide comprehensive information on all historic rural structures located in the area; to assess the eligibility of rural districts or individual buildings for designation as local landmarks or nomination to the National Register of Historic Places; to inventory the existing structures in the area for future study; to provide background on significant architectural styles and rural structure types common to the area; and to provide background history of the development of the area. The present study has been developed to meet the requirements and standards of the Certified Local Government program.

Survey Methodology

Unlike previous townships surveyed by WJE, the study of Reed Township was performed in two phases due to funding limitations. The Phase 1 scope of work included field survey of Reed Township, photographic documentation, preliminary baseline mapping, preliminary assessment of historic significance, and preparation of draft individual property survey forms. The survey forms included the results of the field survey only; historical information was left blank for the Phase 1 submittal. Phase 1 was completed in August 2010. The Phase 2 scope of work included historical research, revision of the property survey forms to include historical information, revised assessment of historic significance, revision of mapping, preparation of this narrative summary report, and preparation of archival quality submittals.

Survey Team

The project team from WJE consisted of Kenneth Itle, Michael Ford, Timothy Penich, Gregory Dowell, and Deborah Slaton. Mr. Itle served as Project Manager and performed historical research, developed the summary report, and performed some field survey work. Mr. Ford, Mr. Penich, and Mr. Dowell performed the majority of the field survey work and assisted with historical research. Ms. Slaton was the reviewer of the summary report.

Background Research

Background research was performed at the State of Illinois Library in Springfield, the University of Illinois Libraries, the Joliet Public Library, the Wilmington Public Library, the Fossil Ridge Public Library, and the Coal City Public Library. In addition, extensive historic research materials compiled for previous Will County rural survey reports were available.

Field Survey

Work on the rural survey began in May 2010. A project initiation meeting was held to discuss the project approach and scope. The previous 1988 survey and historic aerial photography of the township dating to 1939 were reviewed to identify historic and existing farmstead sites. Intensive field survey work was performed in Reed Township in June and July 2010. The survey team first approached the primary residence on the site to request permission of the homeowner/tenant to conduct the survey on the farmstead site. At sites where no one was home, or where owner permission was not provided, the site was surveyed from the public right-of-way. Typically each structure on the site was photographed individually using a digital camera. A sketch plan of the farmstead was prepared. Written notes for each building included a listing of exterior materials, overall condition, and estimated decade of construction based on structural type and style. Any history information provided by the owner, such as dates of construction or names of original owners, was also noted.

Database and Base Map Preparation

Mapping for the survey was prepared using ArcGIS.[1] Baseline mapping showing railways, streams, township boundaries, etc., as well as 2005 aerial photography of the survey area, was downloaded from the Illinois Natural Resources Geospatial Data Clearinghouse internet site.[2] Additional baseline data showing roads and municipal boundaries was provided by the Will County Land Use Department. Updated 2008 aerial photography was also provided by the Will County Land Use Department for reference during the project. Individual points were added to the baseline map at the location of each farmstead site surveyed. Each point represents a particular record in the Microsoft Access database. The database contains all field survey information; historical information specific to each property, such as names of previous owners based on historic atlases and plat maps; and the assessment of historic significance. On the database forms, the "notes" field typically contains other miscellaneous observations of the project team from the field work. Occasionally, this field contains verbal information from the resident or another source; these are so noted.

Prior to inserting the digital photographs into the database, the photograph files were converted from color .jpg files to reduced-size black-and-white .bmp files. The Microsoft Access database was used to generate the property lists included in this summary report, as well as the individual survey forms. The ArcGIS software was used to generate the maps of the survey area included in the appendix.

Report and Submittals

This summary report was prepared using Microsoft Word. Will County will be provided with the following final materials under separate cover: printed copies of the final summary report; printed copies of the individual property survey forms; digital photographs as original color .jpg files; ArcGIS mapping files; Microsoft Access database file; survey sheets as .pdf file; and report text as Microsoft Word file and .pdf file.

Survey Gaps and Future Research

The present study is not meant to be a definitive review of the history of each property surveyed; rather, based on historic research and field survey, the relative significance of each property has been assessed. In the future, as new development or renovation work may affect particular properties, the history and significance of the particular property should be researched in detail, using the present survey as a starting point.

A detailed survey of the historic urbanized core of the City of Braidwood was beyond the scope of this rural historic structures survey. The city likely contains surviving structures dating to the coal mining

[1] ArcGIS is one brand of GIS software. GIS stands for geographic information system, a computerized methodology for organizing data geographically.

[2] <www.isgs.uiuc.edu/nsdihome/>

boom of the late nineteenth century, and existing documentation of the historic resources of the city is limited.

The present study focused on architectural features of the survey region, limited to the traditionally rural portions of the township outside the developed core of Braidwood. Other studies could be undertaken to assess the archaeological potential of the survey region; to identify and assess cultural landscape features such as fence rows, hedges, and earthworks; to study historic transportation infrastructure and routes in detail (such as the U.S. Route 66 corridor); or to study particular historical themes, such as physical remnants of previous coal mining, in greater detail. The present study also is focused on built structures of the historic period rather than archaeological sites. Pending further study, Reed Township may contain resources that would be eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion D for archeology.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT HISTORY OF THE RURAL SURVEY AREA

Geologic and Topographic Background to the Illinois Region

As with most of Illinois, the survey area was profoundly altered by glaciation. Over approximately one million years during the Pleistocene era, the northern hemisphere was alternately covered by, and free of, large ice sheets that were hundreds to a few thousand feet thick. Pleistocene glaciers and the waters melting from them changed the landscapes they covered. The ice scraped and smeared the landforms it overrode, leveling and filling many of the minor valleys and even some of the larger ones. Moving ice carried colossal amounts of rock and earth, for much of what the glaciers wore off the ground was kneaded into the moving ice and carried along, often for hundreds of miles.

A significant feature left by the advance and retreat of glaciers in the northeast corner of the state are glacial moraines—low mounds several miles long left by the furthest advance of glaciers in the Wisconsinan period. Reed Township lies to the west of the Valparaiso Morainic System in the valley of Lake Wauponsee. The last ice sheets in this area began to retreat approximately 13,500 years ago. During the glacial period, much of Reed Township was inundated by meltwater collected into Lake Wauponsee. Lake Wauponsee was impounded by glacial moraines to the south but drained through a narrow gap in the moraines near the present-day city of Kankakee. The resulting Kankakee Torrent formed the Kankakee River valley and deposited sand, gravel, boulders, and rubble along the valley as well as exposing outcroppings of bedrock. Unlike much of Will County, which has soils derived from glacial till, the soils in Reed Township are formed primarily from the glacial outwash. Some of these outwash soil types have limitations for agriculture. Thin, stony soils on near-surface bedrock can be difficult to work, and sandy soils may be over-drained and drought-prone.[3]

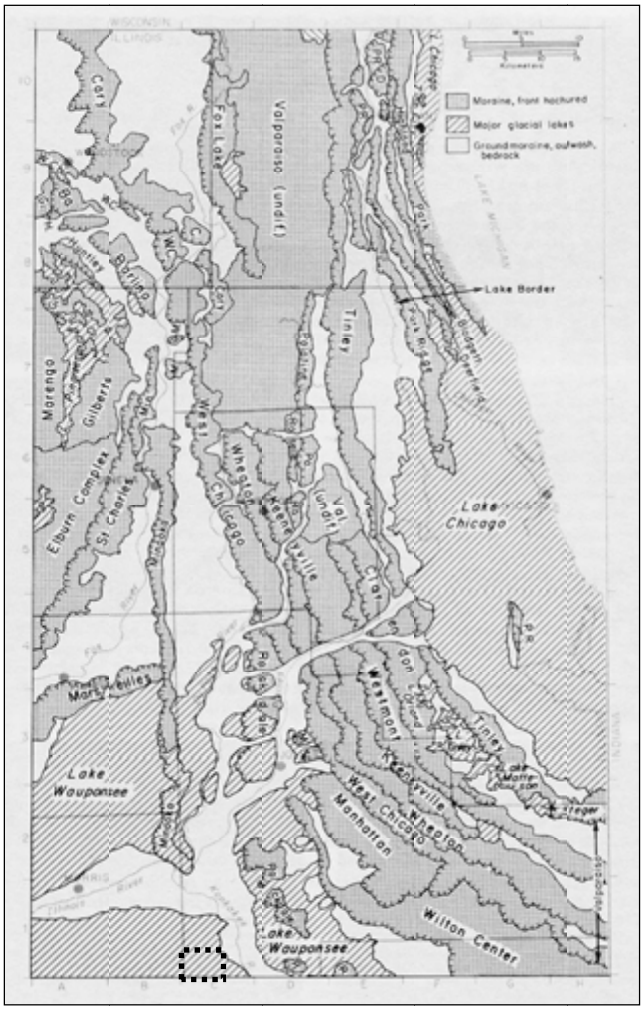
Reed Township is in the watershed of the Kankakee River, but much of the township is poorly drained. The township is at the high point of a number of small, unnamed watercourses and streams that flow generally eastward into the Kankakee River. (To the west, similar small streams arising in Braceville Township in Grundy County flow generally westward into the Mazon River.) The Kankakee River arises near South Bend, Indiana, and flows 130 miles, heading southwest to Aroma Park, Illinois, and then turning abruptly northwest, ultimately reaching the Illinois River. The Kankakee River basin includes 3,125 square miles in Indiana and 2,155 square miles in Illinois, encompassing most of Iroquois and Kankakee Counties as well as the southern half of Will County. Its largest tributary, the Iroquois River, joins the Kankakee at Aroma Park in Kankakee County. The Kankakee River lies almost entirely on bedrock, with a major bedrock outcropping creating a sharp fall at Momence, Illinois.

The natural drainage pattern of the township has been greatly disrupted by historic coal mining activities, especially strip mining in sections 4 and 9 as well as much of the southern half of the township. At the conclusion of strip mining activities, soil piles were left behind, forming numerous small parallel ridges with low-lying areas between them. Low lying areas collected water and evolved into wetland areas, while woody plant growth colonized the ridges. Portions of sections 4 and 9 have been subsequently re-graded for development, but much of the land in this area remains as an overgrown landscape used for recreation. Most of the strip mined areas of in the southern half of the township (except section 33) were reconfigured in the 1970s to create a relatively shallow cooling lake for the Braidwood Generating Station; this lake is separated from natural drainage channels by earthen dams. Sections 5, 6, 7, and 8 now drain northward into the Claypool Ditch, a coal-mining era water feature, which flows west to join a natural stream draining to the Mazon River.

[3] *Kankakee River Basin Study: A Comprehensive Plan for Water Resource Development* (Springfield: Illinois Bureau of Water Resources, 1967), 2–8.

First Nations in the Illinois Region

Human habitation of the North American continent from the Paleo-Indian culture has been dated to the end of the last glacial advance (about 15,000 to 12,000 years ago). Increasing warmth toward the close of the Pleistocene Era caused the melting and disappearance of the ice sheet in approximately 9000 B.C. The arrival of the First Nations, or Native Americans, in the region between the middle Mississippi Valley and Lake Michigan appears to date from the earliest period following the retreat of the polar ice sheet. This time is known as the Paleo-Indian Period, when peoples in the region briefly occupied campsites while subsisting on deer, small mammals, nuts, and wild vegetables and other plants.



Illustrated above are the moraine systems in northeastern Illinois. Reed Township lies west of the Valparaiso Morainic System in the Lake Wauponsee outwash area. (H.B. Willman, Summary of the Geology of the Chicago Area*, Illinois State Geological Survey Circular 460 (Urbana, Illinois, 1971), 43.)*

The first signs of specific colonization date from the Archaic Period, prior to 1000 B.C., when deer hunting and wild plant gathering supported a dispersed population. As climatic conditions changed over the next several thousand years, populations tended to concentrate near river floodplains and adjacent areas. In the Woodland Period (1000 B.C. to A.D. 1000), crude grit-tempered pottery appeared in northeastern Illinois. The end of this period saw the advent of large fortified towns with platform mounds, such as the community at Cahokia located east of St. Louis. Further north, villages in the upper Illinois

River Valley lacked large platform mounds.[4] It was also a period of a widespread trading network known to modern anthropology as the Hopewell Interaction Sphere. The villages of this period were typically located on valley bottom lands, close to river transportation. Agricultural development included cultivation of floodplain lands; by A.D. 650 maize was being grown in the Illinois River Valley.[5]

The time span between A.D. 1000 and the coming of European explorers and settlers is known as the Mississippian Period. Northeast Illinois was at the fringe of the larger Middle Mississippi culture present in central and southern Illinois. At the beginning of this period, the communities of large fortified towns and ceremonial platform mounds reached their zenith. Known sites are often within a short distance of the Kankakee River.

Relatively little archeological investigation has been performed in Reed Township, although a number of small, unidentified prehistoric sites were surveyed in the 1970s, mainly in sections 17, 18, 19, and 30 (these studies may have been performed in conjunction with the development of the Braidwood Generating Station). One site, known only to be a habitation site associated with the Woodland period, was identified in section 16 in 1978.[6]

The Arrival of European Settlers

French Explorers and Settlers in the Illinois Territory

By the time of the French explorations of the seventeenth century, the native inhabitants of Illinois as a group belonged to the Algonquian linguistic family, closely related to the Chippewa. The specific tribes in the northeast Illinois region included the Miami (located on sites near the Calumet River, the juncture of the Des Plaines and Kankakee Rivers, and the Fox River) and the Illinois (present throughout the rest of modern-day Illinois). "Illinois" was a native word signifying "men" or "people."[7] By the early to mid-1700s, the Potawatomi moved into the area from the region of Michigan and northern Wisconsin.

In 1673, the expedition of Father Jacques Marquette and Louis Jolliet traveled primarily along the Mississippi River and up the Illinois River to the region of Cook and Will Counties.[8] This expedition claimed the region for France. In 1678, an expedition led by Robert de La Salle with Henry Tonti and Father Louis Hennepin explored the region along the Mississippi River and adjacent territory on behalf of France. A Jesuit mission was established at Chicago in 1696 by Father Pierre Pinet, but it failed to last more than a year. As time progressed the French centered their principal activities in the middle Mississippi valley, focusing on Fort de Chartres near Kaskaskia and its connections with Québec via the

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[4] Several Woodland sites are present in the river valleys of the Des Plaines and Du Page Rivers. See John Doershuk, *Plenemuk Mound and the Archaeology of Will County,* Illinois Cultural Resource Study No. 3 (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, 1988), 11–14.

[5] James E. Davis, *Frontier Illinois* (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1998), 25. "The Late Woodland is a period of increasing dependence on corn agriculture, although northeastern Illinois groups appear less corn-dependent than do central and lower Illinois River valley peoples." (Doershuk, *Plenemuk Mound and the Archaeology of Will County,* 13–14.)

[6] John Doershuk, *Plenemuk Mound and the Archaeology of Will County,* Illinois Cultural Resource Study No. 3 (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, 1988), 78, 83.

[7] John R. Swanton, *The Indian Tribes of North America* (1952, Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin Number 145; reprint, Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1969), 241.

[8] Louis Jolliet was born at Beauport, near Québec, in September 1645. He began to study at the Jesuit College of Québec in 1655 and in 1662 he received minor religious orders from Bishop Laval. After leaving the seminary and becoming a fur trader, he gained proficiency in surveying and mapmaking. Jolliet was chosen by the government of France to be a member of a delegation meeting with the chieftains of the Indian tribes assembled at Sault Sainte Marie in 1671. Beginning the next year, Jolliet led an expedition down the Mississippi, during which he traveled up the Illinois and Des Plaines Rivers. During this expedition he surmised that digging a canal to connect the waterways in this region would allow transportation from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. The Illinois and Michigan Canal constructed in the 1830s and 1840s was the realization of this route.

Ohio, Maumee, and Wabash Rivers and the Great Lakes, well to the south and east of the upper Illinois Valley.

During this period, the Native Americans were undergoing migrations, often leading to conflict among the various tribes. The Sauk, Fox, Kickapoo, and Potawatomi displaced the Miami and Illinois in the Chicago region. The Potawatomi, followed by the Sauk and the Fox, were the predominant peoples in the northeastern Illinois by the later 1700s. Also present in the region were the Winnebago and the Shawnee.[9]

French colonial settlers in the southern and central portions of Illinois brought with them traditional agricultural practices from northern France, including open-field plowlands divided into longlots, and communal pasturing areas.[10] However, unlike labor practices in France, colonial settlers utilized African slaves. By the middle of the eighteenth century, black slaves comprised one-third of the region's population.

Early settlements founded as missions and fur trading posts, such as Cahokia and Kaskaskia, developed into the core of agricultural communities.[11] French colonial farms produced wheat for human consumption and maize as feed for hogs. A staple of the settlers' diet was wheat bread. Livestock for use as dairy production, meat consumption, and draft animals were also present on the region's farms. The open field agriculture system continued in use beyond the era of French domination, and ended only with the influx of settlers from the east coast after 1800.[12]

Illinois in the English Colonial Period and Revolutionary War

Land ownership was not an original right when the Virginia Company settled Jamestown in 1607. The company owned the land and paid its employees for their labor in food and supplies out of a common storehouse, limiting their motivation to farm. After a period of starvation that nearly wiped out the settlement, the company gave each employee an incentive of a three acre garden, which led to regular land distribution consisting of a fifty acre "headright."[13]

French influence in the Illinois territory began to wane by the mid-1700s. Québec on the St. Lawrence River fell to the British in September 1759 during the French and Indian War, opening a route through the Great Lakes to the middle part of the continent. In 1763, the French ceded land east of the Mississippi to the British. In October 1765, the British took possession of Fort Chartres (and briefly renamed it Fort Cavendish), extending British authority across the continent east of the Mississippi River. Unchallenged British control of the Illinois region lasted until the Revolutionary War. In 1778, at the direction of the Governor of Virginia, George Rogers Clark led an expedition against the British and captured their posts in the frontier northwest. Clark marched across southern Illinois, and by July 1778 had disarmed the British-held frontier forts of Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Vincennes, claiming the region for the newly independent American colonies.

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[9] Jean L. Herath, *Indians and Pioneers: A Prelude to Plainfield, Illinois* (Hinckley, Illinois: The Hinckley Review, 1975), 20–21.

[10] Carl J. Ekberg, *French Roots in the Illinois Country: The Mississippi Frontier in Colonial Times* (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1998), 2–3. "Longlots" are, as the name implies, long narrow plots of cultivated land that developed because of the difficulty for plowing teams to turn around. Forms of longlots date back to ancient Mesopotamia; French colonial forms developed from Medieval European models. The longlots in Illinois typically had length to width ratios of 10 to 1.

[11] Ibid., 33.

[12] Ibid., 173–251.

[13] John Opie, *The Law of the Land: Two Hundred Years of Farm Policy* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1994), 19.

Land Division and Distribution in the New Nation

When land claims of several of the newly independent states overlapped, the United States Congress, under the Articles of Confederation, struggled to maintain control over the territory extending to the Mississippi River. After making all land west of the Pennsylvania Line to the Mississippi River common national property, a system of land division was developed based on meridians and base lines, which were subdivided further into a series of rectangular grids. In the "Rectangular System," distances and bearing were measured from two sets of lines that are at right angles to each other: the Principal Meridians, which run north and south, and the Base Lines, which run east and west. Subdividing lines called Range Lines are spaced at six mile intervals between the meridians and base lines. Range Lines defined territories known as townships.[14]

On May 20, 1785, Congress adopted this system as the Land Survey Ordinance of 1785. (Eventually, frontier settlers west of Pennsylvania and north of Texas could walk up to a plat map on the wall of a regional land office and select a one quarter section property for farming, which was thought to be sufficient to sustain individual farmers.[15]) In 1787, after about twenty months of surveying work, the first national public land sales occurred, consisting of 72,934 acres with $117,108.22 in revenue.[16] Also in that year, the Ordinance of 1787 organized the Northwest Territory, including what would become Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin.

After the ratification of the new United States Constitution, land legislation was not addressed for several years. Meanwhile, settlement continued on the portions already surveyed and sold by the government, and extended into unsurveyed land with settlement by squatters (many of whom were later evicted by federal troops). Additional federal land sales took place in 1796, and in 1800 the government opened land offices in Cincinnati, Chillicothe, Marietta, and Steubenville, all in Ohio.

Development of the Northwest Territory

In 1801, Illinois, then part of the Northwest Territory, became part of the Indiana Territory. Eight years later the Illinois Territory was formed, including the region of Wisconsin. By 1800, fewer than 5,000 settlers lived in the territorial region, with most located in the southern portion of what became Illinois along the Mississippi, Ohio, and Wabash Rivers. The northern portion of the state was more sparsely populated, as European settlers did not begin to enter this area until the early years of the 1800s.

At this time, the Native American tribe leader Tecumseh organized the tribes of the Northwest Territory against European settlers. Although defeated in the Battle of Tippecanoe of 1811, Tecumseh remained active throughout the War of 1812 and aided British forces in capturing many European-settled areas. These reverted to American control at the end of the war. A series of treaties with Native American populations influenced the future of northeast Illinois. In 1795, a peace treaty with Native Americans included the ceding of "one piece of land, six miles square, at the mouth of the Chicago River, emptying

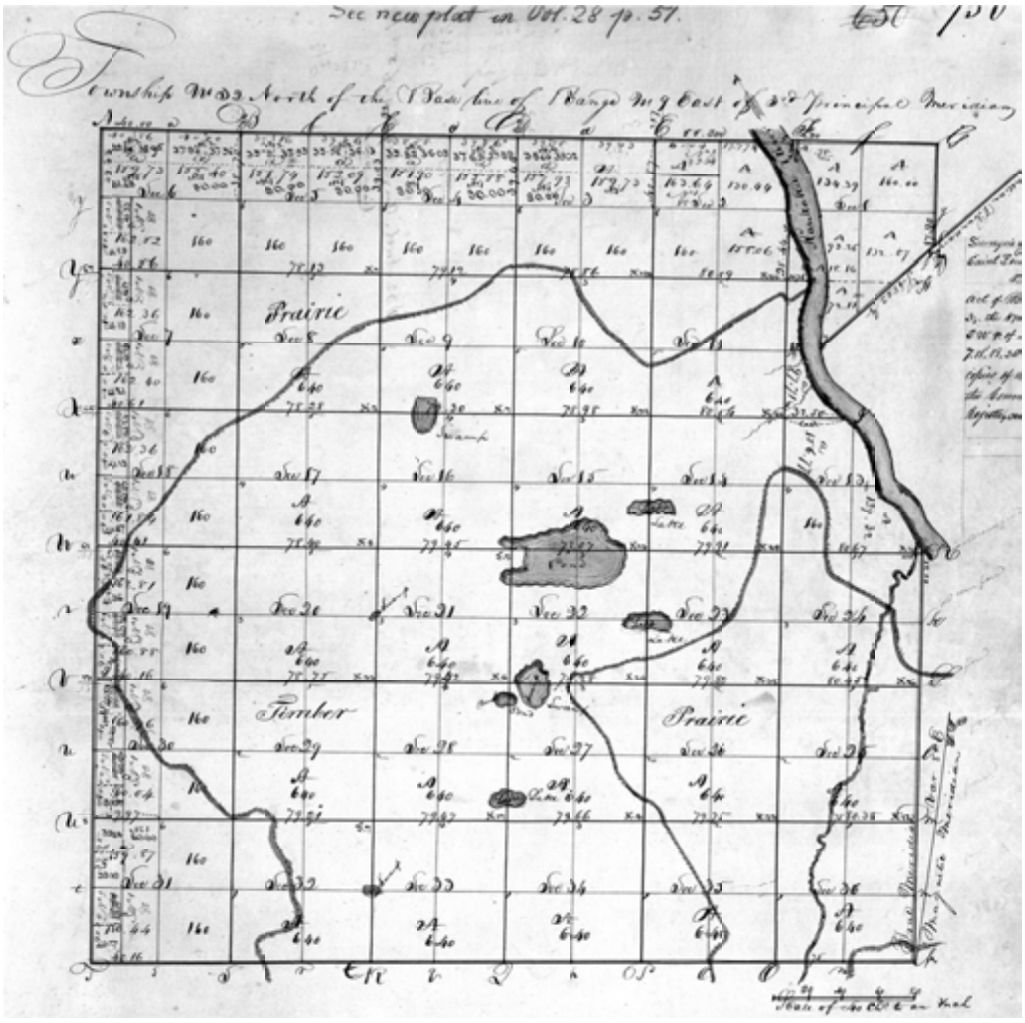
[14] Townships were the largest subdivision of land platted by the United States. After the township corners were located, the section and quarter section corners were established. Each township was six miles square and contained 23,040 acres, or 36 square miles, as nearly as possible to fit specific geographic conditions such as lakes and rivers, political boundaries such as state boundaries, as well as survey errors. Each township, unless irregular in shape due to the factors cited above, was divided into 36 squares called sections. These sections were intended to be one mile, or 320 rods, square and contain 640 acres of land. Sections were numbered consecutively from 1 to 36, utilizing the same criss-cross numbering pattern on each section regardless of national location or actual township configuration. Sections were subdivided into various smaller parcels for individual farms. A half section contains 320 acres; a quarter section contains 160 acres; half of a quarter contains 80 acres, and quarter of a quarter contains 40 acres, and so on. Today, legal descriptions of real estate continue to describe parcels according to the portion of the section within which they are located.

[15] Opie, *The Law of the Land,* 10.

[16] Ibid., 15.

into the southwest end of Lake Michigan, where a fort formerly stood."[17] It was on this land that Fort Dearborn was established in 1803, where a settlement of French traders and their Native American wives developed. The site grew initially from the fur trade, and despite the Fort Dearborn Massacre of 1812, more settlers came to the area.

Cutting across the western half of the region later known as Will County was a land corridor ceded by the Potawatomi, Ottawa, and Chippewa in a treaty signed in St. Louis on August 24, 1816. The corridor, defined by the cartographic features now known as the Indian Boundary Lines (and still present on many maps of the area), was meant to allow European settlers access to Lake Michigan for the construction of a waterway (later developed as the Illinois and Michigan Canal). The corridor was physically surveyed by James M. Duncan and T. C. Sullivan in 1819; its southern boundary was defined by a line drawn from a point on the shore of Lake Michigan ten miles south of the Chicago River, to a point on the Kankakee River ten miles north of its mouth.[18] Since Reed Township lies entirely on the left bank of the Kankakee River, it was not included within the canal corridor.



The original plat map of Reed Township, prepared in 1821. Stands of timber alternate with open prairie in the township. The flat lands of the township were poorly drained, resulting in frequent small ponds and swamps. Note Indian Boundary Line indicated on right bank of Kankakee River.

[17] As quoted by A.T. Andreas in his *History of Chicago, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time* (Chicago: A.T. Andreas, 1884), 79.
[18] *Will County Property Owners, 1842* (Joliet, Illinois: Will County Historical Society, 1973), 1.

Illinois Statehood

The United States Congress passed an enabling act on April 18, 1818 admitting Illinois as the twenty-first state as of December 3, 1818. A bill had passed Congress in early 1818 moving the northern boundary northward to include the mouth of the Chicago River within the Illinois Territory.[19] The statehood act was approved despite the fact that the population of the state was only 40,258 persons, less than the 60,000 persons required by the Ordinance of 1787. The state capital was established first at Kaskaskia and moved to Vandalia two years later. Much of the land in the state was the property of the United States government. Early sales offices were located at Kaskaskia, Shawneetown, and Vincennes. Until the financial panic of 1819, there was an initial rush of sales and settlement at the southern end of the state where navigable streams and the only road system were located.[20]

The Native Americans who occupied the area were divided into powerful tribes who at times fought the European settlers to hold their hunting grounds. Chief among these tribes was the Kickapoo, who were among the first to engage in war with European settlers and the last to enter into treaties with the United States government. On July 30, 1819, by the Treaty at Edwardsville, the Kickapoo ceded their land to United States and began to retreat to Osage County. By 1822, only 400 Kickapoo were left in the state. The 1832 Peace Treaty of Tippecanoe was negotiated with the Potawatomi tribe, resulting in the ceding of the land now occupied by Chicago and Joliet to the federal government.

The early 1830s saw the greatest land boom to that date in American history. Land sales gradually came under the control of the General Land Office as the survey moved westward. In 1834 and 1835 alone, twenty-eight million acres were shifted from closed to open land for purchase. Two years later the Van Buren administration placed an enormous 56,686,000 acres on the market. These lands were located in some of the most fertile farming regions of the nation: Illinois, Iowa, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Missouri.[21] The building of the Illinois and Michigan Canal in the later 1830s and 1840s (discussed in Chapter 2) led to a land boom in Chicago, which had been platted in 1830 and incorporated in 1833.[22] The rate of growth in northern Illinois soon matched and then surpassed that in the southern portion of the state.

[19] The northern boundary of the Illinois Territory was on an east-west line from the southern line of Lake Michigan. In order to give the future state a portage on Lake Michigan, the boundary line was moved ten miles north of the initial boundary. The Congressional legislation was amended before passage, moving the future state's northern boundary a total of fifty-one miles north. This gave the region more potential economic security as well as less potential for the area to align politically with the slave states of the South.

[20] Olin Dee Morrison, *Prairie State, A History: Social, Political, Economical* (Athens, Ohio: E. M. Morrison, 1960), 24–25.

[21] Ibid., 51.

[22] Between 1840 and 1860 the population of Chicago increased from 4,470 to nearly 100,000. This rapid population growth accompanied the economic boom resulting from the opening of the Illinois and Michigan Canal. By 1890, Chicago's population was more than 1,000,000 persons (Harry Hansen, ed., *Illinois: A Descriptive and Historical Guide* (New York: Hastings House Publishers, 1974), 176–83).

Settlement and Development of Northeast Illinois

By 1826, more European settlers began to move to the northeast Illinois region, so that by 1831 a few hamlets were present between LaSalle and Chicago. Also present in the region was a tribe of nearly 1,000 Potawatomi in the area along the Du Page River south of what would become Plainfield.[23] At the beginning of the Black Hawk War in 1832, the largest settlement north of the Illinois River (except for Chicago) was on Bureau Creek, where there were about thirty families. A few other settlers had located along the river at Peru and LaSalle, and at Ottawa. At Walker's Grove or Plainfield, there were twelve or fifteen families.[24] Along the Du Page River, partially located in the region that would become Will County in 1836, there were about twenty families. In Yankee settlements, which embraced part of the towns of Homer, Lockport and New Lenox, there were twenty or twenty-five families. Along the Hickory in the town of New Lenox there were approximately twenty more families, and at the Reed's and Jackson Grove there were six or eight more.[25]

In 1832, a band of Sauk Indians led by Black Sparrow Hawk resisted their deportation by European settlers from their ancestral lands. Although most of the fighting occurred in the Rock River area in Northwest Illinois and southern Wisconsin, an Indian panic swept through Will County settlements. The settlers in Walker's Grove together with about twenty-five fugitives from the Fox River area hurriedly constructed a stockade from the logs of Stephen Begg's pigpen, outbuildings, and fences ("Fort Beggs"). The prospect of engaging Indians in pitched battle from the confines of "Fort Beggs" prompted the settlers to leave the makeshift stockade in favor of Fort Dearborn in Chicago. Meanwhile homesteaders in the eastern Will County area gathered at the Gougar homestead and decided to flee to Indiana.[26]

Also in 1832, northwest Will County was the scene of an epidemic of smallpox among the Potawatomi, inflicting a mortality rate at least twice that of European settlers. Approximately one-third of the Native American population in the region died during the epidemic.[27]

The end of the Black Hawk War brought about the expulsion of the Sauk and Fox from lands east of the Mississippi River. Also in 1832, the Winnebago ceded their lands in Wisconsin south and east of the Wisconsin River and east of the Fox River to Green Bay. The Potawatomi, Ottawa, and Chippewa tribes still held title to land in northern Illinois outside of the Indian Boundary lines. In September 1833, a gathering of Native American chiefs and leaders was held in Chicago to "negotiate a treaty whereby the lands might be peaceably ceded, and the Indians removed therefrom, to make way for the tide of white emigration which had begun to set irresistibly and with ever increasing volume to the coveted region."[28] A Chicago historian, A. T. Andreas, writing in the 1880s, emphasized the disadvantaged position of the Native Americans, who had seen the effects of war on other Native Americans and experienced the ravages of epidemic on their own peoples:

> Black Hawk's ill-starred campaign, followed by the subsequent treaty made by his tribe, showed them the inevitable result [that] must follow resistance. They knew quite well that they had no alternative. They must sell their lands for such a sum and on such terms as the Government agents might deem it politic or just or generous to grant. The result of the treaty was what might have been expected. The Indians gave up their lands and agreed for certain considerations, the most of which did not redound to their profit, to cede all their lands to the Government, and to leave

[23] Herath, 21.
[24] A Potawatomi village was located to the south of Walker's Grove. (Helen Hornbeck Tanner, ed., *Atlas of Great Lakes Indian History* (Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1987), Map 26, 140.)
[25] Ibid.
[26] Robert E. Sterling, *A Pictorial History of Will County*, Volume 1 (Joliet: Will County Historical Publications, 1975).
[27] Tanner, ed., *Atlas of Great Lakes Indian History,* 173.
[28] Andreas, *History of Chicago,* 123.

> forever their homes and the graves of their fathers for a land far toward the setting sun, which they had never seen and of which they knew nothing.[29]

In the resulting treaty, the three tribes ceded land "along the western shore of Lake Michigan, and between this lake and the land ceded to the United States by the Winnebago nation at the treaty of Fort Armstrong. . . ."[30] As compensation, the tribes received land on the east bank of the Missouri River and a series of monetary payments.[31]

Immigration into Will County after the Black Hawk War increased so markedly that settlers began agitating for separation from Cook County. Residents of these settlements, then part of Cook County, demanded a more convenient place to record their land purchases and to pay their taxes. Accordingly, Dr. A. W. Bowen of Juliet and James Walker of Plainfield went to the state capital of Vandalia and successfully lobbied a detachment petition through the General Assembly. On January 12, 1836, an act was passed creating Will County from portions of Cook, Iroquois, and Vermilion Counties. Will County also included at that time the northern part of what would later become Kankakee County. (In 1845, the boundaries of Will County were changed to their present extent.) The county was named in honor of Dr. Conrad Will, a member of the state legislature who lived in the southern part of Illinois.[32]

On March 7, 1836, an election was held to select Will County's first public officials. They in turn set the price of tavern licenses and created a book for recording the ear markings of livestock. Since swine, sheep, cows, and other livestock freely roamed the city streets and open fields, settlers devised special ear markings consisting of slits, crops, and holes to identify their animals. These "brands" were recorded with pen and ink drawings in the county clerk's office.[33]

The primary concern of pioneer farmers was providing food for their families and livestock. Most farmers homesteaded around wooded land to provide building materials and fuel. On cultivated land, settlers would need to grub out tree stumps before breaking the prairie sod with a walking plow. This latter activity was often difficult, since the soil tended to ball up on the plow. In 1833, John Lane of Lockport invented the breaking plow, which eliminated this problem. Lane's innovation developed from an improvised steel plow attached to the plow molding board. It successfully cut the prairie sod so that the soil could be turned over.[34]

The boom in agricultural production that coincided with the opening of the Illinois and Michigan Canal in 1848 was soon followed by the introduction of railroad service in the following decade. Plank roads were also a significant mode of transportation in the mid-nineteenth century.

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[29] Ibid.

[30] As quoted in Andreas, *History of Chicago,* 124.

[31] It has been reported that Native Americans returned to Will County as late as 1900 on pilgrimages (Herath, 21):

> Though officially ousted, the Indians, being great travelers, made pilgrimages back to the land of their childhood for many years. Small ragtag bands of women and children were seen as late as the 1870s along the Du Page, wending their way north in the spring and south in the fall. In 1900 an old Indian man, a small boy and a horse pulling a travois were seen along the Kankakee River.

[32] Born near Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on 3 June 1779, Conrad Will migrated westward after studying medicine. He was instrumental in the formation of Jackson County from the lower half of Randolph County and part of present day Perry County. Will served first in the Illinois state Senate and later the state House of Representatives, until his death on 11 June 1835. On the following 12 January, the state legislature passed an act sectioning the southern portion of Cook County in northern Illinois, naming it after Conrad Will. (Alice C. Storm, *Doctor Conrad Will* (Joliet, Illinois: Louis Joliet Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution, 1917), 1–5.)

[33] Address of George H. Woodruff, *Sixth Annual Reunion of the Will County Pioneer Association* (Joliet: The Press Company, 1886), 5–6.

[34] Fayette Baldwin Shaw, *Will County Agriculture* (Will County Historical Society, 1980), 1.

In the late 1840s, the United States still owned 14,060,308 acres of land in Illinois. Between 1848 and 1857, much of this land passed into private hands. In addition to land that could be purchased from the government, alternate five mile sections each side of the route planned for the Illinois and Michigan Canal in western Will County were offered for sale by the canal authority. Later, alternate six mile sections on each side of the route granted to the Illinois Central Railroad (which passed through eastern Will County) were available for purchase from the railroad.[35]

In 1848, Illinois adopted township government as the basic level of local government, although in most locations functioning governments were not set up until 1850. By law, three services were to be provided by the townships: general assistance to the needy, property assessment for tax purposes, and maintenance of township roads and bridges. A unique feature of township government was the annual town meeting, held each April in all townships. This system continues to the present day.[36] Until the twentieth century, almost all public infrastructure (such as roads) was thus maintained by each township with local tax revenue.

Agricultural Development

By the 1850s, Illinois was a major agricultural state. Its corn production was 57.65 million bushels, which increased to 115.2 million in 1860, making it the leading corn producer in the nation.[37] Wheat was also a major crop—the state was fifth in wheat production in 1850 and first in 1860. Acreage in improved farmland increased two and one half times in the decade. Other principal farm crops were oats, rye, and barley. The average price for corn and wheat was $1.25 per bushel. In the early- to mid-1800s, agricultural implements were primitive and included reapers, iron plowshares, and hay tenders. The first McCormick reaper in the County appeared in Wheatland Township in 1846. Some local inventions that could be attached to modify the McCormick included gearing produced by W. Holmes of Hickory Creek in Will County, produced at Adams' Foundry, followed by a turf and stubble plow.[38]

The major crops in Will County historically have been corn and wheat, although wheat production declined in the later 1800s after infestations of the chinch bug and the army worm. (Wheat farming revived during World War I due to incentives from the U.S. government.) As early as 1850, corn was the leading crop in the survey area, since it could be fed to livestock as well as processed into other products.[39] Other grain crops included oats, barley (used in beer production), and rye. Potatoes were also grown in the region through the late 1800s, but several seasons of wet summers led to rotting crops,

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[35] The lands were sold to settlers and speculators. It is estimated that six million acres passed into the hands of speculators between 1849 and 1856. There were several types of speculators. Small farmers bought the land for pasturage, timber, or simply as an investment. Small businessmen also bought land as an investment, and in this group was included practically every prominent politician in Illinois except Abraham Lincoln. Professional speculators operated on a large scale, with corporations or individuals owning land in many states. Finally, East Coast capitalists invested in western lands—Samuel Allerton, a wealthy resident of New York, owned 2,000 acres in Frankfort, New Lenox, and Homer Townships in Will County and an additional 400 acres in Cook County. In time, settlers purchased the land from speculators. The Chicago Land Office was the last one opened and the last one closed, except for Springfield which took over all the unfinished work of all offices and remained open until 1877. (Shaw, *Will County Agriculture,* 1–2.)

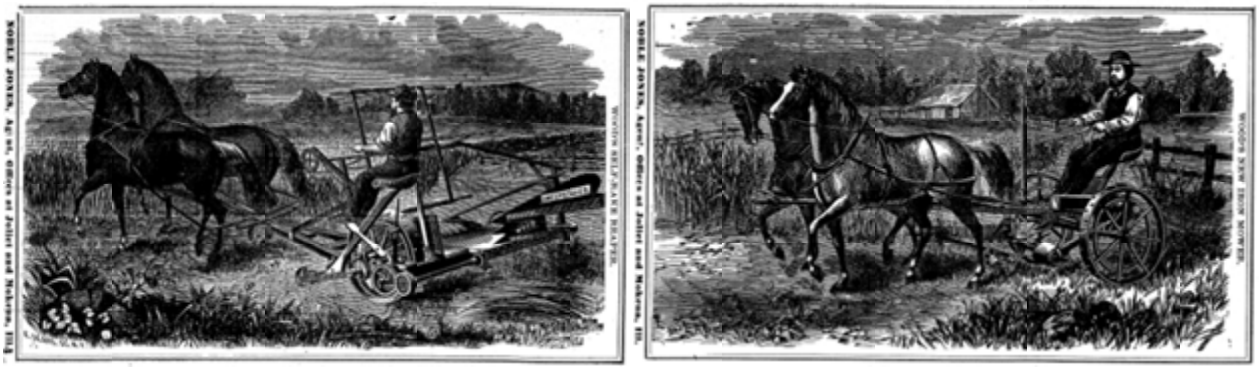
[36] Bryan Smith, "Township Government in Illinois: A Rich History, A Vibrant Future." <http://www.comptrollerconnect.ioc.state.il.us>

[37] "Corn" was the medieval term used in England for the grain known later as wheat. Settlers given "Indian corn" (maize) by the Native Americans began to sow it themselves, and corn (maize) became one of the leading grain crops in the United States by the 1800s. (United States Department of Agriculture, *Yearbook of Agriculture* (1936), 496.)

[38] Shaw, *Will County Agriculture,* 13.

[39] *Souvenir of Settlement and Progress of Will County Illinois* (Chicago: Historical Directory Publishing Co., 1884), 244.

followed in subsequent years by potato bugs. Strawberries and grapes were grown in limited areas by the 1870s.[40]



Two of the variety of mechanical farm implements that were available to Will County farmers after the Civil War. Above left: A self-raking reaper. Above right: A mower. Both of these were advertised by Noble Jones, a farm implement dealer with offices in Joliet and Mokena, in the 1872 Will County directory.

The change from self-sufficient farming to cash crop farming occurred during the mid-nineteenth century. Prior to that time, a farmstead typically had less than ten acres. Most farms were 80 acres in size by the end of the century, sometimes with additional parcels of 40 and 80 acres.[41] However, a few individuals in Will County owned larger parcels of land. In order to divide their parcels of land and enclosure pasturage, farmers used split-rail fencing and vegetation such as osage hedges. Other means included wire fencing, available after 1860, and barbed wire, introduced in the 1880s.[42]

Cattle, hogs, and sheep were also a significant part of northeastern Illinois agriculture. The Chicago Union Stock Yards, incorporated by act of the Illinois State Legislature in 1865, was a ready market. Horses were also bred, as they were an indispensable for the operation of farm machinery; oxen were also used into the 1870s. The dairy industry also was initially a significant part of the region's agriculture.[43]

The average value of a southern Illinois farm in 1910 was $15,000; in the northern part of the state it was $20,700. The annual value of farm products measured in dollars rose from $186 million in 1896 to $277 million in 1912; this was accompanied by an increase in production of field crops by 70 percent and 76 percent respectively for those years. During this time, wheat, rye, and oat production was on the decline. Livestock production remained fairly constant in overall value but sales of animals decreased by 50 percent during this period. Vegetable production was led by root crops like potatoes, turnips, and carrots. Of orchard fruits, apples had the greatest production.[44]

[40] Shaw, *Will County Agriculture,* 8.
[41] It should be noted that plat maps from the period reflect land ownership, not tilled land or the extent (through land leasing or barter) of a farmstead.
[42] Ibid., 5.
[43] The dairy industry in the Midwest was centered on Elgin, Illinois, and the western counties around Chicago until the beginning of World War I, after which Wisconsin came to be known as "America's Dairyland." (Daniel Ralston Block, "The Development of Regional Institutions of Agriculture: The Chicago Milk Marketing Order" (Ph.D. diss., University of California at Los Angeles, 1997), 49–52).
[44] Morrison, *Prairie State, A History,* 98.

Rascher's Birds Eye View of the Chicago Packing Houses & Union Stock Yards (Charles Rascher, 1890; Library of Congress collection).

With the development of the gasoline engine and adaptation to the tractor, working conditions on the farm improved considerably. Water could be pumped using gasoline engines instead of depending on the wind to run windmills. Engines also provided power to operate milking machines, grind feed, and run various kinds of machinery. The coming of the gas powered automobile and truck led to demands for better roads in Illinois. At the 1913 meeting of the Illinois Farmers' Institute, Illinois State Highway Engineer A. N. Johnson recognized these needs:

> In particular, there is a vast field for the development of motor truck traffic, which it has not been necessary heretofore to consider in plans for road improvement. It is believed that in many sections of the State the opportunity is big for the development of this class of traffic, and provision should be made in the future for road building on a majority of the main roads for the eight and ten ton motor truck. Already truck farmers in the vicinity of Chicago have clubbed together in the purchase of a motor truck by which a 24-hour trip has been reduced to 8 hours, while the delivery of milk from the farm to the city by motor truck is already an economic proposition.
>
> It is believed therefore that the construction to be undertaken on our main roads should be a character that can withstand the heavy motor traffic, heavy horse drawn traffic, as well as the lighter forms of traffic, and that a serious mistake will be made to put down any other than rigid, durable forms of pavement. In Illinois this reduces the choice of the road surface to brick and concrete.[45]

With the implementation of the Civil Administrative Code in 1917, which formed the departmental structure within the executive branch, the Illinois Department of Agriculture was formed as a regulatory and promotional agency.[46]

[45] A.N. Johnson, "Cost of a System of Durable Roads for Illinois," in *Eighteenth Annual Report of the Illinois Farmers' Institute,* edited by H.A. McKeene (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Journal Company, 1913), 149.

[46] Information from the website of the Illinois Department of Agriculture <www.agr.state.il.us/aghistory.html>. The department actually dated back to 1819, when the Illinois Agricultural Association was formed. Although little is known of the activities of this early group other than a collection of letters by its founders, it established an organization that became the Illinois State Agricultural Agency in 1853. This semi-public organization continued to function until replaced in 1871 by the Department of Agriculture under the supervision of the State Board of Agriculture.

Farm machinery changed drastically in the early twentieth century with the introduction of internal combustion engines. At left, a tractor advertisement from Ruge & Wilke in Beecher, Illinois, illustrates the types of tractors available in the 1910s as well as listing the tremendous variety of other implements that were available. From the Prairie Farmer's Reliable Directory of Farmers and Breeders, Will and Southern Cook Counties, Illinois *(Chicago: Prairie Farmer Publishing Company, 1918), 349.*

Twentieth Century Developments

Land area of farms in the Chicago area declined from 88.7 percent of total area in 1900 to 84.9 percent in 1920 and to 80 percent in 1925. In the century between 1830 and 1925, the number of farms had peaked in 1900. By 1925, the total number of farms was 5,000 less than in 1880.[47] During that same period livestock production (including swine) peaked in 1900. For the counties within fifty miles of Chicago, the average number of dairy cows per square mile of farmland declined from 46.1 in 1900 to 42.8 in 1925. Acreage in cereal production showed a gradual increase after 1925. Sheep and wool production peaked in 1880 and horses and mules in 1920, declining as a direct result of the introduction of the tractor and motor truck. Dairy production in the Chicago region peaked in 1900 and declined markedly in the following two decades.[48]

Although the Great Depression of the 1930s had a dramatic impact on all Americans, for American farmers the economic decline began a decade earlier. Numerous factors led to the decline of the farm economy in the post-World War I era. To meet the needs of the wartime economy that was feeding American and European populations, American farmers increased production by cultivating lands that formerly were kept fallow. Following the war, farmers continued this trend, overproducing despite reductions in demand. As commodity prices fell, so did the standard of living of many farmers since prices in the rest of the economy were increasing. Farmers went into debt, mortgaged their property, and in many cases lost their farms to creditors.

The coming of the Great Depression deepened the crisis further. Agricultural production in Illinois collapsed from almost $6.25 billion in 1929 to $2.5 billion in 1933. As unemployment in industrial centers soared, some people fled to rural communities, putting additional pressure on rural areas as most

[47] Edward A. Duddy, *Agriculture in the Chicago Region* (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1929), 3.
[48] Ibid., 4.

did not have access to welfare relief.[49] Within days of the inauguration of Franklin Roosevelt, legislation was formulated that Congress would later pass as the Agricultural Adjustment Act. The numerous adjustment programs initiated under the New Deal led to limitations in agricultural production in order to raise crop prices to acceptable levels. These included twenty percent of the land or 1,218,062 acres used in corn production being retired; over 1,000,000 acres of land in wheat production were also retired.[50] In 1934, 15,734,600 acres of land were in production, for a total crop value of $218,569,000 nationally; this grew to 17,692,100 acres and a crop value of $273,931,000 the following year.[51]

Soybeans were first planted in the late 1930s as a forage crop mainly to be fed to dairy cows and cattle. Although some soybeans were processed through a threshing machine and sold on the market it was not a popular grain product. Ten or fifteen years later, however, soybeans became a valuable food and commercial product as new uses were developed with the assistance of state and federal agricultural programs.

During World War II, farmers were encouraged by the federal government to increase their production by the use of power machinery and the latest scientific processes. When a decline in demand arose, the farmer was forced to continue his heavy production rate. Cash crop income in 1950 was $2.038 billion nationally. Of this livestock and livestock products accounted for $1.26 billion; crops, $763 million; and government pay for adaptation of production program, with $10.6 million paid to the farmers in Illinois. Principal crops were corn, soybeans, wheat, oats, hay, fruit, and greenhouse products. The average value of a farm in Illinois in 1950 was $28,400.[52] The farm population in Illinois declined from 1,341,104 in 1900 to 772,521 in 1950.[53]

The abandoning of farms and the consolidation of small farms into large ones resulted in many buildings being razed or abandoned. Moreover, changes in farming meant that many old farm buildings were too small, or unsuitable for other reasons, and were replaced by larger, more suitable and flexible structures. By the twentieth century many barns were constructed by professional builders following plans influenced by farm journals and using mass-produced lumber from a nearby yard or sawmill. In 1987, there were 1,239 farms in Will County covering 328,729 acres. Ten years later, the continued decline in agricultural production in northeastern Illinois was apparent, as farmland was lost to suburban development. By 1997, there were only 910 farms in Will County, and, though the average farm was larger, the total acreage devoted to agriculture had declined by more than 10 percent to 293,526 acres. After dipping to only 830 farms in the county in 2002, the number of farms in the county had increased slightly by 2007 to 877. The total acreage in the county continued to decline steadily, however, and by 2007 only 220,851 acres remained in agricultural use. In recent years almost half the farm acreage in the county remained planted in corn, with soybeans covering another quarter of the acreage. Raising beef cattle, dairy, and hogs also remained significant cash products in the county. The average farm sold crops worth more than $145,000 in 2007. Between 2002 and 2007, the value of products sold directly to individual consumers by Will County farms more than doubled to $1.3 million, reflecting the increasing popularity of farmer's markets and vegetable crops in the county.[54]

By 2007, there were 76,860 Illinois farms with 26.7 million acres under cultivation. Major grain crops in Illinois included corn (13 million acres), soybeans (8 million acres), and winter wheat (890,000 acres).

[49] Morrison, *Prairie State, A History,* 108.
[50] United States Department of Agriculture, *Yearbook of Agriculture* (1936), 1155–1156.
[51] Ibid., 1146.
[52] Morrison, *Prairie State, A History,* 116.
[53] Salamon, 35.
[54] Ibid.; *2007 Census of Agriculture: Illinois: State and County Data: Volume 1, Geographic Area Series, Part 13* (Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Agriculture, National Agricultural Statistics Service, February 2009).

Major livestock included egg-laying chickens, hogs, and beef cattle. Reflecting new trends in agriculture, 271 farms in Illinois produced organic crops worth $8.3 million in 2007 (more than quadruple the value of organic products in 2002), although this was a tiny percentage of the total $13.3 billion in farm products from the state.[55]

Recent decades have seen tremendous suburban growth in formerly rural areas near Chicago, particularly in the northern portions of Will County. Along with this suburban development has come conflict between the "new" settlers and established farmers:

> A while back, farmer Ray Dettmering was arrested for plowing his fields late at night in Matteson, Illinois, a rural community 30 miles southwest of Chicago. The 28-year-old farmer told police officers that he needed to prepare his fields for spring planting after days of rain had put him behind schedule. The real problem? A few years earlier, subdivisions had been built near Dettmering's corn and soy bean fields. The new residents claimed they couldn't hear their TVs above the tractor noise. Others were having trouble sleeping. Two neighbors complained to the police, and Dettmering was booked and fingerprinted. "What were these people thinking when they moved to the country?" he asked. "It's not like these farms snuck up on them."[56]

Perhaps in response to incidents such as this, the Illinois Farm Bureau issued a booklet in 1999 titled *The Code of County Living*, targeted at former city dwellers and suburbanites who have moved to rural areas on the metropolitan fringe. The booklet discusses the comparative limitations of rural living compared to more established suburban areas.

> In rural Illinois, you'll find working farms. You'll also find a level of infrastructure and services generally below that provided through the collective wealth of an urban community. Many other factors, too, make the country living experience very different from what may be found in the city.[57]

[55] *2007 Census of Agriculture.*
[56] Charles Lockwood, "Sprawl," *Hemispheres,* United Airlines magazine (September 1999), 82–84.
[57] *The Code of Country Living* (Bloomington, Illinois: Illinois Farm Bureau, 1999), 3.

Reed Township Developmental History

The natural topography of Reed Township included level prairie, with some areas of forest. Early settlers judged the soil to be poorly suited for agriculture, with relatively thin topsoil overlying sandy deposits. Due to its poor agricultural prospects and lack of streams, the township was one of the last in the county to be settled. The 1842 list of property owners in the county included only one private owner in township 32 north, range 9 east, Jedediah Smith; his property was in section 3, present-day Custer Township. By the time of the 1850 census, the population of Reed Township was only 183 persons and 33 families, almost all of whom lived in what is now Custer Township.

When Reed Township was first organized in 1850, it included all of present-day Reed and Custer Townships, with virtually all of the settlers residing in what is now the Custer Township portion. The township was suggested to be named Clinton Township by the County Commissioners, but at the first meeting of the Board of Supervisors of the township, it was decided to name it Reid Township, in honor of John Reid, a pioneer settler and early postmaster. By the 1860s, the name was commonly written Reed Township. As late as 1865, the vast majority of the inhabitants of the original Reed Township resided in what is now Custer Township. Reed and Custer Townships were divided in 1875, with the smaller western portion retaining the original name.[58]

James Cunnea, a native of Ireland, worked as a peddler throughout Will County before settling in section 6 of Reed Township.[59] He purchased all of that section from the government on July 6, 1848, for $1.25 per acre.[60] Cunnea sold his farm for $100 an acre in 1865 to the Wilmington Coal Company.[61]

Early settlement occurred in the northern part of the township in the 1850s. Patrick Kilgore settled a farm in the southeast quarter of section 4 as a "squatter" in the 1850s; in 1855 he sold his farmstead to Frank and Thomas O'Reilly, natives of Ireland.[62] The Chicago & Alton Railroad was built through the township in 1854, with a small station built in section 8.[63] The settled areas near the station were known variously as Stewart's Grove, the Grove, and Keeversville.

Patrick and James Dwyer arrived in the township in 1850 and settled on adjoining farmsteads in the northeast quarter of section 9.[64] Other early settlers included James M. Barker (1849), William Higgins (1850), William McGinnis (1852), Henry W. Pfingston (1855), Timothy Keane (1856) and Michael Shenk (1858).[65] Dennis Glenny, an Irish stone-cutter on the Illinois & Michigan Canal settled in the township in 1856.[66] Many early farmsteads were abandoned or sold after only a few years of work, and the land in Reed Township typically sold for less than comparably sized parcels elsewhere in Will County.[67] However, by 1860, most areas had been settled and initial farmsteads developed, and the population of Reed (with Custer) Township had increased to 785 in at least 150 households.

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[58] Woodruff et al., 464.
[59] Woodruff et al., 464–465.
[60] Illinois Public Domain Land Tract Sales Database.
[61] Woodruff et al., 465.; *Souvenir of Settlement and Progress of Will County* (Chicago: Historical Directory Publishing Company, 1884), 440.
[62] Woodruff et al., 465.
[63] Note that the name "Chicago and Alton Railroad" was not adopted until an 1862 reorganization of the company. It was later known simply as the Alton Railroad. The Alton Railroad was purchased by the Gulf, Mobile and Ohio Railroad in 1947. After a 1972 merger, the line became part of the Illinois Central Gulf Railroad.
[64] Woodruff et al., 466.
[65] *Souvenir of Settlement and Progress* (1884), 440–441.
[66] Woodruff et al., 466.
[67] Woodruff et al., 465

Native Americans and early settlers had long known that coal was present in the vicinity of Reed Township and adjacent areas, but it was not until the 1860s that economically feasible coal seams began to be developed. In October 1861, the *Wilmington Advocate* reported:

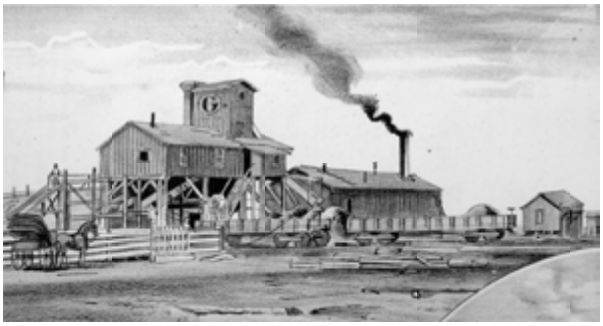
> The existence of immense beds of bituminous coal, which are known to underlie this whole region of country, is now about to be tested at a point nearer this village [Wilmington], than any heretofore sought.
>
> Wm. Hurry, Esq. of the city of New York, a gentleman of wealth and enterprise, and the owner of a large tract of land contiguous to the railroad station at Stewart's Grove five miles southwest of this village,[68] has recently visited these lands, with the view of satisfying himself of the expediency of making the preliminary explorations, and in case of their proving satisfactory, to proceed at once to open and quarry the coal at that point.
>
> We understand that Mr. Hurry's examination resulted in his deciding to commence the work, and that he has instructed Mr. Morgan to make the necessary arrangements without delay. Should coal of a quality equal to that already opened and quarried two miles southwest of that point, be found, he will then sink a shaft, and open the mine on a scale requisite to supply the demand of this and other markets. Hence we may confidently look for a supply of coal here of the first quality, and at prices, too, not above those now paid for inferior surface coal.
>
> With Mr. Hurry's known ability to carry out an enterprise of this kind, and Mr. Morgan's skill in the judicious management of such an undertaking, we have every reason to believe that the work will be promptly undertaken and prosecuted with energy and efficiency.[69]

For unknown reasons, Hurry and Morgan were unsuccessful in establishing their mine. In 1864, William Hennebry, while digging a well at the Thomas Byron farmstead in the northeast quarter of section 5, struck coal at a depth of about 80 feet below the surface.

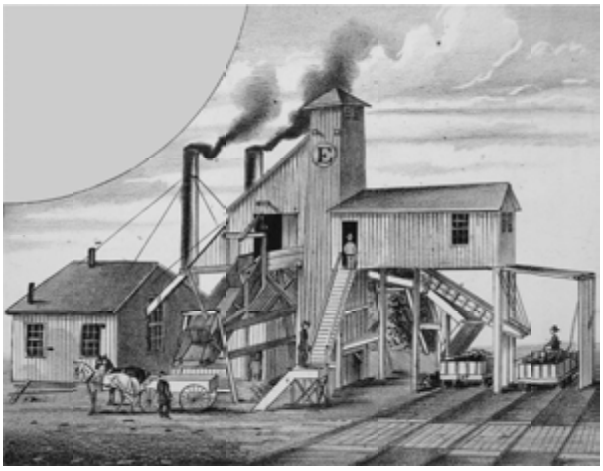
Many prospectors soon attempted to capitalize on the discovery. The site of the future city of Braidwood was platted in 1865. In the winter of 1865–1866, J. D. Bennett, M. B. Kilbourn, C. L. Whitcomb, Seth Turner, and C. D. Wilbur (the State Geologist of Illinois) leased property and began to develop a coal mine. Soon, however, this initial group sold out to a group of Boston investors, who organized the Wilmington & Vermillion Coal Company. By 1878, the company employed 700 men at Braidwood, one half of whom were African-Americans.[70] Another company, the D. P. Rhodes Company, later called the Eureka Mining Company, also began work in Reed Township in 1865. This company employed 425 men by 1878.[71] The discovery of coal deposits in the township in the mid 1860s suddenly made the land quite valuable, with prices rising tenfold almost overnight.[72]

James Braidwood, a native of Scotland, arrived in the United States in 1863 and came to Reed Township in 1865 to work on the development of coal mine shafts. In 1872, he sank the Braidwood shaft, which subsequently burned, but in 1876 he sank a new Braidwood shaft. Operating independently of the major corporations, he employed about 80 men.[73]

[68] William Hurry owned the northern half of section 17 of Reed Township.
[69] *Wilmington Advocate* (October 1861), quote provided by Sandy Vasko, personal communication to the author.
[70] Woodruff et al., 466–467
[71] Woodruff et al., 467–468
[72] Woodruff et al., 465
[73] Woodruff et al., 468.



Mine shaft entrances and machinery buildings of the Wilmington & Vermillion Coal Company. Source: Combination Atlas Map of Will County *(Elgin, Illinois: Thompson Brothers & Burr, 1873), plate 133. The G Shaft was located between Second and Third Streets and Office and Kenard Streets in section 7. The B Shaft was located along School Street north of Seventh Street in section 5.*



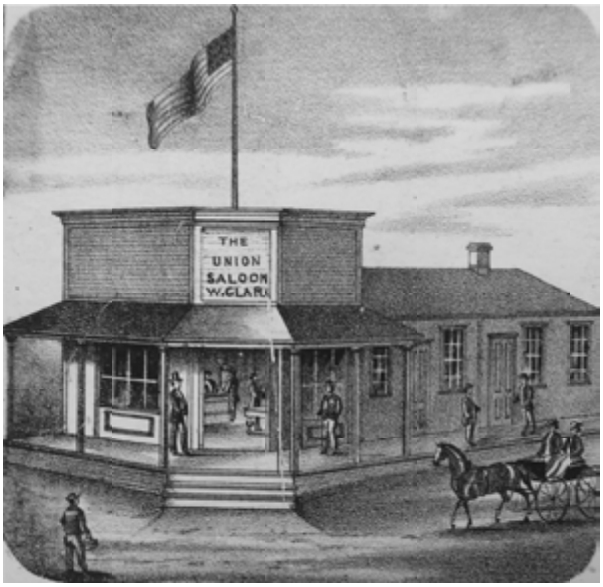
Mine shaft entrances and machinery buildings of the Wilmington & Vermillion Coal Company. Source: Combination Atlas Map of Will County *(Elgin, Illinois: Thompson Brothers & Burr, 1873), plate 133. The C and E Shafts were located at the site of present-day City Park in Braidwood, between First and Third Streets, section 8.*

The coal companies acquired much of the land in the northern part of Reed Township, and subdivided lots to create the City of Braidwood. However, the coal companies reserved the right to mine coal under the city lots, resulting in all of the structures of the new city being built lightly using wood balloon framing. The coal seams underlying the city were typically three to three and a half feet in thickness; once a particular vein was removed, settlement of the overlying ground typically occurred.[74]

The town of Braidwood developed very rapidly. New immigrants arrived to work in the mines, making Braidwood a melting pot of families from Canada, England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Belgium, France, Italy, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Poland, Bohemia, and Scandinavia. Starting from essentially nothing in 1865, the settlement grew so rapidly that in 1872, when new state legislation gave all settled places of more than 2,000 persons the status of "city," Braidwood was immediately able to incorporate. The first municipal elections were held in 1873, with L. H. Goodrich elected as mayor. Goodrich was born in New York state in 1834. He came to Grundy County in 1855 and worked as a schoolteacher. After marrying Annie Wheeler in 1860, he purchased a farm in Grundy County. He also worked as the superintendent of a coal shaft in Gardner, Illinois. Around 1870, he moved to Braidwood and opened a mercantile store. After serving as the first mayor of Braidwood, in 1875 he was elected to the Illinois House.[75]

[74] Woodruff et al., 468.
[75] Woodruff et al., 754.

Even with the discovery of coal and the development of the City of Braidwood, the remainder of the township remained sparsely settled. Even in the 1870s, only about twenty families were farming in the township.[76]

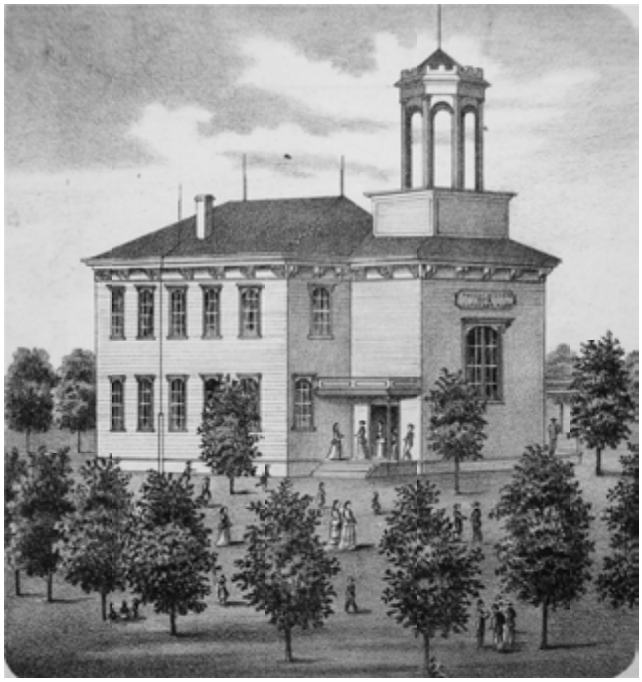


Left: the Union Saloon in Braidwood, William Clark, proprietor. Right: the Miner's National Bank in Braidwood. William H. Odell served as cashier. Source: Combination Atlas Map of Will County *(Elgin, Illinois: Thompson Brothers & Burr, 1873), plate 134.*

The original business district was Fifth Street, but by the middle 1870s commerce had shifted to Main Street, which was more convenient to the railroad depot. The town included inns and taverns, agricultural feed stores, barbershops, dry goods stores, social halls, bakeries, a blacksmith, and a post office opened in 1867.[77]

The first school building was built in the incipient settlement of Braidwood in 1864 by William Cunnea. This one-room brick building was abandoned by 1870. In 1870 two new buildings were constructed in Braidwood, East School on East Main Street and the Grove School on South School Street. In 1871, a third school, Lower Braidwood School, was completed on Center Street north of Fifth Street (now Cermak Road). A fourth school, the Eureka School, was located on Reed Road (present-day Kennedy Road) west of Division and opened in 1875.[78]

[76] Woodruff et al., 466.
[77] *City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan* (Gil and Associates, Inc., 2004), 12–13.
[78] Farrington, 97.

Left: the East School, constructed in 1870. Right: the Lower Braidwood School, constructed in 1871. Source: Combination Atlas Map of Will County *(Elgin, Illinois: Thompson Brothers & Burr, 1873), plate 134.*

By 1878, the town had five churches (Presbyterian, Methodist Episcopal, Catholic, Congregational, and Primitive Methodist) as well as Mormon and two African-American congregations. The Methodist Episcopal Church first held organized services in 1867. By 1869, a church was constructed at the southeast corner of Main and School Streets. (The building was demolished in 1955, and the site currently houses the Braidwood Fire Department.) The Presbyterian congregation was officially organized in 1872. Construction of the church on the west side of Lincoln Street just south of Main Street began in 1873, and the First Presbyterian Church was dedicated in 1875. Immaculate Conception Catholic Church was built in 1869 at the north end of Walker Street; this building was destroyed by fire in 1887. A new church was built at the southwest corner of Main Street and School Street. This church was destroyed in 1911 by fire, after lightning struck the high steeple. The existing church on the site was built and dedicated in 1912.[79]

In 1876, a public library was organized, and a fire company was established in 1877.[80] A firehouse was built on South Center Street in the 1870s.[81] By 1877, Reed and Custer Townships contained nine schools, three of which were in the city of Braidwood, with a total enrollment of 1,399 students.[82] By the time of the 1880 census, the population of Reed Township had increased to 5,981 persons, of whom 5,524 resided in the City of Braidwood. Possibly, the population had been even higher in the early to mid-1870s at the peak of coal production.

[79] Woodruff, 470; www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/ braidwood/braidwood_churches.html
[80] Woodruff, 470; *Souvenir of Settlement and Progress* (1884), 442.
[81] *City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan* (Gil and Associates, Inc., 2004), 11.
[82] Farrington, 100.


Left: The Methodist Episcopal Church, constructed in 1869 but demolished in 1955. Right: The Presbyterian Church, constructed in 1875, still stands on Lincoln Street in Braidwood.


Left: Immaculate Conception Catholic Church; this building was constructed in 1888 but destroyed in 1911. Right: View of Braidwood in the first decade of the twentieth century, looking southwest from Main Street in the block west of Center Street; possibly taken from the tower of the City Hall constructed in 1885. The house in the foreground still stands on West Main Street. From center to right, three churches are visible (Presbyterian, Methodist Episcopal, and Catholic, respectively); the church at extreme left in this view is not identified.

The U.S. experienced an economic panic in 1872–1873, and the following decade was marked by falling prices and reduced wages for laborers. In the early days of coal mining, miners earned an average of $12 to $15 weekly during the winter and half that during the summer.[83] Poor economic conditions in the mid-1870s culminated in nationwide strikes of mechanics, railroad men, and other workers in the summer of 1877. In Braidwood, on April 1, 1877, the coal companies proposed to reduce the workers' wages by 15 cents per ton mined in summer and 25 cents per ton mined in winter—a drastic cutback, considering that the miners were paid only $1.00 per ton in summer and $1.15 per ton in winter (the difference in wages reflected the greater demand for coal during the winter heating season). The miners refused and went on strike. To break the strike, the coal companies recruited African-American workers, several hundred of whom moved with their families to Braidwood. As the nationwide strikes reached a peak near the end of July 1877, a mob of strikers drove the African-American workers from the city. Governor Cullom ordered 1,300 soldiers to Braidwood to restore order. After about three weeks, the strike was broken, and the African-American workers returned to the town. Many of the striking miners accepted the reduced wages and returned to work; others left Braidwood to seek work elsewhere.[84]

[83] City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan (2004), 10
[84] Woodruff, 476.

By 1884, seven companies employing 2,180 men were in operation in the Braidwood vicinity, producing 700,000 tons of coal annually. By the mid-1880s, about 800 out of 2100 acres of known coal deposits had been worked out.[85] Troops were again called to Braidwood in response to a strike in 1889.[86]

The hazards of coal mining struck home in Will County on February 16, 1883, in the Diamond mine disaster. The Diamond mine shaft was located along present-day Illinois Highway 113 in the village of Diamond in Grundy County, about one-quarter mile west of the Will County border, although many of the miners and their families resided in Braidwood. Without warning, a large body of water that had accumulated on the flat prairie due to heavy rainfall broke through into the shaft, drowning seventy-four miners. As reported in the *Wilmington Advocate*:

> The greatest calamity that ever befell this coalfield occurred at the old Diamond Mine, four miles from Braidwood, at about half-past one o'clock yesterday afternoon. At that hour the surface water from an old sink hole broke through and caused a general caving in of the shaft. . . . The sinkhole that broke through is the identical spot that caved in three years ago, after which it was filled with soapstone. The ground surrounding is level, sloughy prairie, and having once been mined was not of a solid character. Holes of that kind are common and running veins of water underneath often render them most dangerous and liable to settle at any moment.
>
> Mr. A. L. Sweet, president of the Wilmington Coal association and of the Wilmington & Vermillion mines, was called upon by a reporter. 'The place where the accident occurred,' said Mr. Sweet, 'was in the northeast side of shaft No. 2 of the Wilmington Coal Mining & Manufacturing company's mine. This company is one of the four which form the Wilmington Coal association. . . . There was what we call a fall of earth—an opening from the surface of the earth into the mine. The surface being covered with water, it took but a short time for that to permeate the entire mine, drowning all who were unable to get out before the rising water caught them. . . . In opening this mine a shaft seventy-five feet deep was sunk into the earth. At right angles to this, two main galleries were run nearly parallel with the surface of the earth and about seventy-five feet below it. From these main galleries narrow spurs or gangways are dug out in various directions. These spurs rise and fall with the ledge of coal, sometimes rising to within twelve or fifteen feet of the surface. It was at such a point, very near the top, that the break occurred. While lying on his back picking at the coal above, the earth must have fallen upon the doomed miner. Through the opening thus made the water poured in, filling one gangway after another, cutting off escape to the central shaft. There was little time to give the alarm, for in less than an hour from the time the break occurred every avenue of escape was cut off, and every occupant of the mine at that time must have been drowned. These galleries are low and narrow, and only by painfully slow crawling could the poor victims escape. No noise accompanied the rising of the water, and the first indication they had of their danger by many of the dead was the chilling sensation of cold water trickling along the pathway in which they lay at work. There was an air shaft, offering an additional avenue of escape of which many availed themselves. But the water came in too rapidly to allow all to reach it.'
>
> . . .
>
> The first man who knew anything concerning the break was the pump man, who is located at the bottom of the shaft, and whose duty it is to keep the water out of the shaft and see that the loading of the coal-cart goes on properly. He had just sent up a load of coal, and upon going back to the pumps he found the water was rising rapidly, and the cause, he thought, was a lack of steam power in the engine above. He accordingly went up and saw the engineer, who said he had on as much steam as usual. The engineer stepped into the cage and went down to see what was the matter, and to his astonishment he found the water was up to his waist and rising rapidly. He also found a number of miners who had come to the shaft to escape. An alarm was at once given by the

[85] *Souvenir of Settlement and Progress* (1884), 442.
[86] City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan (2004), 10

> "shovers," and all made for the top. The big whistles of the engines were sounded three times, and the little hamlet recognized it as the signal that the mine was flooded. . . .
>
> The miners had received a late warning, and they started, some toward the main shaft and others toward the air shaft, a little west of it. The tide met them before more than twenty had reached the principal exit. Some had lingered to warn friends or to collect tools. The rushing water . . . with the impetus given to it by a fall of eighty-five feet, struck many of the unfortunate victims, whirling them away. . . .
>
> Cool-headed men above ground had all they could do to restrain the miners from going down in the cages to help their fellows. All who went down were lost. . . . A rush was made for the air-shaft when the main was swamped. Nearly a hundred men came up. . . . but before an hour had slipped away the shaft filled up and no more could come out. . . .
>
> As far as can be ascertained the actual number of men in the mines was 185. About 220 are employed in all in the Diamond mine, but some forty of these were not under the surface. With perhaps twenty exceptions the men who escaped made their egress into the open air through the air shaft. The number drowned is ascertained to be about seventy-five—the fate of one or two strangers being in doubt. All the men tell the same story of a panic stricken crowd rushing blindly against the waters in the dark, the lights having been extinguished. The men would tumble over one another and some would fall back into the waters. Some got as far as the ladder of the escape shaft and then fell back exhausted. Others were carried up by their stronger companions. Some who could have escaped lost their wits entirely, and wandered aimlessly through the roadway, or were pushed aside by their fellows who were determined not to be lost. Many of the men reported stepping on lifeless bodies as they waded through the water, while in places where it had risen higher the corpses floated by them. In the labyrinth of passageways through the coalpit many of the men became confused and lost their bearings entirely. In several instances they turned and ran directly opposite of the way which led to at least a chance of safety.
>
> . . .
>
> After thirty-eight days incessant pumping the mine was emptied on last Sunday [March 25], and at midnight all was in readiness to raise some of the bodies up from their watery graves. . . .[87]

Ultimately, only twenty-eight bodies were recovered of the seventy-four known victims, due to the collapsed condition of the waterlogged mine and the difficult and hazardous nature of the recovery work. The mine shaft was sealed. In 1898, a monument to the lost miners was erected near the old opening to the mine, along the north side of Coal City Road within the present-day village of Diamond. The monument and land was purchased by the United Mine Workers of America. In 1926, a bronze table with the names of the known victims was added to the monument.

The coal mining community at Braidwood was a formative place for many future labor leaders. John James was a prominent Braidwood labor leader and served as national Secretary of the Miners National Union, a predecessor of the United Mine Workers of America. A group of Braidwood men were a part of the organizing of the United Mine Workers of America in 1890; the founder, William D. Ryan (1861–1949) was raised in Braidwood. John P. Mitchell (1870–1919), another miner born in Braidwood, joined the union when it was founded and served as the Secretary and Treasurer of Local District 12 in Braidwood. In 1898, he was elected Vice-President of the Union and from 1899 to 1907 served as President of the UMWA.[88]

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[87] *Wilmington Advocate,* February 17, February 19, and March 30, 1883, quoted at www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/diamond/diamond_minedisaster.html.

[88] *City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan* (2004), 10; Coal City Public Library, www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/braidwood.



Left: John James. Center: William D. Ryan. Right: John Mitchell. Source: Coal City Public Library, http://www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/braidwood/braidwood_photos.html.

Another resident of Braidwood in its early years was Anton J. Cermak. He was born in the Bohemian city of Kladno (now in the Czech Republic, about 15 miles northwest of Prague) in 1873 and immigrated with his parents to Braidwood in 1874. As an adult, he moved to Chicago, serving as precinct captain and being elected to the Illinois House of Representatives in 1902. In 1909, he was elected Chicago alderman from the 12th ward. He was elected the president of the Cook County Board in 1922. In the 1931 mayoral race, Cermak challenged the notoriously corrupt mayor "Big Bill" Thompson and won a decisive victory. On February 15, 1933, Cermak was visiting Miami, Florida. While shaking hands with President-elect Franklin D. Roosevelt in Bayfront Park, Cermak was fatally shot during an attempted assassination of Roosevelt.

Right: Anton Cermak, circa 1920s. Source: Library of Congress, Prints & Photographs Division, photograph by Harris & Ewing, reproduction number, LC-DIG-hec-231393.

In the 1880s, the Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co. developed the new M Shaft in section 19 of Reed Township. Adjacent to this mine, the Village of Godley developed, incorporated in 1888.

The City of Braidwood continued to develop in the 1880s. In 1880, the Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Company established a race track south of the city in section 17. A new two-story Braidwood City Hall was built in 1885, with the Courtroom and Jail on the ground floor and the Council Chambers, City Clerk's Office, and public library upstairs.[89] (The building has been demolished, and the

[89] www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/braidwood/braidwood_businesses.html

Braidwood Police Department is now located at the site.) In 1882, a new depot for the Chicago & Alton Railroad was built in Braidwood, on the same site as an earlier structure.[90] By 1890, the population of Reed Township had fallen slightly, to 5,208 persons total.

Left: The Braidwood City Hall constructed in 1885, located on the south side of Main Street between Center Street and Lincoln Street. Source: Local History Project, Minooka Community High School. Right: The Music Hall, built in 1880 and later acquired by the Knights of Columbus.

Left: The Braidwood depot, circa 1900. Source: Local History Project, Minooka Community High School. Right: The depot today at its new site, the northeast corner of Main Street and Center Street. The building was relocated on June 28, 2009. The depot is documented as site 425 in the current survey.

In 1888, the original East School was destroyed by fire. The replacement building was completed by September 1889. By the 1890s, the city of Braidwood had seven schools, including the Lower Braidwood School, Grove School, and Eureka School from the 1870s, the East School, the West Side School on Front Street west of Division, the Bucktown School on Fifth Street, and the Bohemian School at Michigan and Fifth Streets.[91]

[90] Sandy Vasko, "Saving a Landmark: The Importance of a Depot," unpublished manuscript, citing the *Wilmington Advocate* for September 1, 1882. The 1882 building was actually the third on the site. An original depot, perhaps dating to construction of the railroad in 1854, was destroyed in 1879 and rebuilt. This second building was destroyed in 1882 and replaced by the current depot.

[91] Farrington, 171–172.


Left: The new East School, circa 1890s. Right: The Grove School, constructed 1870, in the late nineteenth century. Source: Local History Project, Minooka Community High School.

Labor disputes and strikes were a frequent occurrence at the coal mines. During strikes, the unions would raise donations to support a "relief store" in downtown Braidwood where families of striking miners could obtain minimal necessities to try and survive the strike.[92]

Left: The Braidwood "relief store," circa 1897. Source: Coal City Public Library, http://www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/braidwood/braidwood_photos.html.

Other industries developed in Braidwood in the early part of the twentieth century, including foundries, a clothing factory, an icehouse, a glass factory, a cigar factory, and a cream cheese producer. The Rossi Macaroni Company, manufacturer of Lincoln brand macaroni and spaghetti, began operation in Braidwood in the late 1870s.[93] Peter Rossi, Sr., came to the United States from the Piedmont area of northwestern Italy. In 1898 Rossi purchased the old Broadbent Hotel, located on the south side of Front Street near the railroad depot. The building was renovated to serve as a factory.[94]

[92] www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/braidwood/braidwood_businesses.html
[93] Maue, 351.
[94] www.coalcity.lib.il.us/coalmining/braidwood/braidwood_businesses.html; David A. Belden, *Postcard History Series: Will County*. Chicago: Arcadia Publishing, 2009.


Left: The Rossi Macaroni Company factory, circa 1910. Source: Local History Project, Minooka Community High School. Right: The Rossi Macaroni Company factory in 1955. Source: John Drury, This is Will County, Illinois.

Around 1900, the Skinner Brothers mining company developed a new deep shaft mine in section 31 of Reed Township. European immigrants, predominantly Italian, settled in the vicinity, and the village of Torino was incorporated in 1905. A post office was established in 1906. However, within a decade the mine was played out. The mine closed in 1918, and the post office closed in 1920. Torino had become a ghost town by the mid-1920s. This area of section 31 was strip mined after World War II, leaving no trace of the village.


Left: Main Street in Torino, circa 1910. Right: Superintendent Skinner's residence in Torino, circa 1910. Source: Local History Project, Minooka Community High School.

By the start of twentieth century, the mining of the relatively thin coal seam underlying Reed Township began to be economically uncompetitive. The major coal companies shifted their operations to deeper seams of coal in southern Illinois. The population of Braidwood dropped to less than half its peak, and many structures were abandoned, demolished, or moved.[95] By the 1900 census, the population of the township had dropped to 3,811, falling to 2,841 in 1910 and 1,758 in 1920, by which time, only 1,297 persons resided in the city of Braidwood.

The steep decline in population led to consolidation of the city services. The West Side School burned in 1897 and was not replaced. In 1904, the Eureka School was closed and demolished. In 1905, the Grove School on South School Street was closed. The building was demolished in 1915.[96] The public library also closed around 1910. In 1919, the fire department was consolidated into the first floor of City Hall.[97]

In 1916 the mine at Godley closed, and in 1918 the mine at Torino (in section 31 of Reed Township) closed. By 1928, the village of Godley had shrunk to perhaps ten houses, while Torino had been completely abandoned. One small mine remained in operation north of Braidwood, but closed in July

[95] Stevens, 112
[96] Farrington, 97, 171–172
[97] *City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan* (Gil and Associates, Inc., 2004), 11.

1928.[98] The population of Reed Township dropped further, to only 1,456 by 1930, with only 1,161 persons in the City of Braidwood and less than 300 in the remainder of the township, lower than at any time since the Civil War.

Simultaneously with the end of traditional underground shaft mining in 1928 was the beginning of strip mining in the area. The Northern Illinois Coal Corporation purchased the last mine shaft in 1928 and commenced strip mining on the property, in section 4 of Reed Township. In the strip mining operation, the topsoil and overlying rock was removed to a depth of the coal seam, which lay between thirty and fifty feet below the surface. The machinery moved forward 300 feet per day, taking off the soil in a thirty foot wide strip. The coal seam itself was only about three feet thick, but each day's soil removal exposed 3,000 tons of coal. Once the coal was exposed, electric shovels were used to scoop the coal into railroad cars. In contrast to the old shaft mines, which required 500 miners to produce at their peak 200,000 tons of coal per year, the strip mining operation could produce 30,000 tons per month with only 135 men in the entire company, using only one electric shovel.[99] In the 1920s and 1930s, strip mining was concentrated in sections 4 and 9 of Reed Township; by the 1940s, mining had expanded into southern Reed Township, ultimately encompassing large portions of sections 19, 20, 21, 28, 29, 30, 31, and 32. Strip mining in Will County ended by 1974.[100] Large portions of the township were left unsuitable for agriculture or other development. The piled up earth at the strip mined areas became overgrown with shrubs and trees, while the low-lying areas became ponds and wetlands. In recent decades, the strip mined areas have been reused as privately-owned recreational areas, such as the Braidwood Recreation Club (established in 1951 in section 9) and Shadow Lakes in section 4 as well as the cooling lake for the Braidwood Generating Station in the south part of the township.

Strip mine near Braidwood, January 30, 1939. Source: photo album in the collection of the Wilmington Public Library, donated by Charles I. Raworth.

[98] Maue, 350
[99] Maue, 350–351
[100] *Directory of Coal Mines in Illinois: Will County* (Champaign: Institute of Natural Resource Sustainability, Illinois State Geological Survey, July 2009).

Removing top soil for strip mining of coal, 1940s. Source: photo album in the collection of the Wilmington Public Library, donated by Charles I. Raworth.

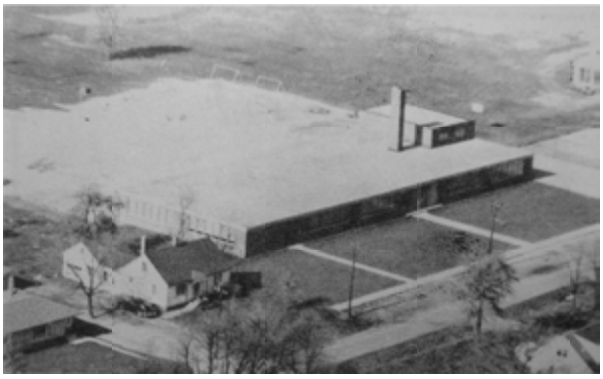
Debris piles of soil following coal mining, 1940s. Source: photo album in the collection of the Wilmington Public Library, donated by Charles I. Raworth. The numerous parallel ridges that resulted from strip mining are a distinctive landscape feature in Reed Township today.

The strip mining activities exposed a multitude of fossils, especially in the Mazon Creek stratum of ironstone, which formed under an ocean that covered much of Illinois during the Pennsylvanian Period, about 300 million years ago. One of these specimens, the Tully Monster (*Tullimonstrum gregarium*), which was designated the Illinois State Fossil in 1989, was found in a strip-mine pit just outside of Braidwood by Francis Tully in 1958.[101]

[101] www.museum.state.il.us/exhibits/symbols/fossil.html

By 1928, only the Lower Braidwood School and the East School remained open in Braidwood, one with two teachers and about sixty pupils, and the other with three teachers and a hundred pupils. There were also two rural schoolhouses, one at the southeast corner of section 30, and one in the southeast quarter of section 21. Reed Custer Township High School was organized in Braidwood in 1915, at first using space in the East School. By 1928 it had four teachers and forty-seven students.[102] Following a referendum, a new high school was constructed on the site of the former Grove School, on South School Street. The building was opened by September 1929.[103] The Lower Braidwood School was demolished in 1934 and replaced by a one-story, two-room school. This building remained in operation until school consolidation in the early 1950s. The building was closed and sold in 1954.[104]

Formerly, Braidwood was divided into two school districts for the north and south halves of the city. In 1951, the districts were consolidated to create Braidwood Community Consolidated District 5C. Upon completion of a new nine-room Braidwood Elementary School in September 1953 on School Street just to the south of the high school, the East School was closed. Additions to the new elementary school were completed in 1955, 1959, and 1962.[105]



Left: The new Braidwood Elementary School on School Street in 1955. Note that the corner of the high school is visible at the right edge of this view. Right: The Reed Custer Township High School in 1955.

The rural one-room schoolhouses of Reed Township were closed in the late 1950s, when the school districts were consolidated into the new Custer Park Community Consolidated District 44C. This school district built a new building in 1959 in Custer Park.

The Custer Park and Braidwood school districts ultimately merged to form Reed Custer Community Unit School District 255, covering all of both townships. Currently, the 1959 school building in Custer Park is operated as the Reed Custer Primary School for kindergarten and first grades; the Reed Custer Intermediate School for grades two through five occupies the 1953 elementary school building, much expanded by additions and incorporating the formerly separate high school building; and the Reed Custer Middle School for grades six through eight and the Reed Custer High School, which share a new campus on Comet Drive at the southeastern edge of the city.

In the twentieth century, the development of highway infrastructure in Reed Township linked the area more directly to the markets of Joliet and Chicago. In 1926, U.S. Route 66 was constructed as paved road linking Chicago to Santa Monica, California. The original route passed through Reed Township, parallel to the tracks of the Chicago & Alton Railroad on the south side. In the late 1930s, a new route for the

[102] Maue, 352
[103] Farrington, 293
[104] Farrington, 293–294. Possibly, this schoolhouse survives as a private house located at 617 North Center Street in Braidwood, but this could not be confirmed.
[105] Farrington, 294.

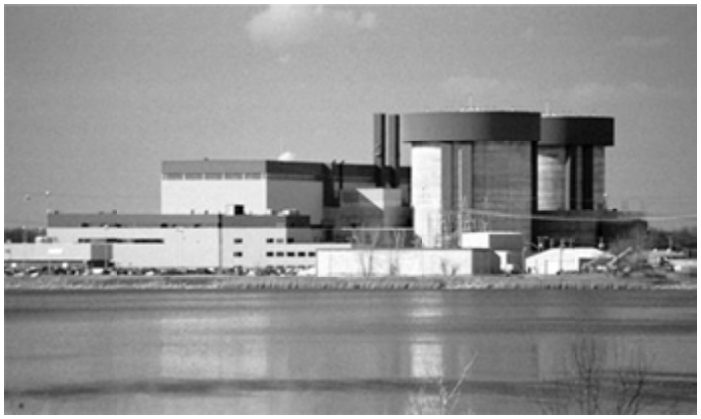
highway to bypass the City of Joliet was proposed. The new U.S. Route 66 was completed in 1938 and ran north-south in Wilmington Township, entering Reed Township at the northeast corner of section 4 before curving to run parallel to the Chicago & Alton Railroad (on the north side). The old route was re-designated U.S. Route 66 Alternate (currently Illinois Route 53). At about the same time, U.S. Route 52 was designated across Reed Township, following the irregular grid of preexisting section line roads as well as Main Street through downtown Braidwood (currently Illinois Route 113).

In 1956, U.S. Route 66 was upgraded to a four-lane divided highway, including a new bypass that curved west and southwest to bypass downtown Braidwood.[106] U.S. Route 66 was designated Interstate 55 by the 1960s.

The population of Braidwood and Reed Township began to grow in the decades following World War II. From 1,354 persons in the city in 1940, Braidwood grew to 1,485 by 1950 and 2,192 persons by 1965.

A new public library was organized in Braidwood in 1970. In 1979, the library district expanded to cover all of Reed Township and was renamed the Fossil Ridge Public Library. A new library building was constructed in 1983 on Kennedy Road in Braidwood. In the late 1980s and 1990s, Custer Township, Essex Township, and Salina Township and the communities of Braceville, Bonfield, Gardner, South Wilmington, and East Brooklyn joined the library district.[107]

As coal mining ended in the vicinity in the mid-1970s, a new form of energy production arrived in Reed Township. The Braidwood Generating Station, a nuclear power plant, was built in section 19, with its cooling lake occupying a 4,457-acre site reclaimed from a former strip mine. Although acquired by Commonwealth Edison in the mid-1970s, it was not until 1988 that the plant began commercial electricity production. Together, the two units can generate 2,360 megawatts of electricity, enough to power more than 2 million average American homes.[108]



The Braidwood Generating Station, with its cooling lake in the foreground.

In recent decades, although Braidwood and Reed Township have not experienced the explosive growth seen in other areas of Will County, the population has steadily increased, surpassing the nineteenth century peak by 2000, when 6,051 persons lived in the township, of which 5,203 were in the city of Braidwood. This represented growth of almost a third since 1990, when only 4,086 persons lived in the township.

[106] *City of Braidwood Comprehensive Plan* (2004), 11.
[107] www.fossilridge.org/history.htm
[108] www.exeloncorp.com/powerplants/braidwood/Pages/profile.aspx

Coal Mines

Thirty-five deep shaft mines have been identified in Reed Township, dating from 1861 to 1928.[109] There are also eight mines identified in Wilmington Township. The locations of these mines are shown on Maps 5 and 6 in Appendix B, which also indicates areas strip mined between 1928 and 1974. Some mine locations are not known with certainty; at other locations, above-ground features such as earthen piles continue to mark the mine site.

ISGS No.	Name	Company	Notes	Section
		Reed Township		
N/A	Braidwood Shaft	Braidwood Coal Co.	open by 1873	17
3916	Skinner	Skinner Brothers	1919–1928	4
3917	Skinner	Skinner Brothers	1920–1928	4
3918	ISGS 3918			5
3919	B Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	open by 1873	5
3920	D Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	Opened after 1873	5
3921	Shamrock	Murphy, Keenen & Co.	1903–1909	5
3922	F Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.		5
3923	H Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	opened after 1873	6
3924	L Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	open by 1873 and until 1889	6
3925	J Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	1887–1891	6
3926	G Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	open by 1873	7
3927	A Shaft (Eagle Shaft)	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	opened in 1869	8
3929	E Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	open by 1873	8
3930	Coop 1	Braidwood Coal Co.	1883-1890	8
3931	C Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	open by 1873	8
3932	ISGS 3932			16
3933	Joliet & Aurora No. 1	Joliet & Aurora Coal Co.	active in 1909	20
3935	Rixson	Rixson Coal Co.	active in 1909	30
3936	Skinner (Torino mine)	Skinner Brothers	active in 1909	31
3959	ISGS 3959			5
4590	Rixson	Rixson Coal Co.	active in 1909	30
5942	Eureka No. 2	Eureka Coal Co.	open by 1873	7
5943	Eureka No. 1	Eureka Coal Co.	open by 1873	7
5944	Eureka	Eureka Coal Co.		18
5945	Eureka	Eureka Coal Co.		18
5946	Maltby	William Maltby Mining Co.	1887–1888	4
5956	M Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	opened before 1888, active in 1893	19
5958	ISGS 5958			5
5959	ISGS 5959			4
5960	ISGS 5960			8
5962	ISGS 5962			8
5963	Hurry & Morgan	William Hurry	1861	17
5965	ISGS 5965		open by 1873	5
5967	ISGS 5967		open by 1873	8

[109] List derived from information provided by Sandy Vasko; ISGS database; USGS topographic maps; and historic atlas maps.

Wilmington Township				
224	Shamrock	Murphy, Lindsky & Kasher	1909–1916	32
2342	ISGS 2342			31
3937	N Shaft	Chicago, Wilmington & Vermilion Coal Co.	1890–1893	31
3939	Hunter	Hunter	before 1883	32
3940	Carrol	Carrol	Before 1883	32
5948	ISGS 5948		location uncertain	7
5951	ISGS 5951		location uncertain	29
5953	Skinner	Skinner Brothers	1919	33

Above: View looking west at debris/soil pile remaining at the site of the Shamrock mine in section 5 of Reed Township. Below: Debris/soil pile remaining adjacent to farmstead site 361 in section 5, mine identified in state database as ISGS 5958. Source: Photographs by Sandy Vasko.

Cemeteries

Mount Olivet Cemetery is located in section 21 of Reed Township and was established around 1880.[110]

Above left: The entrance to the cemetery. Above right and below: Views of the cemetery. In the view at lower right, note the electrical transmission wires and the cooling lake for the Braidwood Generating Station, which are in close proximity to the cemetery.

[110] ILGenWeb Project, http://will.ilgenweb.net/cem/mtolivet-b.htm

The Bohemian National Cemetery (Český Národní Hřbitov) in section 16 was organized in 1885 by Czech immigrants who had come to the area to work in the Braidwood coal mines. The five acre parcel was purchased by the cemetery trustees from Hugh and Catherine Ward for $150. Although the cemetery was organized in 1885 and the first burial record dates to 1887, grave markers dating to December 1873 have been observed in the cemetery, suggesting that the grounds were used for burial even before the official establishment of the cemetery. The cemetery remains open for new burials today.[111]

Above left: The entrance to the cemetery. Above right: View of grave markers in the cemetery. Below left: Historical marker placed in the cemetery in 1994. Below right: Disused maintenance shed in the cemetery.

[111] Shirline Yedlicka Skuban, *The Cemeteries of Will County, Illinois, No. 3: Bohemian National Braidwood* (Wilmington: Will/Grundy Counties Genealogical Society, n.d. [circa 1994]); ILGenWeb Project, http://usgwarchives.net/il/will/cemeteries/bohemian.htm

CHAPTER 3

AMERICAN RURAL ARCHITECTURE

Farmstead Planning

The relationship of the farmhouse to the barn and other farm buildings was generally determined by five factors: topography, weather conditions, convenience and labor efficiency, land survey organization, and, most importantly for some settlers, ethnic or regional tradition. A south-facing orientation secured maximum light; an orientation toward the east allowed a barn to place its back against west prevailing winds. Local snow accumulation also influenced barn locations. In much of the Midwest, the geometric grid of roads and survey lines was basically aligned with compass directions, and farmers often lined up their barns and farm buildings in conformity. Where the terrain was more rugged, farmers followed the contours of the land in laying out buildings. In terms of labor efficiency, the barn did not need to be near the house except in areas where winters were cold and harsh. It was desirable to locate the barn closer to the field and other outbuildings than to the house.

Development of Balloon Framing

The initial settlement of Will County coincided with one of the most revolutionary developments in American building construction: the introduction of the balloon frame. Referred to as "that most democratic of building technologies,"[112] the balloon frame allowed the construction of a house with a minimum of labor and a moderate amount of carpentry skills. The key to the success of the balloon frame was the proper construction and erection sequence of its components. Prior to the development of the balloon frame, builders using timber for the construction of houses and other structures used structural systems such as the box frame or braced frame. It utilized heavy timbers to form posts, girts, girders, braces, and rafters, all fastened together with traditional carpentry joining such as mortise and tenons, splices, dovetails, and others. This type of structural system required builders to have a crew of five or six men to raise and set the heavy timbers.[113] In comparison, the materials used in the construction of a balloon frame structure consisted of milled lumber that was much lighter in weight than heavy timbers.[114]

Credit for the development of the balloon frame is usually given to George Washington Snow of Chicago,[115] although others give note that the originator of the system was a carpenter, Augustine Taylor, who with Snow built the first structure using balloon frame construction, St. Mary's Church, in 1833.[116] At that time Chicago lacked a sawmill to produce the cut lumber, but mills were present in Indiana and in Plainfield in northwestern Will County.[117] However, these mills were relatively far away, and

[112] Michael P. Conzen, "The Birth of Modern Chicago," in *1848: Turning Point for Chicago, Turning Point for the Region* (Chicago: The Newberry Library, 1998), 22.
[113] For a thorough discussion of the early architectural history of Illinois, see Thomas Edward O'Donnell, "An Outline of the History of Architecture in Illinois," *Transactions of the Illinois State Historical Society* (Springfield, Illinois, 1931); and Thomas Edward O'Donnell, "Recording the Early Architecture of Illinois in the Historic American Buildings Survey," *Illinois State Historical Society, Transactions for the Year 1934* (Springfield, Illinois, 1934).
[114] Advances in milling techniques in the early 1800s and the invention and development of machinery to produce nails from iron in the late 1700s and early 1800s preceded the development of the balloon frame.
[115] Paul E. Sprague, "Chicago Balloon Frame: The Evolution During the 19th Century of George W. Snow's System for Erecting Light Frame Buildings from Dimension Lumber and Machine-made Nails," in *The Technology of Historic American Buildings,* H. Ward Jandl, ed. (Washington, D.C.: Foundation for Preservation Technology for the Association for Preservation Technology, 1983), 36.
[116] Fred W. Peterson, *Homes in the Heartland: Balloon Frame Farmhouses of the Upper Midwest, 1850–1920* (Lawrence, Kansas: University Press of Kansas, 1992), 14.
[117] Sprague, "Chicago Balloon Frame," 37.

transportation of milled heavy timbers difficult and expensive. Therefore, it was necessary to develop a more economical construction system.

The classic balloon frame consists of the following elements:[118]

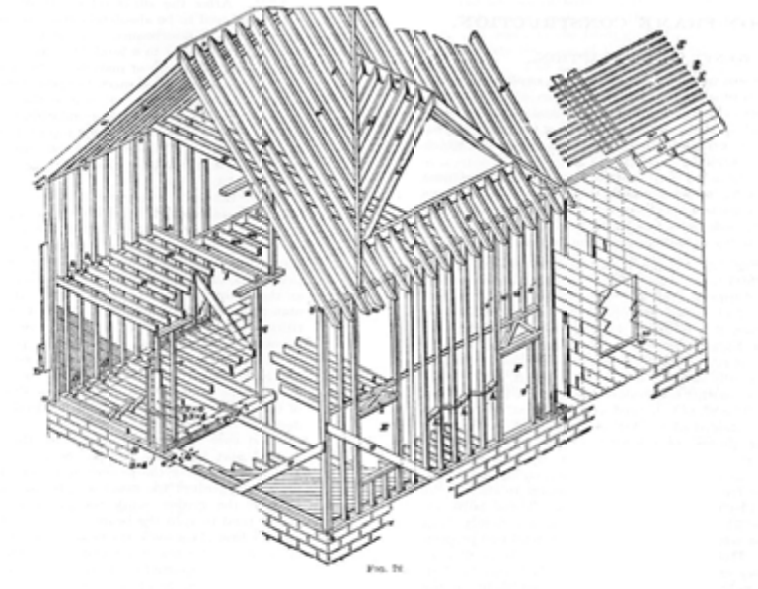
- A sill, made from a large section of milled lumber (e.g., 4x8) or two or more smaller pieces (two 2x8s), set on a masonry or concrete foundation,
- Floor joists (2x10, 2x12, etc.), typically at 16 inches on center,[119] reinforced by diagonal bridging, nailed to the sill and nailed to:
- Studs (2x4 or 2x6), also set at 16 inches on center, running the full height of the building wall, to which is nailed:
- Ledgers to support the second floor joints,
- Exterior wall sheathing, consisting of wood boards (1x8), often set at a diagonal to create a structural diaphragm,
- A top plate on the stud wall, on which are set:
- Roof rafters (2x10, 2x12, etc.) set at 16 to 24 inches on center, to which roof sheathing consisting of wood boards are nailed, followed by wood roofing shingles,
- Exterior wall siding,
- Flooring nailed to the wood joists, consisting of two layers of wood boards (a rough board subfloor followed by a finished wood strip surface),
- Interior wall finish, consisting of wood lath nailed to the wood studs, covered by two to three layers of plaster.

Since a carpenter with one or two helpers could frame and sheath a small, one-story house in one week, the balloon allowed a settler to have a dwelling on their land in a short amount of time. In addition, there was a 40 percent savings in the amount of material to enclose the same volume as compared to the braced frame.[120] Additions were as easy to construct as the original house and easier to frame into than if braced framing was used. Another benefit of the balloon frame's light weight was that it allowed a structure to be moved more easily to a new site, if more room was needed on a property for other buildings or if additional land was obtained.

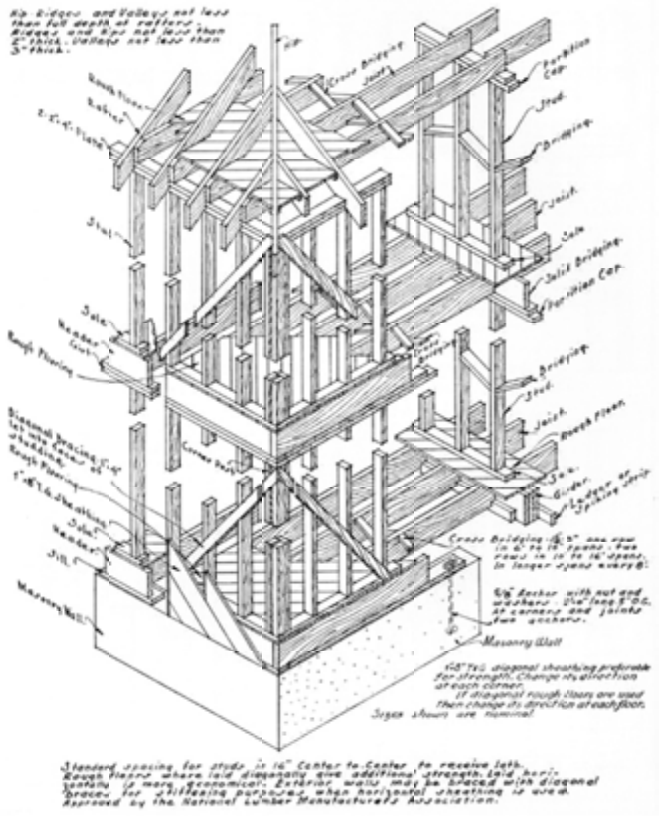
[118] As with any new system or technique, there was a period of transition in which older framing methods were used alongside balloon framing. This is discussed in Sprague, "Chicago Balloon Frame."

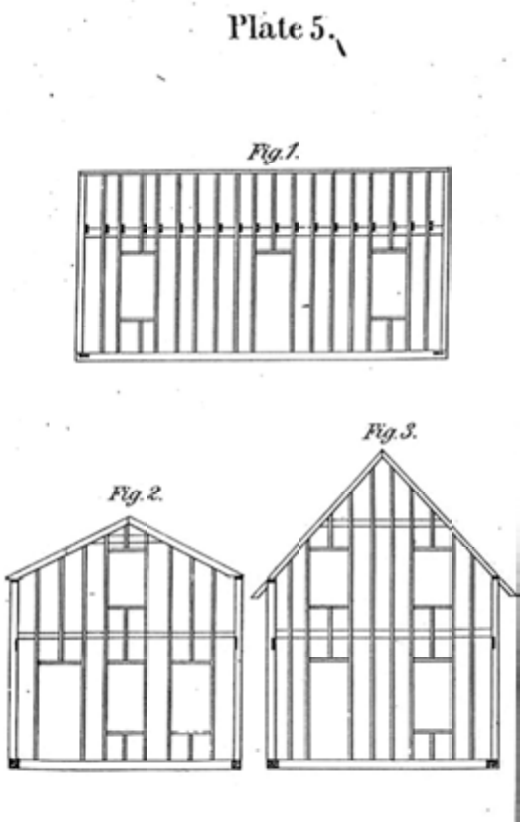
[119] Platform framing, also called Western framing, developed from balloon framing, allowing floor joists to be spaced up to 24 inches on center. Platform framing involved setting each floor level as a platform on the stud walls, allowing the use of shorter stud walls.

[120] Peterson, 9 and 11.



*The balloon frame derived its name from the lightweight framing that allowed a large volume of space to be enclosed economically. The drawing shown above is from was published nearly sixty years after the system was developed [*Masonry, Carpentry, Joinery*, International Library of Technology Volume 30 (1889; reprint Chicago: Chicago Review Press, 1980), Carpentry section, drawing between pages 101 and 102]. Below right is a drawing of balloon framing from 1894 [William E. Bell,* Carpentry Made Easy, or the Science and Art of Framing *(Philadelphia: Ferguson Bros. & Co., 1894), plate 5]. Below left is a drawing of platform or Western framing construction, a development from balloon framing, published in the 1930s [Charles George Ramsey and Harold Reeve Sleeper,* Architectural Graphic Standards*, 3rd ed. (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1941)].*





Farming trade publications touted the benefits of the balloon frame.[121] Its inherent advantages led American farmers to adopt the balloon frame as the standard structural framing system for houses by the end of the century. Although many ethnic groups brought their own techniques of constructing farmhouses and farm buildings with them to the United States, they often adopted balloon framing techniques in whole or in part and adapted it to their traditions.[122]

As different architectural styles were introduced, the balloon frame was easily modified to create the forms and spaces required. Albert Britt of Illinois, in his book *An America That Was*, describes his family's new farmhouse that "cost nearly a thousand dollars":

> Farmhouses were built without benefit of architect or reference to a particular style or period. Such plans as existed were principally in the head of the local carpenter who bossed the job. Ours was named Perkins and he came from Alexis, all of six miles away . . . A model of our house could have been made easily with a set of child's building blocks, but it was roomy and comfortable without dormers, turrets, or scrollsaw ornamentation, which were unpleasantly common on dwellings of that time. Prime consideration was enough interior space to suit a family's needs, and if the house was leakproof through rain and snow and windproof for anything short of a cyclone, all hands were satisfied. Houses were painted white, window blinds green. Barns were always painted red and as the color weathered some of the barns were beautiful. If a barn was in sight from the road it usually had the year of construction painted on it in large white numerals.[123]

With the completion of the new farmhouse, Britt goes on to describe how the older farm structures were adapted for new functions: "with the building of a new home the little old one became a stable for horses, and the lean-to kitchen the family smokehouse."[124] This shows the flexibility that the framing system allowed, since these new functions required new or larger openings, relocating the structure, or construction of additions.

[121] Peterson, 15–24.
[122] One example was German-Russian farmers from Eastern Europe: "German-Russians eventually combined *Batsa* brick with balloon-frame construction, placing clay brick in walls between the studs to stabilize and insulate the dwelling." (Michael Koop, "German-Russians," in *America's Architectural Roots: Ethnic Groups that Built America,* Dell Upton, ed. (New York: Preservation Press, John Wiley & Sons, 1986), 131.)
[123] Albert Britt, *An America That Was* (Barre, Massachusetts: Barre Publishers, 1964), 33.
[124] Ibid.

Masonry Construction

Brick

Historically, brick masonry construction is relatively uncommon in the survey region. Nineteenth century examples of brick construction are very rare; typically, the locally abundant limestone was used for masonry work, which is typically to building foundations.

Joliet Limestone

One building material dating from the earliest period of European settlement in Will County was limestone quarried from the Des Plaines and Du Page River Valleys. These same regions later provided gravel for use in concrete construction in Will County and the Chicago area. The Des Plaines River Valley contains numerous quarries of limestone, referred to as Joliet Limestone. These quarries were utilized first for limestone for masonry construction but are primarily used today as sources of gravel.

The area surrounding Joliet contains abundant supplies of limestone, derived predominantly from the Niagaran strata. Owing to oxidation of ferrous minerals contained in the stone, the color of the stone ranges from buff near the surface to gray tones at deeper levels. Its surface is a hard, compact and slightly porous, brittle dolomite. The stone has thin seams of greenish clay (chert) running through the whole mass, which upon long exposure in alternately wet and dry conditions causes the solid calcium carbonate layers to delaminate.[125]

A prosperous period for quarrying stone in the Joliet area began during the 1830s and lasted until nearly the end of the century. Martin H. Demmond was the first to quarry stone in the Joliet district, most likely on the bluffs west of the Des Plaines River overlooking the fledgling Joliet settlement. Commercial quarrying activities began about a decade later, when William Davidson and his brother opened the first of their quarries in 1845, one mile south of Joliet at a point where the canal turns west-southwest with the curve of the river.[126]

The opening of the I & M Canal in 1848 provided an easy means to transport stone quarried in western Will County. Also, by the mid-1850s tracks for the Chicago and Rock Island Railroad had been laid between the river and canal, affording quarries access to more transportation facilities. The limestone industry grew steadily, both in number and acreage size of firms.

The Great Chicago Fire of 1871 provided enormous stimulation to the stone quarrying industry. Not only was stone needed at once to replace destroyed buildings, especially in the city center, but new building ordinances created a "fire" zone in which wood construction was (in theory) prohibited. Many new quarries were started to cater to the increased demand. For example, the Joliet Stone Company incorporated in 1872.[127] As the quarry industry peaked in the 1880s, many smaller businesses were bought out by much larger operations or forced by competition to abandon their sites. The consolidation of established quarries changed the methods of the business. Tools to crush, cut, rub, and saw stone became more advanced and raised production, while some of the old established quarries saw themselves eclipsed by newer and larger enterprises.

However, the development of smoother business links with customers in metropolitan areas could not offset competition from alternative sources with superior building stone, especially limestone quarried near Bedford, Indiana. The availability of the more durable Indiana limestone and the discovery of the

[125] Linda Ponte, "The Celebrated Joliet Marble Field," in *An Historical Geography of the Lower Des Plaines Valley Limestone Industry, Time and Place in Joliet,* Michael Conzen, ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago, 1988), 15.
[126] Robert E. Sterling, *Joliet: Transportation and Industry: A Pictorial History* (St. Louis, Missouri: G. Bradley Publishing, Inc., 1997), 116.
[127] Ibid.

lack of long-term durability of the Joliet stone, in addition to the introduction of other building materials such as concrete, led to the gradual decline of the Joliet area stone industry. Some quarries survived by shifting production to crushed stone to use as aggregate for concrete or road and railroad construction.

Within Reed Township, Joliet limestone is used for foundations of some of the oldest surviving historic structures. Unlike areas in northwestern Will County that were closer to quarries, historic stone buildings were not identified in Reed Township.

Concrete

Although concrete was used by the Romans in antiquity, its use in recent times dates from the mid-nineteenth century. In 1860, S. T. Fowler patented a type of reinforced concrete wall construction, but it was not until the 1870s and 1880s that examples had actually been constructed. By 1900 numerous systems of reinforced concrete construction had been patented.[128]

Concrete was seen as a material with great potential for use on the farm. Farmers were given guidance in using concrete on the farm, recommending its use in a variety of structures:

> Concrete can be used on the farm for residences, barns, poultry houses, garages, piggeries, stalls and mangers, milk houses, machine sheds, ice houses, silos, all kinds of tanks and troughs, vats and wallows, manure pits, septic tanks, piers and foundations, sidewalls, steps, driveways, hen nests, pump pits, fence posts, etc.
>
> ———
>
> Of all the buildings on the farm, which should be built of concrete, probably none is more important than the silo. Here is a structure in which it is essential to keep the silage fresh in order that the stock may be keep thrifty and growing all winter. The silo prevents a waste of corn stalks, which contain about one-third of the food value of the entire crop, and it enables a large number of animals to be maintained on a given number of acres. The concrete silo is ratproof, windproof, fireproof and will withstand cyclones. It will not dry out in the hot summer months, keeps the silage in perfect condition and can be constructed at a moderate first cost. There are four types of silos: Monolithic, cement block, stave and cement plaster construction.
>
> . . . Concrete buildings contain no crevices in which to harbor vermin, and this freedom from lice makes it possible for the birds to retain more flesh at the end of the setting period and therefore more strength. Poultry can withstand dry cold when housed, but cannot endure dampness or drafts from below, and a concrete floor will also keep out rats. Instances are known where concrete is used successfully for nests, dropping platforms and roosts, thus greatly simplifying the problem of cleaning. The first requirement of a milk house is that it is scrupulously clean, and the construction should be such as to eliminate breeding places for germs and cracks or crevices for dirt to collect, making cleaning difficult or impossible. A milk house properly constructed of concrete fulfills these requirements, and concrete floors are recommended for sanitary reasons, with proper provisions for draining. The milk house should be located with reference to other buildings, such as stables and manure pits.[129]

The survey area contains relatively few examples of cast-in-place concrete structures, which were generally observed only for building foundations.

[128] William B. Coney, "Preservation of Historic Concrete: Problems and General Approaches," National Park Service Preservation Brief 15, 2.
[129] "The Use of Concrete Work on the Farm," *Building Age* (February 1917), 102–103.

Concrete Block

Beginning in the early 1900s, mass production of concrete block units succeeded after several earlier developments failed to lead to widespread production.[130] Harmon S. Palmer patented a cast iron machine with a removable core and adjustable sides in 1900, allowing companies and cottage industries to spring up across the country. Palmer founded the Hollow Building Block Company in 1902, selling $200 block machines. Other manufacturers who flooded the market with similar machines (without directly infringing on Palmer's patent) led to increased use of concrete block in building construction.

The blocks were produced by mixing Portland cement, water, sand, and gravel aggregate; placing the mixture in the machine and tamping it down to eliminate voids; and pulling a lever to release the block from the machine. Newly made blocks were stacked until the concrete cured, typically for one month. Blocks were made with a variety of face textures and even color, with "rockface" block being one of the most popular styles.[131]

Although early block machines and block manufacturers produced units relatively larger than contemporary units, by the mid-1920s standards were introduced by concrete products organizations that included fabrication of units 8 by 8 by 16 inches in size. Other standards, produced by the National Association of Cement Users, the Concrete Producers Association, and the Concrete Block Manufacturers Association, promoted testing to improve quality.[132] However, concrete block began to fall out of favor as a building facing material during this same period. During the 1930s, smooth-faced block began to dominate the industry as architectural styles changed. Also by the later 1930s, mass production of block units began to supplant the use of earlier concrete block machines.

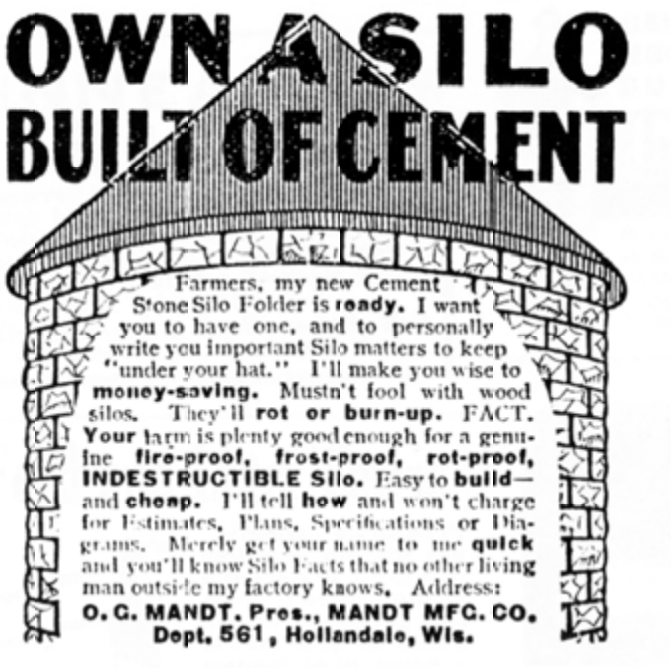
Just as with concrete, farmers were encouraged to use concrete block for their structures. At the annual meeting of the Illinois Farmers' Institute in 1913, one lecturer discussed concrete block for silos:

> It is clear that the cash outlay for material becomes of the first importance and cost of labor becomes second. To illustrate, a man in such circumstances might have gravel on his farm. Also, he might have lumber, which he could use temporarily for the scaffold. The cost of cement block molds is slight, and if this man were somewhat of a mechanic, he would find it advantageous to secure a mold or molds and make his own cement blocks at odd times. In this way a cement block silo could be built with less cash outlay than any other form of silo.[133]

Building trade journals also promoted the use of concrete block on the farm:

> If one may judge from the demand and the variety of uses to which it is put, the concrete block is the most important of all cement products. When properly made it has not failed to give satisfaction as a building material and much of its popularity has resulted from the pleasing architectural effects that have been brought about. Hollow blocks represent a considerable saving in cost, without reducing the strength so as to impair the safety of the building. The use of facings to bring about pleasing exterior treatments has its advantages while the interior air chambers allow them to conduct heat or cold but slowly. This fact makes buildings of this material warm in winter.

[130] Pamela H. Simpson, *Cheap, Quick, and Easy: Imitative Architectural Materials, 1870–1930* (Knoxville, Tennessee: University of Tennessee Press, 1999), 11.
[131] Ibid., 24.
[132] Ibid., 21–22.
[133] M.L. King, "Planning the Silo," in *Eighteenth Annual Report of the Illinois Farmers' Institute,* H.A. McKeene, ed. (Springfield, Illinois: Illinois State Journal Company, 1914), 64.



By the 1910s, farmers had several choices of silos using concrete block. Both advertisements are from the farm journal Hoard's Dairyman*, 1909.*

Classification of Farmhouses

Most built structures can be grouped into one of three categories of stylistic classification: "high style," where the building clearly relates to a defined architectural style in form and detail; vernacular or "folk architecture," where builders or owners without formal architectural training construct buildings based on regional or cultural customs, and where stylistic elements derived from style books are applied or mixed within the same structure; and utilitarian, where style is entirely secondary and efficient use of materials is the primary factor in the design. Most buildings fall into the categories of vernacular and utilitarian. Farmhouses were usually built by a builder or carpenter, and reflect general types of houses popular at the time. A discussion of the utilitarian types of farm buildings is covered later in this chapter. The discussion below first describes the architectural *styles* found to some degree in the survey area. This is followed by an outline of the *types* of farmhouses, since most of these structures are better categorized by this means, with only the applied ornament being classified by style. Some houses in the survey area have undergone extensive renovations, making identification of a style or type difficult. In these situations, an assessment has been made as to possible original style or type with notes made in the comment portion of each survey form giving additional information on additions or alterations.

Architectural Style

In the second half of the nineteenth century, architectural styles were disseminated through style books promoting not only aesthetic features of houses but also the orderly qualities for a proper domestic environment.[134] Another source of building ideas was agricultural journals. Although carpenters and builders rarely followed such books and journals exactly, these publications did influence the types of houses being constructed (as discussed in the next section) as well as the stylistic elements applied to those houses. Although it is unlikely that many of the buildings in the survey area were built using designs or supervision of academically trained architects, many of the farmhouses were built by carpenters and builders competent at applying fashionable architectural styles in their work.

Due to the relatively small size of Reed Township and the presence of relatively few farmsteads, the styles described below are not present among the buildings surveyed. Refer to other previously completed summary reports for illustrations of these styles.

Greek Revival

The Greek Revival style was popular in the United States beginning in the 1820s and continued in some regions until the 1870s. Inspired by archaeological excavations and measured drawings of ancient Greek temples, the style was developed by America's first trained architects and spread by pattern books that influenced carpenters and builders across the relatively young United States. American culture found an identification with the democracy in Ancient Greece. Greek Revival buildings have simple rectilinear forms, prominent classical ornament, molded cornices and window lintels, and other ornamental motifs inspired by Classical architecture. The style's simple massing and details went along with the sometimes limited materials and resources of rural areas.

Gothic Revival

Gothic Revival was roughly contemporary with Greek Revival, although with very different inspiration. It utilized late Medieval Gothic forms that have vertically oriented massing with steeply sloped roofs, and detail features such as pointed arches, narrow lancet windows, decorative bargeboards and finials, battlemented parapets, and clusters of chimney stacks. Like Greek Revival, pattern books guided architects and builders. Andrew Jackson Downing's *The Architecture of Country Houses* helped popularize this style.

[134] Peterson, *Homes in the Heartland,* 68.

Italianate
Italianate, or Italianate Victorian, was one of the most popular and fashionable building styles in the mid-1800s, popular from about 1850 to 1880. Inspired by Italian Renaissance architecture, Italianate style houses feature rectilinear massing, low pitched roofs, overhanging eaves with bracketed cornice, and tall rectangular windows. Other features often present are moldings or hoods around window lintels (which are sometimes arched) and polygonal or rectangular bays or towers.

Second Empire
Roughly contemporary with Italianate was the Second Empire style, which took its name from the public buildings with mansard roofs built under French emperor Napoleon III. (The first empire was the reign of his uncle, Napoleon). The style was transformed and applied in the United States to domestic as well as institutional buildings. In addition to the mansard roof and architectural features often present on Italianate buildings, Second Empire buildings often feature rich classical or baroque detailing and dormer windows with moldings or hoods.

Queen Anne
Popular in the last two decades of the nineteenth century, this building style in its purest form utilized irregular, asymmetrical massing and floor plans, several types of building materials, and extensive ornament to create an eclectic architectural tapestry that was often picturesque and entertaining. None of the farmhouses in the survey region reflect all of the primary elements of Queen Anne, although the massing and details of some of them show Queen Anne influence, likely due to the influence of the style on builders and carpenters. The name "Queen Anne" for this style of design was popularized by nineteenth century English architects led by Richard Norman Shaw, although the architectural precedents from the reign of Queen Anne (1702–1714) have little connection to this heavily ornamented style.

Colonial and Georgian Revival
After the comparative excesses of the Italianate, Second Empire, and Queen Anne styles, the Colonial and Georgian Revival styles are more restrained and utilize stricter use of ornament and proportion. Introduced on the east coast at the end of the nineteenth century, the Colonial Revival style spread to the Midwest over the next decade and became an influential style for larger homes and public buildings into the 1930s. The rectilinear forms of Colonial Revival structures are often symmetrical and have gabled roofs with dormers, classical columns and ornament, and ornamental window shutters. Georgian Revival buildings differ in that they adhere more closely to symmetrical floor plans, have strong cornice lines, Flemish bond brick coursing, watertables, and other elements of traditional Colonial period architecture.

Craftsman or Arts and Crafts Style
The Arts and Crafts movement originated in England in the mid-nineteenth century, although it did not become fashionable in the United States until the first two decades of the twentieth century. The style favored simple designs with natural materials, low-pitched roofs, battered wall treatments, exposed rafters, and casement and double hung windows.

Prairie Style
The Prairie Style was developed by several architects in the Midwest but originated chiefly from the Chicago area, where Frank Lloyd Wright, Walter Burley Griffin, Marion Mahony Griffin, William Purcell, and George Elmslie (among others) formulated a set of principles uniquely suited to and inspired by the American suburban and rural landscape. In many ways this style developed from the Arts and Crafts movement, although it was a distinct style with its own characteristics. Prairie Style structures are characterized by broad, horizontal massing, hipped and gabled roofs with deep overhangs, asymmetrical floor plans, and geometric detailing based on nature motifs. Natural and earth-toned materials such as wood, stucco, and brick predominate, and windows often have leaded glass windows that repeat and develop nature motifs. The style was fashionable from around 1895 to 1920.

Tudor Revival

From about 1910 to 1940, Tudor Revival was one of several fashionable revival styles in practice. Based on English late medieval architecture, the style was adapted to unique American building forms created by the balloon frame. Although Tudor Revival buildings were also built in stone, the use of wood and stucco to imitate a half-timbered appearance was a predominant feature. Often times only the ground or first floor was clad with stone while the upper story was clad with wood and stucco "half-timbering." The style also utilized asymmetrical floor plans and massing, narrow multi-paned windows, prominent masonry chimneys, and steeply sloped roofs.

House Types

Vernacular residential dwellings are not always suited to classification by architectural style because style is not the primary organizing principle in their design. Most vernacular houses relate to a *type* that describes or classifies their massing and floor plan. This section discusses the different types of housing found specifically in the survey area. Additional types and subtypes do exist but have been excluded because they are not pertinent to the discussion of Will County farmhouses.

During the survey, few structures could be readily identified that date from the earliest period of settlement (approximately the 1840s and 1850s). House types dating from the earliest settlement may have used configurations known as single pen or double pen, which basically are one or two room houses respectively. A double pen dogtrot consists of two rooms with the space in between covered by the roof. A saddlebag house is similar to the double pen except for the inclusion of a central chimney between the two rooms.

The house types classified below are those that are typically found in the survey area. As with any classification system, alternate systems could be utilized. Most of the definitions provided below were derived from *How to Complete the Ohio Historic Inventory* by Stephen C. Gordon.[135] Building forms followed the movement of settlers from New England westward through the Ohio Valley to Illinois.[136] However, a significant number of the settlers in the survey area were new immigrants to the United States. Their influence on the region's buildings is visible in some of the extant house types, but more readily visible in the barns and other farm structures.

Many of these types are not present in Reed Township and therefore are not illustrated in this report; refer to other previously completed summary reports for examples of these types.

I House

This housing type was first identified in Indiana and was traced to origins in the Middle Atlantic states. Houses of the same type were later identified in the other Midwestern "I" states of Illinois and Iowa, leading to the name "I House."[137] The form consists of a two story, one room deep plan that is at least two rooms wide. Chimneys were often placed at each end of the floor plan. No examples of the I House type were identified in Reed Township during the survey.

Hall and Parlor

The Hall and Parlor house is a simple rectangular plan dwelling one to one-and-a-half stories in height, with a side oriented gable roof. In plan, these types of houses have one larger room for the kitchen and daily living and a side room used as a more formal parlor or a bedroom. There is often an addition at the rear of the house extending from the parlor side. Chimneys are often placed at each end of the house. The type was used less often after the late 1800s.[138] No Hall and Parlor houses were identified in the survey area. Some houses in the survey may have started as Hall and Parlor types, but through renovations and additions have evolved into other forms.

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[135] Stephen C. Gordon, *How to Complete the Ohio Historic Inventory* (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio Historic Preservation Office, 1992).

[136] For overviews of patterns of ethnic migration and diffusion, see Fred B. Kniffen, "Folk Housing: Key to Diffusion," in *Common Places: Readings in American Vernacular Architecture,* Dell Upton and John Michael Vlach, eds. (Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1986); and John A. Jakle, Robert W. Bastian, and Douglas K. Meyer, *Common Houses in America's Small Towns: The Atlantic Seaboard to the Mississippi Valley* (Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1989).

[137] Kniffen, 7–8.

[138] Gordon, 125. Since the form can be confused with later cottage types of houses, one feature that can date it properly is the height to width ratios of the window openings: tall window openings usually date a house to the 1800s.

New England One and a Half

This house type is a rectangular plan dwelling, one to one-and-a-half stories in height and at least two bays wide. Flanking a central entrance hall and stairs are two large rooms with two or more smaller rooms across the rear of the house. Some houses of this type are not symmetrical across the front, depending upon the interior layout. New England One and a Half houses were popular from the earliest days of settlement in Will County in the 1830s up to the Civil War. They often include Greek Revival ornament, such as pilasters, architraves, cornice returns, and entablature panels. Farming settlers emigrating from New England, where this house type originated, brought this house type with them to the Midwest. No New England One and a Half type houses were identified Reed Township.

Side Hallway

Side Hallway houses are typically simple rectilinear volumes, two stories in height, and often with gable roofs oriented to the front or the side. In plan the entry is at the end bay of the front elevation, opening into the main stair hall. Adjacent to the hall is the main parlor with additional rooms at the rear of the house. The form was popular until the 1880s.[139] No examples of Side Hallway type houses were identified in Reed Township during the survey.

Upright and Wing

The Upright and Wing was popular in the mid to late 1800s.[140] The type consists of an upright portion with a gable end, usually one-and-a-half to two stories, and a one to one-and-a-half story wing. The gable end of the wing is usually at or below the eave of the upright. Upright and Wing type houses have T- or L-shaped floor plans. Inside, the wing contains a kitchen and one or two bedrooms and the upright a parlor and additional bedrooms.[141] Several examples of the Upright and Wing type were documented in Reed Township. These houses represent the best preserved historic farmhouses in the township.

Left: The house at the Kopecky–Powell Farmstead (site 358 in section 5 of Reed Township) has evolved into an Upright-and-wing type, following the addition of a two-story wing after 1955. Right: The house at the Wosoloski–Markiel Farmstead, site 370 in section 18, represents a typical late nineteenth century upright-and-wing type.

[139] Ibid., 126.

[140] Peterson groups the Upright and Wing with the Gabled Ell type (both being forms of L- or T-plan houses), making it "the most numerous and familiar farmhouse type in the Upper Midwest…" (Peterson, *Homes in the Heartland,* 96.) Peterson also notes that many L- and T-plan houses are the result of additions being constructed to existing rectangular house forms (Ibid., 99).

[141] Gordon, *How to Complete the Ohio Historic Inventory,* 132.

Gabled Ell

The Gabled Ell house type usually dates from the two decades after the Civil War.[142] It has an L-shaped plan, sometimes with additions to form a T-shaped plan, and usually is two stories in height with a gabled roof. Within the main "L" there is often a porch. In most arrangements, the gable end of the shorter of the two wings faces the street or main approach with the broad side of the other wing at the side. Although common elsewhere in Will County, no examples of the Gabled Ell type were identified in Reed Township.

Four-over-Four

The Four-over-Four basically consists of a central hallway flanked by two rooms on each side in a house two to two-and-a-half stories in height. This house type usually has a gable roof, with the ridge line running parallel to the front face. Exploiting balloon frame construction, the form was popular in the middle 1800s, although it returned during the vogue of the Colonial and Georgian Revival styles. No examples of the Four-over-Four type were identified in Reed Township during the survey.

Gable Front

The Gable Front house describes a variety of house types dating from the mid-1800s through the 1920s. It is similar to the Four-over-Four, except that the main entrance at the gable end facing the street or main approach. It is also similar to the Side Hallway type, and usually has a rectangular floor plan. Several examples of the Gable Front type were identified in Reed Township during the survey, although these houses often have later additions that obscure their original character.

American Foursquare

The American Foursquare[143] was introduced around 1900 and continued to be popular until the 1920s. It consists of a two to two-and-a-half story block with a roughly square floor plan with four rooms on each floor. Roofs are hipped or pyramidal, with dormer windows (hipped and gable) on at least the front elevation and sometimes the side and rear elevations. Foursquares usually have front porches but may also have bay windows (some extending both stories) and one story rear additions. Many Foursquares were built from plans developed by local lumber companies or mail order sources that advertised in farm journals; others were purchased whole and delivered as pre-cut, ready-to-assemble houses from Sears, Roebuck and Company or home manufacturers. Unlike other townships previously surveyed, no farmhouses of the American Foursquare type were identified in Reed Township.

Bungalow

The term bungalow derives from the word *bangla,* an Indian word adopted by the British in the nineteenth century for a one story house with porches. The American house form descended from the Craftsman movement, using natural materials and simple forms to create an informal domestic environment. Popular from approximately 1905 to 1935, there are two basic types of bungalows (and numerous subtypes), each deriving its name from the dominant roof forms. The Dormer Front Bungalow (also called the Shed Roof Bungalow) has a gable or shed roof turned parallel to the front elevation and a single large dormer. The Gable Front has a front facing gable, with the ridge of the roof running perpendicular to the main elevation. The relatively few examples of the Bungalow type in the survey area are somewhat simpler than those found in city and suburban neighborhoods and lack stylistic features such as exposed roof beams, ornamental wall trim, or shingle siding. A few examples of the bungalow type were identified during the survey of Reed Township, although they have been altered, obscuring the original character.

[142] Ibid., 136.

[143] The term "American Foursquare" was coined by Clem Labine, former editor of the *Old-House Journal.* (Gordon, *How to Complete the Ohio Historic Inventory,* 137.)

Cape Cod

The Cape Cod was a popular house type from the 1920s to the early 1950s. The type was inspired by eighteenth century cottages in Massachusetts and Virginia.[144] The Cape Cod has a simple rectangular plan, one story in height with dormers and a gable roof. No Cape Cod style farmhouses were identified during the survey of Reed Township.

Ranch

Because the ranch type is a relatively recent domestic architecture development (it generally dates from the post-World War II era), ranch style houses were generally not recorded in the rural survey. The presence of a ranch style house was noted on the site plan of surveyed farmsteads to indicate that these houses likely replaced the original house on the site or provided an additional dwelling on the property. Ranch style houses are usually one or at most two stories and have rambling floor plans and relatively low-pitched hipped or gabled roofs. Although much of the newer housing in recently developed areas has features and elements reminiscent of older architectural styles (Colonial Revival, Dutch Colonial, or even Queen Anne), its true architectural lineage traces back to the ranch houses of the 1950s and 1960s. Ranch houses are the most common house type documented in Reed Township during the survey. The presence of a disproportionate number of twentieth century houses relates to the relatively poor quality of the Reed Township soils for agriculture and the disruption to historic farmsteads caused by coal mining and other industrial developments.

Left: The ranch house at the Lestina Farmstead, site 357 in section 6. Right: The ranch house at the Strachan Farmstead, site 380 in section 17.

Left: The ranch house at the Nelson–Corbin Farmstead, site 389 in section 28. Right: The much-expanded house at the Hetzel–McCawley Farmstead, site 395 in section 18, is classified as a ranch house.

[144] Ibid., 140.

Development of the Barn

The barns of the Midwest have several typical functions: animal shelter, crop storage, crop processing, equipment storage, and machinery repair. However, barns also have specialized functions designated by adjectives such as "sheep" barn or "dairy" barn. In some instances a substitute term was used such as hog house or implement shed, especially if a larger multipurpose "barn" is also on the farm. Nonetheless, these structures shared some similar forms and structural systems.[145]

Pioneer settlers, faced with clearing virgin forest or breaking sod, usually had little time to do more than erect a roughhouse and perhaps a crude animal shelter in the first years of settlement. Not until after some ten years on a homestead, or perhaps not even until the second generation, did the pioneer have the means to construct a large barn.[146]

The need for large barns necessitated the development of structural systems to enclose large volumes of space. As the frontier of settlement passed into the Midwest, many early barns were constructed of logs by settlers who either possessed log-building skills or gained these techniques by association with other ethnic or cultural groups. Although the eastern Midwest was well forested, providing sufficient log materials, the prairies of the central Midwest (including Illinois) had less forested land to supply log construction. Therefore, other solutions were required.[147]

The skeletal framework of barns consists typically of sill timbers resting directly on the foundation (usually stone, although concrete was introduced in the early 1900s). The sills also form the substructure for the floor joists and wall framing. The barn's joists sometimes remained round, except for the top side, which was flattened to accommodate floorboards. Most early barns had a gable roof composed of rafters, rough sawn boards, and wooden shingles. Vertically attached boards, some as large as fourteen inches wide, ran from the sill to the top plate of the wall for siding on timber frame barns.[148]

As discussed earlier in this chapter, light framing techniques and advanced wood milling machines influenced the development of Midwestern farmhouses. However, barns continued to be built with heavy timber. As these large framing members became scarce and expensive in the early twentieth century, new innovations were sought, such as plank framing that featured the substitution of plank lumber for heavy long, square timbers.[149]

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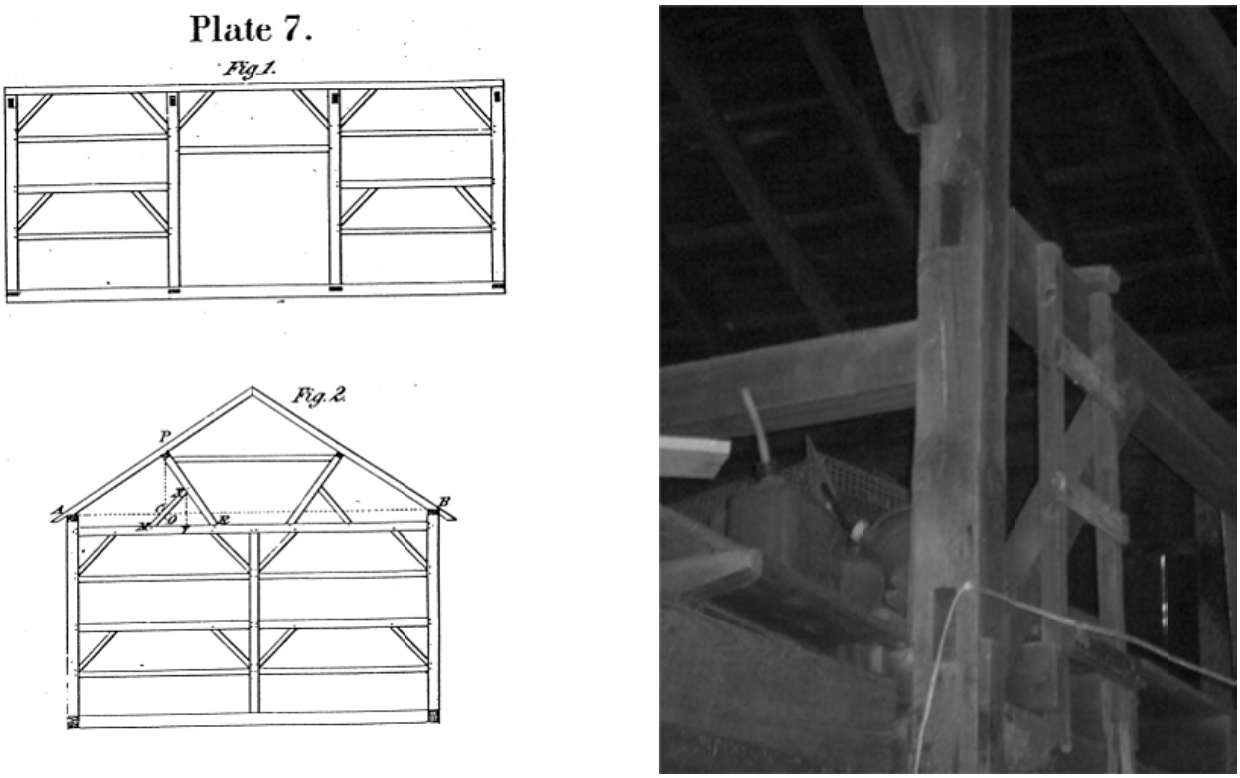
[145] Allen G. Noble and Hubert G. H. Wilhelm, "The Farm Barns of the American Midwest," in *Barns of the Midwest,* Allen G. Noble and Hubert G. H. Wilhelm, ed. (Athens, Ohio: Ohio University Press, 1995), 9.
[146] Hubert G.H. Wilhelm, "Midwestern Barns and Their Germanic Connections," in *Barns of the Midwest*, 65.
[147] Ibid.
[148] Ibid., 48–50.
[149] Lowell J. Soike, "Within the Reach of All: Midwest Barns Perfected," in *Barns of the Midwest,* Allen G. Noble and Hubert G. H. Wilhelm, ed. (Athens, Ohio: Ohio University Press, 1995), 147. Two major forms of plank framing developed. The first took dimension plank lumber and imitated heavy timber framing, carrying the loads through posts and beams. The second type opened up the center of the barn by using a truss for the framing bents. This was followed by an adaptation of the balloon framing for barn construction. Stud walls replaced posts and girts for handling loads; roof loads were carried by trusses made from lighter weight lumber (Ibid., 155–156).



Left: A drawing of heavy timber barn framing from 1894 [William E. Bell, Carpentry Made Easy, or the Science and Art of Framing *(Philadelphia: Ferguson Bros. & Co., 1894), plate 7]. Right: The framing of the barn at the Alden Farmstead, site 454 in section 35 of Wilmington Township, shows the use of mortise-and-tenon joinery of heavy timbers, typical of braced frame construction.*

At the beginning of the twentieth century, new barn building ideas emerged from a growing field of experts: agricultural engineers, experiment station researchers, and commercial farm planning services. The American Society of Agricultural Engineers (ASAE) soon contained a committee on farm structures after its formation. The result of these efforts widened the variety of barn building plans available to farmers and encouraged improved building standards.[150] At about this time, manufacturers and marketers of pre-cut, ready-to-assemble houses (such as the American Foursquare house type discussed above) entered the market for barn construction. Two major Iowa firms, the Louden Machinery Company of Fairfield and the Gordon-Van Tine Company of Davenport, advertised plans for their pre-cut barns along with their pre-cut homes.

Engineering research led to the development of framing for gambrel roofs, culminating in the Clyde or Iowa truss. (The shape of the gambrel roof allowed a larger loft space to store hay than the gable roof allowed.) The first step in this development was the work of John Shawver of Ohio, who developed a gambrel truss form using sawn lumber. The Iowa truss was developed by A.W. Clyde, an engineer with the Iowa State College farm extension service, around 1920. It allowed construction of a stiff frame at far lower cost than the Shawver truss, which required expensive extra-length material.[151]

[150] Ibid., 158.

[151] Ibid. The open loft, free from interior braces like those used in the Shawver and Iowa trusses, was finally achieved with the laminated gothic arch roof. The gothic roof was developed over a two decade period, with an early system using sawn boards 12 inches wide, 1 inch thick, and 3 to 4 feet long from which the outside edge was shaved to the needed curvature. Three or four plies were laminated together with nails, with splices staggered along the curve. These rafters were placed 2 feet on center. However, due to the material wasted in shaving the lumber and the labor consumed in sawing and nailing, farmers and builders were slow to adopt this system. Bent or sprung arches were the second major type of curved rafter construction, first used in an experiment in Davis, California, in 1916.

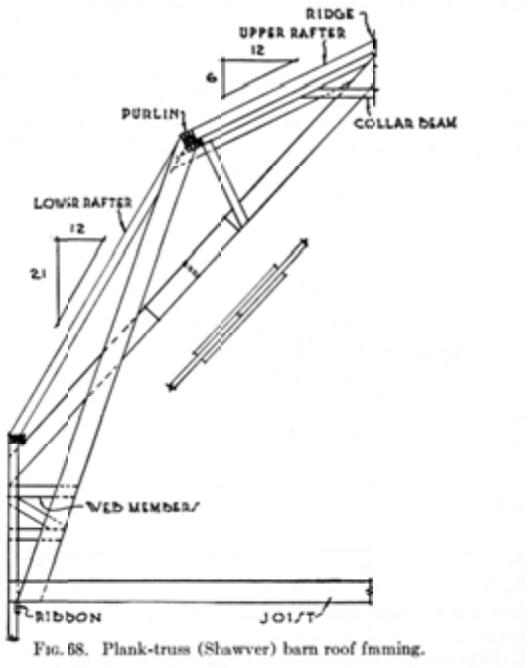


FIG. 68. Plank-truss (Shawver) barn roof framing.

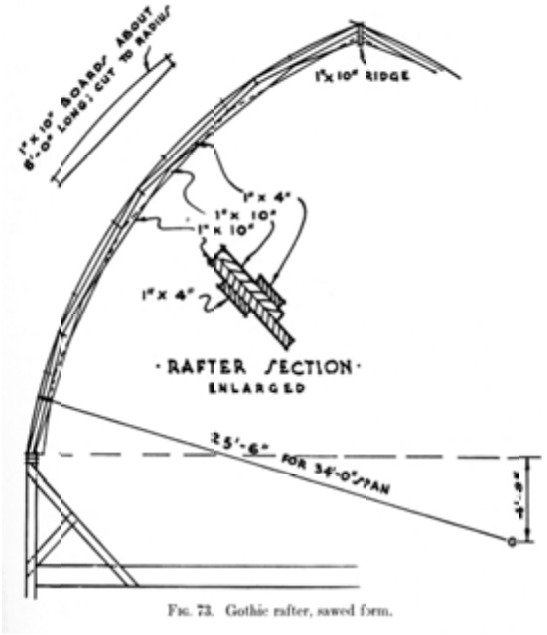


FIG. 73. Gothic rafter, sawed form.

The Shawver and sawn gothic arch barn roof rafters. [Deane G. Carter and W.A. Foster, Farm Buildings*, Third Edition. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1941), 136, 141.]*

During the 1930s, the Gothic roof entered the last phase of its evolution. At Iowa State Agricultural College, Henry Giese tested existing types of laminated bent rafters in an attempt to solve their shortcomings. Working in collaboration with Rock Island Lumber Company, distributor of Weyerhauser Forest Products, he explored the potential of modern glues to yield a stronger bent rafter. Using Douglas fir, clear of knots and defects, glue-laminated under approximately 100 pounds per square inch of pressure and shaped to an arch form, the rafter was stronger than those laminated conventionally with nails and bolts (either the shaved- or bent-lumber techniques). Rafter performance was also improved with the use of hinge connections at the supports. Weyerhauser was marketing these factory-built rafters under the trademark of Rilco by 1938.[152] The United States Forest Products Laboratory also performed tests on glued laminated construction. Their laboratory tests showed that laminated rafters were two to four times stronger than ordinary bent and sawed rafters laminated with nails.[153]

The two-story loft barn ceased to be built shortly after World War II.[154] In the first half of the twentieth century the dependence on draft animals waned and mechanical power in the form of tractors increased, and farmers no longer needed loft space.[155] Farmers began to build fewer custom wood frame structures, which were susceptible to fires, as manufactured buildings using steel became available. Early metal-barn types, such as quonsets, developed initially in the 1930s and gained a notable measure of popularity

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The perceived savings in material and labor required to produce the same contour by bending instead of sawing, made this system more popular. Bent-rafter gothic arch construction, although more economical in labor and material, proved less rigid that the more expensive sawed type. For this reason, many farmers adopted a combination of the two, with the sawed rafters spaced every 8 to 12 feet and the bent rafters spaced between, twenty-four inches on center (Ibid., 161–2).

[152] Ibid., 162–163.

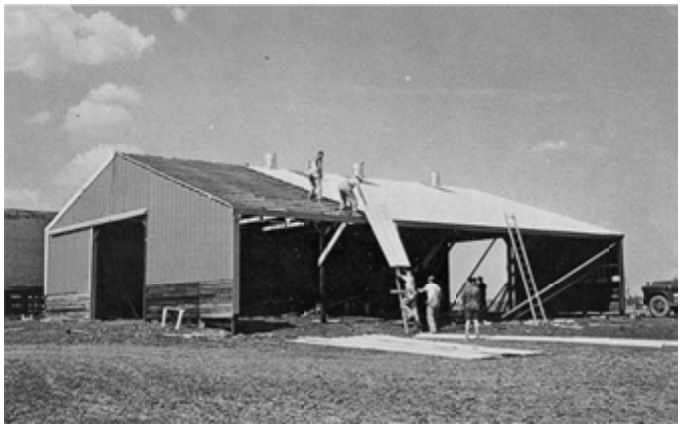
[153] Ibid., 164.

[154] Ibid., 165.

[155] In 1930, 61,000 combines were counted by the U.S. Census; in 1953, 918,000. One in six farmers already owned a tractor by 1932. In 1944, 14 percent of the nation's hay was harvested with windrow balers; by 1948, the figure was 46 percent. See Glenn A. Harper and Steve Gordon, "The Modern Midwestern Barn, 1900–Present," in *Barns of the Midwest,* Noble and Wilhelm, ed., 225.

among some Midwestern farmers immediately after World War II. One of the leading manufacturers of quonset barns and sheds was the Great Lakes Steel Corporation of Detroit, whose structures were purported to be fireproof, rat-proof, and sag-proof. Corrugated metal was also a suggested covering for wooden barn siding, and organizations as the Asbestos Farm Service Bureau promoted the use of asbestos-based cement boards for re-siding old barns.[156]

Because lofts were no longer needed, one-story barn construction became more standard in the postwar years. The shift from loose to baled or chopped hay reduced the need for haymows as many farmers adopted the "loose-housing" or "loafing" system for housing cattle. University of Wisconsin agricultural scientists argued that cows would be more content and give more milk if they were allowed to roam in and out of the barn at will. The loose-housing system resulted in the construction of one-story galvanized all-steel barns.[157] The pole barn was a simple method for constructing the necessary enclosure for farm implements and the limited amount of hay still required on the farm. Pole barns use round poles set into small, individual foundations, to which engineered roof trusses and wall girts and siding are attached. The structural concept for the modern pole barn was developed by H. Howard Doane of St. Louis in the early 1930s. He and George Perkins, his farm manager, used creosoted wood poles (which were commonly used for telephone poles) for the vertical structural members.[158] Pole barns and manufactured buildings are common throughout the survey area, and remain the standard means of construction for contemporary farm buildings.



Left: An advertisement for a metal covered machine shed similar in form to a quonset shed, from the Peoria publication The Illinois Farmers Guide*, August 1939. Right: An advertising postcard for a Morton Building, manufactured by Interlocking Fence Company of Morton, Illinois.*

[156] Ibid., 226.
[157] Ibid., 225.
[158] Ibid.

Barn Types

As with house types, several systems have been used to classify barns, either by function; shape and structural system; ethnic traditions and their influence; or regional characteristics and commonalties.[159] The classification types developed below are based on Allen G. Noble and Richard K. Cleek's *The Old Barn Book: A Field Guide to North American Barns & Other Farm Structures* and Allen G. Noble's *Wood, Brick & Stone.* Classification is generally made by the shape and function of the barn. Only six major barns were identified in the survey of Reed Township; refer to other previously completed summary reports for illustrations of other types.

Three-Bay Threshing Barn

The three-bay threshing barn (also called the English barn) was introduced into North America through English colonial settlement in southern New England.[160] The English and continental European immigrants of the early 1800s introduced this barn type to the Midwest. It was originally designed as a single function barn to store or process grain and was most suitable for small-scale, subsistence farms. It is a single level, rectangular structure divided into three parts or sections, each termed a bay.

Large double doors are centered on both long sides of the structure. Hand threshing with a grain flail was done in the central bay, sometimes called the threshing bay. Following threshing, the large doors were opened to create a draft, which, during winnowing, would separate the chaff from the heavier grain, and carry it away. Flanking the central bay were the other two bays of generally equal dimensions. One was used during the fall or winter to store sheaves of harvested grain, awaiting threshing. The other bay was used for storing the threshed grain, commonly in bins, and straw, which was used as feed and bedding for horses and cattle.[161] Early examples had steeply pitched (over 45 degrees) gable roofs and low stone foundations. They were sided in vertical boards with small ventilation openings high on the gable ends. Windows are largely absent, although later versions included them at animal stall locations. Gable-end sheds were a common addition.[162]

Eventually, as dairying replaced wheat production in the agricultural economy, the threshing/storage function of this barn type became less important. At first animals were not housed in the structure, although interior remodeling was often made to introduce animal stalls in one of the two side bays. This effectively reduced the grain storage and processing function and only offered shelter for a modest number of animals.[163] In some cases this barn type was lifted up and placed onto a raised basement, which then could house the animals, especially dairy cows.[164] Given the relatively poor soil conditions of Reed Township, it is perhaps unsurprising that no examples of the three-bay threshing type were identified.

Raised, Bank, and Basement Barns

The raised or bank barn originated in central New York as a shelter for dairy cattle. It was the first multi-purpose barn to gain widespread popularity. These barns are usually larger than Three-bay Threshing barns and have a ground floor level for cattle and dairy cows with an upper level for hay and feed storage. This upper level is reached by an earthen ramp, bridge, or the natural slope of an embankment. Basement

[159] Often there are more conflicts than agreements between different classification systems. The types defined herein seem to best describe the structures actually present and the social and ethnic origins of their builders.
[160] Fred B. Kniffen, "Folk-Housing: Key to Diffusion," in *Common Places, Readings in American Vernacular Architecture,* Dell Upton and John Michael Vlach, ed. (Athens, Georgia: University of Georgia Press, 1986), 11.
[161] Charles Calkins and Martin Perkins, "The Three-bay Threshing Barn," in *Barns of the Midwest,* Allen G. Noble and Hubert G.H. Wilhelm, ed. (Athens, Ohio: Ohio University Press, 1995), 40–41.
[162] Allen G. Noble and Richard K. Cleek, *The Old Barn Book: A Field Guide to North American Barns and Other Farm Structures* (New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1995), 77.
[163] Allen G. Noble, *Wood, Brick and Stone,* The North American Settlement Landscape, Volume 2: Barns and Farm Structures (Amherst, Massachusetts: University of Massachusetts Press, 1984), 56–58.
[164] Calkins and Perkins, "The Three-bay Threshing Barn," *Barns of the Midwest,* 59.

barns are similar to raised barns, in that the foundation walls extend up to the bottom of the second floor. However, basement barns do not have ramps nor are they sited to utilize the natural topography to access the second floor. No bank or raised barns were identified in Reed Township.

German Barn

German barns, also called German/Swiss barns or Pennsylvania barns, include a group of barns introduced into the Delaware valley by German-speaking settlers. It was one of the first American barn types to combine crop storage and animal shelter. These barns had a lower story partially cut into the natural slope of the land and an upper level that was accessed from a slope or ramp. A forebay is formed by recessing the ground floor wall and enclosing it at each end with the masonry gable end walls. This barn type was not observed in the survey area.

Plank Frame Barn

This relatively small barn type originated in the eastern Midwest around 1875.[165] Plank frame barns can have gable or gambrel roofs and are typically one story in height plus a large hay loft. They are multi-purpose, with small ground floor windows for animal stalls and a large sliding door for equipment. Their floor plans are usually small, approximately 30 by 40 feet. Plank frame barns use small dimension milled lumber rather than the heavy timber framing of earlier barn types. Several examples of plank frame barns were identified in Reed Township.

Above: The small plank frame barn at the Krathochvil–Bergera Farmstead, site 360 in section 5, has been adapted for use as a garage; the original appearance of this structure is documented in the 1955 book This is Will County. *Below left: The barn at the Buban Farmstead, site 393 in section 19, is a typical example of the plank frame type. Below right: The barn at the Hetzel–McCawley Farmstead, site 395 in section 18, is a very small plank frame barn.*

[165] Noble and Cleek, *The Old Barn Book,* 117

Three-Ended Barn
This barn type is a modification to the three-bay threshing barn, adding a hay barn addition perpendicular to an existing barn. This addition, sometimes called a straw shed, could have less height than the main portion of the barn or be taller than the main barn. The additions could also have an open bay at ground level into which a cart could drive to unload hay into the loft space. No three-ended barns were identified in the survey area.

Round Barn
Round barns are an uncommon historic type, although examples exist from the earliest days of European settlement in North America; George Washington built a round barn on his farm at Mount Vernon in the eighteenth century. Non-orthogonal barns (round or polygonal in plan) were particularly popular in the first two decades of the twentieth century. In Illinois, agriculture professor Wilber J. Fraser of the University of Illinois promoted the use of round barns. No existing round barns were documented in the survey area.

Round Roof Barn
Round roof barns came into existence with structural advances in the first quarter of the twentieth century. Although called round, roof shapes for this type are often gothic arch in form. The name describes the roof shape, although the configuration of their floor plans were usually based on more typical barn types such as plank frame, dairy, or raised barns. No round roof barns were identified in the survey area.

Wisconsin Dairy Barn
A barn associated with dairying is the Wisconsin dairy barn, which originated at the Wisconsin's Agricultural Experiment Station at Madison around 1915. It was specially designed to provide a structure for efficient dairy farming. This large barn was typically 36 by 100 feet or larger. It had a gambrel roof or occasionally a round roof, although early versions were often gable-roofed with horizontal boarding. Rows of small windows and gable-end doors were typical. There was usually a large gable-end loft opening and a triangular hay hood. Frequently there are roof ventilators.[166] One dairy barn was identified in Reed Township; this barn is a relatively late, mid twentieth century example of the type.

The barn at the Vaira–Girot Farmstead, site 350 in section 6, is a mid-twentieth century example of the Wisconsin dairy barn type, built with concrete block masonry at the ground level.

[166] Noble and Cleek, 77.

Feeder Barn

During the last two decades of the nineteenth century, Illinois and Iowa developed into the regional center for beef production. Farmers with rougher land, more suited to cattle than crops, raised their cattle from birth to finished beef. They fattened their stock on surplus corn, alfalfa, and feed supplements, and sold them to the rail-connected beef-processing industry in Chicago. The industry was also aided by the introduction of the refrigerated box car. In order to build a barn to hold cattle and hay, the feeder barn (sometimes called the hay barn) was developed. Cattle are housed and fed on the ground floor with a loft above to hold hay. No examples of the feeder barn type were identified in Reed Township.

Pole Barn

The latest major barn type, called the pole barn, evolved in the eastern Midwest. The walls of the building are hung on poles that are driven into individual footings buried in the ground below the frost line. The floor is typically concrete slab or dirt. There is no loft. Later versions usually have metal siding, especially those erected after World War II.[167] The pole barn is an example of economical construction techniques applied to modern agriculture. Pole barns are not common in Reed Township, in contrast to other areas of Will County.

Quonset Shed

Sometime referred to as quonset "huts," this metal building type is named for the U.S. Naval Air Station at Quonset Point in Davisville, Rhode Island, where sheds of this type were built in 1942, although wood-framed examples were already common in the 1930s. Its universal use in the military during World War II made quonset sheds seem to be an ideal economical building type in the postwar years, finding use as storage facilities, offices, homes, and commercial ventures such as movie theaters. Military quonsets often had steel framing members to support the corrugated galvanized metal sheathing, but civilian examples used wood framing as well. One steel-framed example was observed in Reed Township, used as a machine shed.

Left: This quonset shed at the Novy Farmstead, site 361 in section 5, is the only example of a quonset shed in Reed Township; it was constructed relatively late, circa 1960s..

[167] Noble and Cleek, *The Old Barn Book,* 120.

Manufactured Building
While pole barn structures use manufactured materials assembled by a local builder or the farmer himself, manufactured buildings were developed as a complete system in the 1940s. Such buildings offer quick construction time and potentially lower cost because of the use of standardized components. The buildings also allow for large floor areas, giving farmers flexibility of usage. This building type is somewhat common for newly constructed agricultural buildings in the survey area.

Grain Elevators
Grain elevators began to be constructed alongside developing rail systems during the second half of the nineteenth century. Early elevators were often associated with the flour mills they served. They were usually timber-framed structures, as were the mills themselves.[168] Concrete grain elevators and silos, usually constructed in banks of two to ten or more, were constructed in the early decades of the twentieth century.

Corncribs
Pioneer farmers frequently built log corncribs during their two centuries of migration into and settlement of the Midwest. Most crude frontier log cribs were little more than bins, loosely constructed of saplings or split rails and laid up with saddle notching to hold them together.[169] Sometimes the logs were skinned to lessen the danger of infestation by worms and insect. The bin-like cribs were typically covered with thatch or cornstalks to help shed the rain; a board and shingle roof took more effort, required nails, and therefore was more expensive. Unfortunately, thatch roof corncribs were more readily infested by rodents. Log construction of corncribs remained popular through the 1800s in areas where timber resources proved readily accessible.

The invention of the circular saw in 1860 and its growing adaptation to steam power by mid-century made lumber cheap enough for general use on outbuildings such as corncribs, enabling later versions to be built of narrow lumber slats.[170] The corncrib usually rested on log or stone piers.[171] In constructing a frame corncrib, two methods of attaching the slat siding or cribbing were used. The slats were attached either horizontally or vertically; cribbing attached diagonally for extra strength seems to have come into practice about 1900.[172]

The size of the corncribs remained small, even as corn production rose during much of the nineteenth century, in part due to the practice of corn shocking. Corn could be gradually "shucked out" as needed and hauled to the crib or barn for milling and feeding to livestock. Large corncribs were unnecessary since farmers could leave much of their corn in the field until spring.[173] Crib width was influenced by the climate of a region; drier conditions allowed for wider cribs with no increased loss of corn due to mold. As corn production outgrew the single crib in the developing Corn Belt, double cribs were formed by extending the roof over a pair of cribs to form a gable roof. If the gap between the cribs was then lofted over, extra space was gained beneath the roof for overflow storage of ear corn. Spreading the cribs apart not only increased the loft space but created a storage area below for wagons, tools, and implements. These structures, called crib barns, became common in the Midwest by 1900.[174] The creation of larger corncribs and their overhead grain bins depended upon the invention of new methods to raise the grain

[168] Keith E. Roe, *Corncribs in History, Folklife, and Architecture* (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1988), 176.
[169] Noble and Cleek, *The Old Barn Book,* 170–171.
[170] Roe, *Corncribs in History, Folklife, and Architecture*, 26.
[171] Noble and Cleek, *The Old Barn Book*, 155.
[172] Roe, *Corncribs in History, Folklife, and Architecture*, 27.
[173] Keith E. Roe, "Corncribs to Grain Elevators: Extensions of the Barn, " in *Barns of the Midwest*, 170.
[174] Roe, *Corncribs in History, Folklife, and Architecture*, 60.

and ear corn higher than a farmer could scoop it. High cribs were made possible by the commercial adaptation of continuous belt and cup elevators from grain mills and by the portable grain elevator grain.

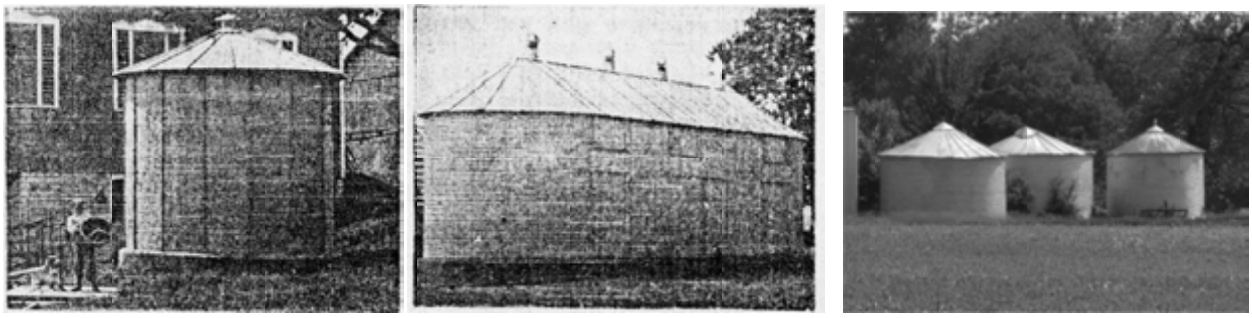
In the early decades of the twentieth century, both concrete and steel were promoted as alternative construction materials for corncribs and grain elevators. The use of hollow clay tiles was also encouraged in those parts of the Midwest where they were manufactured, notably in Iowa, Illinois, and Indiana.[175] The most common variety of concrete corncrib was made of interlocking stave blocks, which had been cast with ventilating slots. In some cases, steel wires or rods were incorporated in the vents to keep out rodents. The blocks were laid up in the form of a circular bin. These were encircled with steel rods, enabling the structure to withstand lateral pressures from the corn heaped within. Single and double bin corncribs of this type were most common, although four-bin corncribs were not unusual. Between 1900 and 1940, concrete was promoted as a do-it-yourself material, poured into rented forms, for building corncribs.[176] No wood frame corn cribs were observed during the survey. Crib barns, silos, and metal grain bins are more common.

Crib Barns

Crib barns are simple structures formed of pens or cribs that have a space between the cribs for implement storage. There are two basics types: crib barns with the gable or roofline parallel to the cribs, and transverse crib barns with the roofline perpendicular to the pens. The configuration of crib barns developed from practical limitations and needs, such as the height to which a scoopful of corn could be pitched from a wagon (which dictated the bin height) and the size of farm equipment (which dictated the spacing between bins). Later crib barns had mechanical elevators housed in a small projecting cupola at the ridge of the crib barn roof. Unlike other townships in Will County, which have numerous examples, no crib barns were identified in the survey of Reed Township.

Metal Bins

Metal construction for corn storage came into use early in the twentieth century and was promoted by the steel industry during World War I as a crop saver for the patriotic farmer. Rectangular or hexagonal corncribs were constructed from flat, galvanized-steel sheet metal with ventilating perforations. Corrugated, curved sheets created the more common cylindrical bin type, which was usually topped with a conical roof. The steel corncrib had wall ventilation slits and, most times, a roof ventilator at its peak.[177] Steel was ideal for fabricating standard parts, as well as being vermin-proof. Proper design of metal bins included such factors as ventilation, consideration of structural loads from the feed to be contained, and use of a concrete or heavy timber foundation with the exterior walls anchored to the foundation. Roofs usually consisted of overlapping sheets to form a conical form.[178]



Above left and center: Illustrations of two types of metal corn bins from The Illinois Farmer's Guide, August 1939. Above right: The Nelson–Corbin Farmstead, site 389 in section 28, includes several 1930s era metal grain bins.

[175] Ibid., 177.
[176] Ibid., 176.
[177] Ibid.
[178] R.E. Martin, "Steel Bin Design for Farm Storage of Grain," *Agricultural Engineering* (April 1940): 144 and 146.

Corn bins made of steel rods or heavy wire mesh also became available in the 1930s. The wire mesh type was particularly popular after World War II because of its low cost, ease of filling, and low maintenance. Wire mesh-type bins have fallen out of use since the 1980s, but the solid metal bins are still commonly used today. A few examples of metal grain bins were identified in Reed Township.

Silos

Silos are structures used for preserving green fodder crops, principally field corn, in a succulent condition. Silos are a recent phenomenon, employed only after 1875 and not truly established until shortly before the turn of the twentieth century. The stored green fodder material is termed ensilage, which is shortened to silage. The acceptance of silos was gradual, but this type of structure eventually came to be enthusiastically embraced by farmers because it offered certain advantages. First, larger numbers of cattle could be kept on the farm because the food value of corn is greater than that of a combination of hay and grain. Second, less water was needed for stock in the winter, lessening labor requirements as frequent ice breaking and thawing was no longer required. Finally, because succulent green fodder could be fed throughout the year, cows produced milk during the entire winter season, increasing the income of the farm.[179]

The first silos were pits excavated inside the barn. The earliest upright or tower silos date from the late 1880s and were rectangular or square in form and constructed with the same materials and techniques as those used in the barn itself, with framed lumber walls.[180] Many were constructed within the barn building.[181] Later examples of this silo type had rounded corners on the inside formed by a vertical tongue-in-groove lining. The rectangular silo appeared in some areas as late as 1910. The octagonal silo type that followed attempted to achieve the advantages of a circular silo while keeping the ease of angular construction. In the 1890s circular forms began to be seen. A shift from the rectangular to the circular stems from the efficiency of the circular form in storing corn ensilage by eliminating air space and thereby reducing spoilage.

The wooden-hoop silo was formed with wood, soaked and shaped into gigantic circular hoop forms and then fastened together horizontally in the tower shape. This style did not become popular because the hoops tended to spring apart. A more common type of wood silo was the panel or Minneapolis silo, also known by several other names. It was advertised in numerous farm journals in the early twentieth century. It consisted of ribs set about 20 inches to 24 inches apart and horizontal matched boards (known as staves) set in grooves in the ribs. Steel hoops were placed around silo to lock the boards in place. This type of silo was made with either single or double wall construction and was polygonal in plan.

Masonry silos, constructed of hollow clay tile, brick, or concrete block, appeared in the first decades of the twentieth century. In comparison with the other two types of silos, brick silos were more difficult to construct because of the time required to erect the relatively small masonry units. There were many patents on concrete blocks for silo purposes, with some blocks curved and other finished with rock-faced building blocks. Some patented blocks had reinforcing sold with the blocks or integral with the block units.[182] Concrete block silos were finished on the interior with a layer of cement mortar to seal joints that might otherwise leak air or water.

The hollow clay tile silo, generally known as the "Iowa Silo," was developed by the Experiment Station of the Iowa State College and erected during the summer of 1908 on the college farm.[183] Brick and tile

[179] Noble, *Wood, Brick and Stone*, 71–72.
[180] Noble and Cleek, *The Old Barn Book*, 158.
[181] Ingolf Vogeler, "Dairying and Dairy Barns in the Northern Midwest," *Barns of the Midwest* (Athens: Ohio University Press, 1995), 108.
[182] W.A. Foster, "Silo Types and Essentials," *Hoard's Dairyman* (21 February 1919) 201, 216, 217, and 232.
[183] Ibid.

companies manufactured curved blocks for silos, advertising them in farm journals. The main complaint regarding the hollow block silo was that the masonry units were porous and leaked water. The mortar joints on both inside and outside of wall needed to be properly pointed as a precaution against leakage. Some silo builders washed the interior of the wall with cement mortar as a further precaution. Steel reinforcing consisted of heavy wire embedded in the mortar joints.

Concrete stave silos were constructed as early as 1904 in Cassopolis, Missouri, which used book-shaped staves.[184] Several patents existed for cement stave silos, including that of the Mason & Lawrence of Elgin, Illinois, dating from 1914.[185] Farmers also could make their own concrete staves or blocks to construct a silo or other farm structure. Concrete staves could vary in size, but were often approximately 30 inches long, 10 inches wide, and 2-1/2 inches thick. One end of the block was concave and the other convex to allow fitting the blocks in the assembled structure.[186]

This excerpt from *Concrete* magazine from 1927 outlines the erection procedure for a concrete stave silo:

> Concrete stave silos are quickly and easily erected. Three men can easily erect two average sized silos each week and some crews can do better than that, especially when the proper equipment is at hand. . . . Concrete staves are generally set up dry, no mortar being used in the joints. In some types a grove is molded entirely around the edge of the stave. . . . The hoops or steel rods, placed to reinforce the silo, are set as the erection of the wall progressed. Hoops are usually composed of two or three sections, depending upon the diameter of the silo. The sections are joined by means of special lugs. After the hoops are placed in position they are drawn tight enough to hold them in position. . . . After the entire silo walls are completed, the hoops are drawn tight, care being exercised to draw them all to the same tension. . . . After the walls are erected and the hoops tightened, the interior walls are ready for a wash that seals the joints and produces a smooth, impervious surface. A cement wash, made of a mixture of cement and water and of the consistency of thick paint, is often used.[187]

Silos constructed with monolithic concrete walls also appeared in the early decades of the twentieth century. Concrete silos were built using "slip-forms," with the forms usually about two feet high and lifted once the level below had cured sufficiently, leaving horizontal cold joints between each level.[188] Such silos could be expensive to construct since labor was required to prepare the concrete and lift the forms. However, forms could be rented from contractors or cement manufacturers. Farmers who chose to build a concrete silo could obtain guidance from farm and building trade journals. Qualities of the reinforcing steel and type, concrete components and mixing, formwork, and concrete placement were outlined, as stated in this excerpt from *Hoard's Dairyman* from 1919:

> When used, the cement should be in perfect condition and contain no lumps, which cannot readily be pulverized between the fingers. Sand and gravel or broken stone should conform to the requirements of proper grading and cleanliness. . . . Water must be clean, free from oil, alkali, silt, loam, and clay in suspension. Steel used in reinforcement should be secured from one of the manufacturers specializing in steel for use in concrete construction. . . . Wire mesh fabrics may be used instead of steel bars but if used should contain an amount of metal equal in cross-section area

[184] Foster, "Silo Types and Essentials." Patents were granted on this type of stave silo in 1908, and the type was known commercially as the Playford patent cement stave silo.
[185] "How to Make and Sell Concrete Silo Staves," *Concrete* (October 1927): 32–35.
[186] David Mocine, "Keep Workmen Busy the Year Round," *Concrete Products* (January 1948): 161.
[187] "How to Make and Sell Concrete Silo Staves," *Concrete* (October 1927) 32–35.
[188] The presence of cold joints had the potential to allow air to enter the silo. Therefore, it was important to coat the silo interior with a layer of cement mortar. As with other silo types, this mortar layer needed to be renewed periodically.

> to the rods for which substituted.[189]

In 1913, farmers were lectured at the annual gathering of the Illinois Farmers' Institute not only about the utility of the silo but also other issues to consider:

> The question of general arrangement of the farm buildings is too often neglected. This should be of second consideration, as there is beauty in utility. Often the upper portion of a well-built silo showing above the sloping roof of some of the other buildings adds very materially to the general appearance of the group of buildings. Also the side near the top often affords the best place for the farm name.[190]

Farm journals gave their readers information for constructing a silo with the "essential features . . . necessary to secure good, sweet silage," focusing primarily on the silo walls.[191] Wall strength, smoothness of interior wall surfaces, and air and water tightness were considered essential features. The foundation for the silo typically consisted of a wall ten inches minimum in width extending below the frost line and six to eight inches above grade. Conical roof shapes were common on some early silos, but gambrel and, later, domical roofs became more prevalent.[192] An essential feature of any roof was a snug fit to prevent birds from entering the silo.

After 1949, a new type of silo appeared: the blue Harvestore silos. Constructed of fiberglass bonded to sheets of metal, they were first introduced in Wisconsin.[193] By 1999, over 70,000 of Harvestore structures of various sizes (tall or short, narrow or stout) had been built.[194] Silos are not particularly common in Reed Township. Three concrete stave silos were identified during the survey.

These two abandoned concrete stave silos at the Wosoloski–Markiel Farmstead, site 370 in section 18, are rare examples of silos in Reed Township.

[189] H. Colin Campbell, "Concrete Silo Construction," *Hoard's Dairyman* (21 February 1919): 200.
[190] King, "Planning the Silo," in *Eighteenth Annual Report of the Illinois Farmers' Institute,* 64.
[191] W.A. Foster, "Silo Types and Essentials," *Hoard's Dairyman* (21 February 1919): 201.
[192] Gambrel and domical roofs allowed for filling the silo to the top of the outer wall, maximizing the storage capacity.
[193] Noble and Cleek, *The Old Barn Book*, 108–9.
[194] Harvestore Systems, DeKalb, Illinois, www.harvestore.com

CHAPTER 4

SURVEY SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Period of Significance: 1850 to 1970

The first settlement by settlers of European origin occurred in Will County in the 1830s. Settlers first came to the region of present-day Reed Township in about 1850, and most areas of the township had been settled by 1860. An approximate starting date of 1850 is used for the period of significance; however, very few surviving farmstead structures were identified during the survey that can be dated to the nineteenth century.

Due to the poor quality of the soils in Reed Township, agricultural development remained relatively marginal in the nineteenth century. Development of Reed Township occurred rapidly in the late 1860s and 1870s as coal mining developed in the region. Braidwood emerged as a coal mine boom town and a melting pot of European immigrants. Nineteenth century deep shaft mine coal production had peaked in the area by the 1880s, as the relatively thin coal seam underlying the township was less economical to extract that other deposits in downstate Illinois. As coal production and mine employment dropped, the population of the township also fell dramatically. Starting in 1928, strip mining of coal began in Reed Township, resulting in severe disruption of the landscape across much of the township. The remaining areas of the township remained in use as small-scale farms.

U.S. Route 66 as developed in the 1920s and 1930s passed through Reed Township. The road was re-designated Interstate 55 and upgraded to a limited-access highway in the late 1950s, with a new route that bypassed downtown Braidwood. Strip mining ended in the area in the 1970s, coinciding with the implementation of new energy sources and the construction of the Braidwood Generating Station, using nuclear power to generate electricity for metropolitan Chicago. Unlike other areas of Will County, Braidwood has not expanded as quickly as other municipalities in Will County in the last twenty years, and at the 2000 census the city population was less than it had been in 1880.

A closing date for the period of agricultural significance would fall approximately around 1970, consistent with trends across Will County. The use of the closing date of 1970, however, does not mean that all elements constructed prior to that time were surveyed. Only a select number constructed between 1950 and 1970 have been included. Agricultural support structures such as manufactured buildings or grain bins that may post-date 1970 were included in the documentation of historic farmsteads.

Significance

National Register and Local Landmark Criteria

The National Register Criteria for Evaluation, as cited below, provide standards that significant historic properties are required to meet in order to be listed in the National Register:

> The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:
> A. That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
> B. That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
> C. That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
> D. That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information in prehistory or history.[195]

The three criteria that are most applicable to the rural survey area are A, B, and C. Under Criterion A, properties would need to demonstrate significance as examples of the historic agricultural region. The survey region has less significance under Criterion B. Under Criteria A and C, properties would need to contain architecturally significant structures that represent the diverse range of agricultural practices that occurred during the period of significance.

In addition to consideration for national listing, properties within the survey region may be considered for local Will County listing, either individually as landmarks or as a group as a preservation district. The following are the criteria for Will County landmark listing as stated in the Will County Preservation Ordinance:

> Criteria for Consideration of Nomination. The Commission may recommend to the County Board the designation of landmarks and preservation districts, where not more than fifty percent (50%) of the property owners whose property is located within the boundaries of the proposed district object to designation, when after a thorough investigation results in a determination that a property, structure or improvement, or area so recommended meets one (1) or more of the following criteria:
> a) It has character, interest, or value which is part of the development, heritage, or cultural characteristics of a local community, the County of Will, State of Illinois or the Nation;
> b) Its location is a site of a significant local, County, State, or National event;
> c) It is identified with a person or persons who significantly contributed to the development of the local community County or Will, State of Illinois, or the Nation;
> d) It embodies distinguishing characteristics of an architectural style valuable for the study of a period, type, method of construction, or use of indigenous materials;
> e) It is identified with the work of a master builder, designer, architect, engineer, or landscape architect whose individual work has influenced the development of the local area, County of Will, State of Illinois, or the Nation;
> f) It embodies elements of design, detailing, materials, or craftsmanship that render it architecturally significant;
> g) It embodies design elements that make it structurally or architecturally innovative;
> h) It has a unique location or singular physical characteristics that make it an established or familiar visual feature;
> i) It has character which is a particularly fine or unique example of a utilitarian structure with a high level of integrity or architectural significance;

[195] Quoted from National Register Bulletin 15, *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Cultural Resources Division, 1997), 2; originally published in *Code of Federal Regulations, Title 36, Part 60*.

j) It is suitable for preservation or restoration;
k) It is included in the National Register of Historic Places and/or the Illinois Register of Historic Places.
l) It has yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important to pre-history, history or other areas of archaeological significance.

In the event a property, structure, or an area is found to be of such significant character and quality where it is determined that its designation as a landmark or preservation district is in the overall best interest of the general welfare, any person may nominate and the Commission may recommend to the County Board such appropriate designation.

One of the differences between national and local listing is that local significance may be easier to justify than national significance. Properties that are eligible and listed as local landmarks, but may be more difficult to nominate for the National Register, receive important recognition and thereby afforded a certain measure of protection. Eventually, these properties could be listed as National Register properties if the case for their nomination improves. Additionally, local landmark designation often gives protections that National Register listing does not. The suggested properties have been researched sufficiently in performing this survey to merit consideration as Will County Landmarks.[196] It should be noted that some of the properties with local landmark potential could be determined, after performing additional research, to have sufficient significance for National Register designation.

Another measure of recognition is the listing of farmsteads that have been "owned by a straight or collateral line of descendants of the original owner for at least 100 years."[197] Since 1972, the Illinois Department of Agriculture has administered the Illinois Centennial Farms Program. Illinois has been settled by farmers since the early 1800s, meaning that some farms have been in the same family for more than 100 years. To recognize the achievement of 150 years of ownership, the Illinois Sesquicentennial Farms Program was established in 2000. Application for either program requires a written legal description and the familial line of farmer owners.

Integrity

One important issue in the consideration of significance of a property or site is its historical and architectural integrity. This can be defined as the degree that a structure or group of structures retains its original configuration and materials and that these materials are in good enough condition that measures can be taken to extend their service life. Replacement of selected elements, such as rotted wood members,

[196] It is useful at this point to provide general readers of this report with information on the issues surrounding the designation of a property as a Landmark as embodied in the Will County Preservation Ordinance. (The issues discussed herein are current as of the date of this report.) Landmarks may be properties (including districts), structures, or natural features. Any individual or group may propose a property for designation to the Historic Preservation Commission. Although the property owner does *not* need to be the party proposing designation, and the property owner does *not* need to grant consent in event of approval by the Historic Preservation Commission and the Will County Board, the property owner is notified in accordance with legal requirements of public hearings (adjacent property owners are notified as well).

The Will County Preservation Ordinance protects historic sites designated as Landmarks from alteration and demolition. (The ordinance also has a clause that provides for the review of demolition permits on buildings and structures 30 years and older.) All work on the Landmark (with the exception of normal maintenance) must be reviewed by the Historic Preservation Commission prior to beginning work, although work limited by economic hardship or in response to emergency situations is allowable with proper documentation. Demolition of a Landmark is permitted only after review of the demolition application by the Historic Preservation Commission, who may require written, graphic, and/or photographic documentation of the Landmark prior to demolition. Owners of Will County Landmarks are not obligated to preserve, rehabilitate, or restore their properties; however, owners may be eligible for low-interest loans, tax credits, or grants to assist with such actions. (Source: "Will County Landmark Nomination Questions," n.d.)

[197] Introduction to the Illinois Centennial Farms Program application form, Illinois Department of Agriculture.

may be necessary, but total replacement is not necessary. The issue applies primarily to the exterior of the structure, although in some cases the integrity of the interior may be a factor as well.

In the areas of Will County included in this and past surveys, individual buildings on farmsteads may be in poor condition or significantly altered. In these instances, determination of significance can only be made on the historical importance of the original owner or builder. Some farmstead sites have an eroded integrity because of the loss of one or more significant structures, making it difficult to recognize the agricultural connections of the site. Determination of integrity has to be made on a case by case basis. In many instances, the presence of a former farmhouse or barn alone communicates agricultural origin of the site.

Another issue that defines the integrity of a structure is the presence of historically appropriate materials. Since a 150-year-old farmhouse is unlikely to have all of its original wood siding in place, an appropriate replacement would be wood siding material of similar dimension to the original. The presence of artificial or synthetic siding material, such as metal, aluminum, or vinyl siding, seriously detracts from the integrity of the building or element. It should be noted that this applies not only to farmhouses but barns and other agricultural support buildings. To address the addition of contemporary finish materials to historic buildings while still identifying structures of historic interest, this survey report uses the terminology "potentially" significant. This terminology is used to describe structures for which the overall form and architectural character remains intact, but for which contemporary finish materials have been added to the building exterior. The removal of these finish materials and the repair of the original wood siding (which typically is left in place in such installations) is a straightforward activity that, if implemented, would restore the integrity of these historic structures. Although the presence of contemporary finish materials generally disqualifies a structure from individual listing as a historic landmark in some registries, this survey report is intended to serve as a planning tool, and the identification of sites with a potential to be listed as historic landmarks increases the usefulness of this tool.

This issue is addressed in *Preservation Brief No. 8: Aluminum and Vinyl Siding on Historic Buildings*, which states the following:

> Preservation of a building or district and its historic character is based on the assumption that the retention of historic materials and features and their craftsmanship are of primary importance. Therefore, the underlying issue in any discussion of replacement materials is whether or not the integrity of historic materials and craftsmanship has been lost. Structures are historic because the materials and craftsmanship reflected in their construction are tangible and irreplaceable evidence of our cultural heritage. To the degree that substitute materials destroy and/or conceal the historic fabric, they will always subtract from the basic integrity of historically and architecturally significant buildings.[198]

Contributing and Non-Contributing Properties

Many of the farmsteads and supporting rural sites in the survey can be considered contributing to a potential rural heritage district or simply retain the character of an agricultural development. In evaluating the sites in this survey, a "contributing" site is one that retains a *coherent* appearance as a farmstead or whatever its original function once was. Most of the structures on the property were observed to be in good or fair condition, although a few of the structures might be considered to be in poor condition. Non-contributing sites are listed as such because they lack integrity, such as potentially significant structures that have been significantly altered or were observed to be in poor condition, or consist primarily of structures that are not considered historically significant. Abandoned farmsteads are also generally listed as non-contributing.

[198] John H. Myers, with revisions by Gary L. Hume, *Preservation Brief No. 8, Aluminum and Vinyl Siding on Historic Buildings: The Appropriateness of Substitute Materials for Resurfacing Historic Wood Frame Buildings* (October 1984).

Will County Land Use Department Planning Documents

In April 2002, Will County adopted a new *Land Resource Management Plan*. The plan addressed the importance of Will County Landmarks and National Register designated properties and sites through preservation planning. The document was also very realistic, anticipating the growth that occurred in the first decade of the twenty-first century. The *Land Resource Management Plan* focused primarily on land use and development forms, but advocated that the preservation of rural areas should include the preservation of those elements significant to agricultural production and the agricultural landscape, such as rural structures. Therefore, the *Land Resource Management Plan* supports the goals for the preservation of rural structures.

The *Land Resource Management Plan* also included discussion of different forms of development in rural areas, both historically and in the present decade. Preserving the character of hamlets and other small rural crossroad settlements was identified as a goal. Twenty-first century development trends include Conservation Design Subdivisions, which rearrange the typical layout of streets and housing lots, setting aside a substantial amount of land as permanent open space. Conventional Suburban Residential subdivisions typically consume the entire development parcel. Historic structures and landscapes are specifically recognized in the *Land Resource Management Plan* as meriting protection when developing a Conservation Design Subdivision.[199]

In the summer of 2010, a series of public meetings were held in Elwood, Beecher, Green Garden Township, and Wilmington to formulate goals for updating the 2002 plan. Community goals included maintaining the rural character of the area, protecting local open space such as the Midewin National Tallgrass Prairie from freight traffic, increasing recreational opportunities, and increasing opportunities for interpreting local heritage such as historic U.S. Route 66.[200]

A detailed review of the *Land Resource Management Plan,* and its application to the rural survey area, is beyond the scope of this report. However, the information provided in this document should be considered in the development of protection measures for the rural heritage areas and sites discussed below.

Municipal and County Government Coordination

As part of the survey of Reed Township, some potentially significant farmstead and related sites that lie within the incorporated limits of the City of Braidwood were identified. Generally, the Will County Historic Preservation Commission does not consider landmark nominations for properties within incorporated municipalities. However, the City of Braidwood and Village of Godley do not have local historic preservation ordinances. If, in the future, the City of Braidwood or Village of Godley were to adopt a local historic preservation ordinance, jurisdiction of county landmarks within the municipality would be transferred to local from county jurisdiction. If a municipality without a local historic preservation ordinance were to annex a property that is already designated as a county landmark, the Will County Preservation Ordinance would continue to govern protection of the property.

[199] To view the *Land Resource Management Plan* in its entirety, please visit http://www.willcountylanduse.com/lrmp/lrmpmain.html, or contact the Will County Land Use Department, Planning Division, at (815) 727-8430.

[200] Will County Land Use Department, *Proposed Changes to the 2002 Will County Land Resource Management Plan*, August 2010.

Potential Historic Districts, Thematic Designations, and Landmarks

No potential historic districts have been identified as part of the survey Reed Township. Evaluation of the potential for historic districts within the City of Braidwood was beyond the scope of this study.

Individual Landmarks

Throughout the survey, there are several individual sites that have clear potential for local landmark status. These sites and other notable farmsteads are discussed individually in the section beginning on page 89.

Some of the surveyed sites may also have the potential for listing in the National Register of Historic Places with additional research. No obviously National Register-eligible properties were identified during the survey. This does not mean that no sites in the township are eligible; merely that further study is required before a determination of eligibility could be made.

Based upon the research conducted for this study, the following properties are considered to be eligible for Will County landmark designation:

- Site 358 PIN 24-05-100-001 Kopecky–Powell Farmstead (Page 92)
- Site 425 PIN 24-08-401-069 Chicago & Alton Railroad Braidwood Depot* (Page 98)

  * Located in the City of Braidwood

The Braidwood Depot is located within the incorporated limits of the City of Braidwood; however, since the city does not currently have a local historic preservation ordinance, it is included on this list for consideration by the Will County Historic Preservation Commission. Refer to the discussion of Municipal and County Government Coordination on the previous page.

These properties, as well as other farmsteads associated with prominent families in Reed Township, are discussed in detail beginning on page 89.

A detailed survey of the historic urbanized core of the City of Braidwood was beyond the scope of this rural historic structures survey. Within the City of Braidwood, there may be other individual structures that would be eligible for designation as Will County landmarks and/or listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

Coal Mining Features

Arguably, the most significant activity that has shaped the historical development of Reed Township is the mining of coal, both in deep shaft mines from 1865 to 1928 and as strip mines from 1928 to 1974. A detailed survey of surviving coal mine features was beyond the scope of this study; however, sites of former coal mines are identified on Maps 5 and 6 in Appendix B. Although no mine-related buildings survive, at some mine locations, features such as debris piles and soil piles remain prominent in the landscape. The parallel ridges left by strip mining are a distinctive landscape feature in portions of the township. Many of the mine locations may have archeological potential. Furthermore, the concentration of numerous separate mine shafts within a limited area is a distinctive aspect that relates to the history of mining technology in the nineteenth century. Consideration should be given to designating known mine sites as county landmark(s) or, with further study, nominating the mining sites for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Although historic above-ground features have been lost and the mine shafts are generally inaccessible, the sites may still retain sufficient integrity and distinctiveness for landmark designation.

Survey Summary

The survey of Reed Township documented 107 structures, including 18 houses and 6 main barns on 24 sites. Cumulatively since 1999, the Will County Rural Historic Structural Survey has documented almost 6,000 structures on more than 1,350 sites.[201] The tables below provide a breakdown of the survey results for Reed, Florence, Custer, and Wilmington Townships.[202]

Farmhouses

House Type	Reed	Custer	Florence	Wilmington	Totals
I House	—	2	—	—	32
Hall and Parlor	—	—	—	—	20
New England 1-1/2	—	1	—	—	10
Four over Four	—	1	3	4	88
Side Hallway	—	—	3	4	16
Upright and Wing	3	5	12	12	215
Gabled Ell	—	11	13	13	247
Gable Front	3	12	3	3	87
Foursquare	—	—	8	1	104
Bungalow	3	6	3	6	69
Cape Cod	—	1	3	1	43
Ranch	9	17	9	13	*
Other	—	10	4	13	226
Totals	**18**	**66**	**61**	**70**	**1,157**

* Ranch type houses are grouped with the "Other" category.

Barns

Barn Type	Reed	Custer	Florence	Wilmington	Totals
Three-bay Threshing	—	1	4	2	186
Bank	—	2	2	—	27
Raised	—	—	—	—	9
Pennsylvania German	—	—	—	—	9
Three-ended	—	—	—	—	12
Plank frame	3	10	16	2	136
Feeder	—	6	4	4	47
Dairy	1	2	3	3	100
Round roof	—	—	—	—	6
Round	—	—	—	—	2
Other or Unclassified	2	—	1	—	21
Totals	**6**	**21**	**30**	**11**	**551**

[201] It should be noted that the rapid suburbanization of Will County since survey work began in 1999 means that some of these structures have already disappeared. For example, the 1999–2000 survey documented sites in Plainfield and Wheatland Townships. During an updated survey by WJE for the Village of Plainfield of the village's planning area in 2005–2006, it was found that 35 of 112 farmstead sites existing in 1999 had been demolished within the intervening six years.

[202] These townships have been selected since they are geographically close to Reed Township and have been surveyed recently.

Outbuildings

Building Type	Reed	Custer	Florence	Wilmington	Totals
Animal shed or shelter	4	7	18	4	127
Barn (secondary)	—	1	—	—	27
Cellar	1	2	4	—	17
Chicken coop	1	6	7	5	139
Corn crib	—	—	—	—	15
Crib barn	—	16	31	5	469
Foundation	—	9	6	2	95
Garage	13	47	40	47	558
Horse stable	—	5	1	—	22
Hog house	1	—	—	1	16
Implement shed	—	6	3	1	195
Machine shed	9	26	21	19	176
Mesh bin	—	3	2	—	48
Metal bin	18	69	38	20	568
Milk house		2	2	—	94
Pole barn / Manufactured building	14	38	44	20	533
Privy	—	—	1	1	13
Pump house / Well house	3	9	4	2	102
Shed	12	51	34	39	545
Silo	3	8	6	6	277
Smoke house	—	—	1	1	28
Summer kitchen	—	—	1	1	30
Windmill	—	2	4	1	52
Other	6	5	5	9	138
Totals	**85**	**312**	**273**	**184**	**4,284**
Total, including houses and barns	**109**	**399**	**364**	**265**	**5,992**

Comparison to 1988 Survey Results

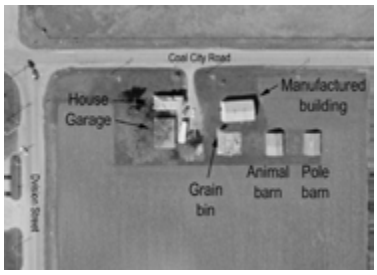
As part of the data compilation, a limited comparison was made between the results of the 1988 reconnaissance survey of Will County and the existing conditions in Reed Township in 2010. The 1988 survey, conducted by Michael A. Lambert in August–October 1988 for the State of Illinois, was a reconnaissance-level survey performed from the public right-of-way. In the 1988 survey of Reed Township, approximately 75 buildings on 18 farmstead sites were documented.[203] Among the farmstead sites documented in 1988, no historic structures survive at two sites in Reed Township. These farmsteads have been lost to contemporary development. In addition, at several sites in the township included in the present survey, major contributing historic structures have been lost since 1988. This includes the loss of the original house or major historic outbuildings such as barns or crib barns.

The following table lists all farmsteads and sites included in the survey area of Reed Township and each site's potential for landmark designation. The table also includes photographs of the house and barn on each site and other noteworthy information as available. Two other tables list farmhouses with type and major barns with type. The ID numbers listed on the tables correlate to the maps included in Appendix B.

[203] Excluded from this total are eight sites that were not documented during the 1988 survey, but which are included in the present survey and therefore obviously existed at that time.

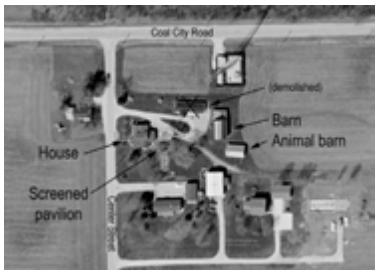
Table 1. Surveyed Farmsteads and Related Sites in Reed Township

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
358	24-05-100-001	Coal City Road	**Kopecky–Powell Farmstead**	Local landmark potential



Main barn (south of Manufactured building) demolished since 1988; foundation remains.

360	24-05-203-003	Center Street	**Krathochvil–Bergera Farmstead**	Contributing



Machine shed demolished since 2005. Crib barn demolished since 1988. Both visible in 1955 and 1988 photography.

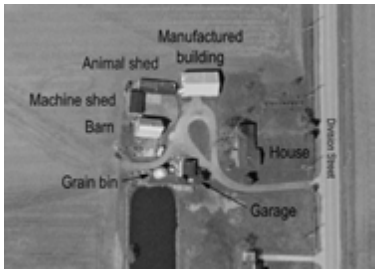
361	24-05-403-005	Novy Road	**Novy Farmstead**	Non-contributing

Mostly unchanged since 1988 survey.

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
349	24-06-100-004	Coal City Road	**Weise–Renneaux Farmstead**	Not assessed

This property was not accessible for survey.

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
350	24-06-200-007	Division Street	**Vaira–Girot Farmstead**	Contributing



Unchanged since 1988 survey.

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
357	24-06-200-012	Division Street	**Lestina Farmstead**	Non-contributing

Newly developed since 1939. Unchanged since 1988 survey.

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
426	24-06-400-027	Division Street	**Vaira Farmstead**	Non-contributing

351	24-06-400-042	Division Street	**Nicholson Farmstead**	Non-contributing

372	24-07-304-005	Main Street	—	Contributing

One small outbuilding demolished since 2005.

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
425	24-08-401-069	Main Street	**Braidwood Depot**	Local landmark potential

Depot for Gulf, Mobile & Ohio Railroad.
Now owned by local historical society. www.braidwoodhistoricalsociety.org

Mapped at new location. Relocated on June 28, 2009, to this site. Reoriented such that original northwest (front) elevation faces south.

378	24-09-300-002	Reed Street (Illinois Highway 113)	**Deer Farm**	Non-contributing

375	24-17-100-043	S. Division Street	**J. Brown Farmstead**	Contributing

No permission from owner, surveyed from road right-of-way only.

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
379	24-17-103-002	Illinois Highway 53	**Frost family residence**	Non-contributing

One outbuilding demolished since 2005.

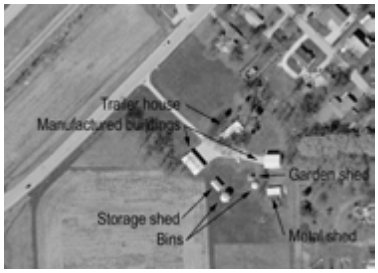
380	24-17-103-006	Illinois Highway 53	**Strachan Farmstead**	Non-contributing

Unchanged since 1988 survey.

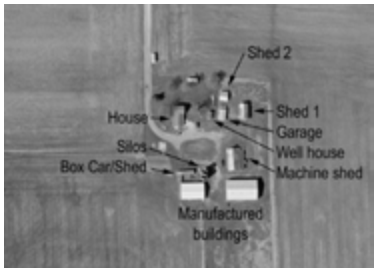
376	24-17-103-008	Center Street	**Stracham–Obert Farmstead**	Contributing

ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
381	24-17-200-001	Center Street	**Braidwood Electrical Substation**	Contributing

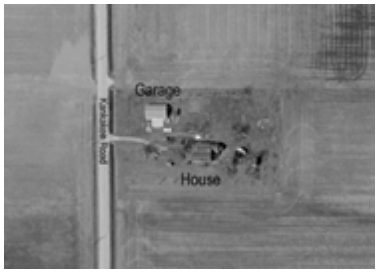
377	24-17-200-002	Illinois Highway 53	**Austin Farmstead**	Contributing



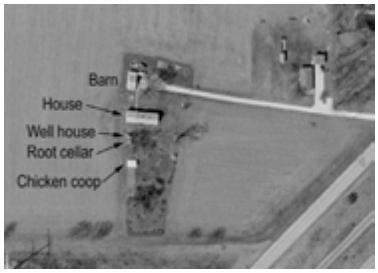
370	24-18-100-025	Kennedy Road	**Wosoloski–Markiel Farmstead**	Contributing



ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
397	24-18-300-005	Kankakee Road	**Lissey–Vlovka Farmstead**	Non-contributing

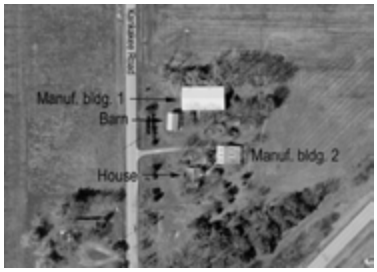


395	24-18-300-006	Illinois Highway 129	**Hetzel–McCawley Farmstead**	Contributing

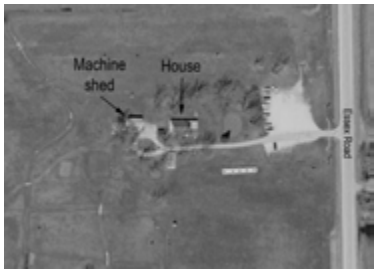


Older house on site, located west of well house and root cellar, demolished many years ago, per current owner.

393	24-19-100-031	Kankakee Road	**Buban Farmstead**	Contributing



ID	PIN	Street Name	Name	Landmark Potential
388	24-21-200-002	Essex Road	**Roe Farmstead**	Non-contributing



Essentially unchanged since 1988 survey.

389	24-28-200-003	Essex Road	**Nelson–Corbin Farmstead**	Contributing

Unchanged since 1988 survey. Site 389 is on west side of Essex Road. Site 562 in Custer Township is adjacent on east side of Essex Road.

391	24-33-200-004	Essex Road	**Foley Farmstead**	Non-contributing

New since 1939.

"Foley's Used Cars"

Table 2. Farmhouses in Reed Township

ID		House Type	Style	Materials	
	Date	*Significance*			
425		Railroad Depot	Stick style	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1882	*Local landmark potential*		**Walls:**	Wood siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
381		—	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1910s	*Local Landmark Potential*		**Walls:**	Brick
				Roof:	Clay tile
350		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1960s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
351		Gable Front	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1920s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
357		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1950s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
358		Upright and wing	—	**Foundation:**	Stone
	1910s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Asphalt shingle, brick
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
360		Upright and wing	—	**Foundation:**	Stone, concrete
	1900s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
361		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1960s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Brick, stone
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
370		Upright and wing	—	**Foundation:**	Stone
	1880s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
372		Bungalow	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1920s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Wood siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
375		Gable Front	—	**Foundation:**	Not visible
	1900s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
376		Bungalow	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1920s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle

ID		House Type	Style	Materials	
	Date	*Significance*			
378		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1960s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Wood siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
379		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1940s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
380		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1930s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
388		Gable Front	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete
	1900s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
389		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1940s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Aluminum siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
393		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1960s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
395		Ranch	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1930s	*Contributing*		**Walls:**	Wood siding, vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
397		Bungalow	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	1920s	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Vinyl siding
				Roof:	Asphalt shingle
377		—	—	**Foundation:**	None
	—	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Aluminum siding
				Roof:	Sheet metal
391		—	—	**Foundation:**	Concrete block
	—	*Non-contributing*		**Walls:**	Aluminum siding
				Roof:	Sheet metal

Table 3. Barns in Reed Township

ID	Barn Type	Materials	
	Date	***Significance***	
380		—	**Foundation:** Concrete
	1940s	*Non-contributing*	**Walls:** Sheet metal
			Roof: Asphalt sheeting
350		Dairy barn	**Foundation:** Concrete
	1960s	*Non-contributing*	**Walls:** Concrete block, sheet metal
			Roof: Sheet metal
378		Horse barn	**Foundation:** Concrete
	1960s	*Non-contributing*	**Walls:** Board and batten
			Roof: Asphalt shingle
395		Plank frame	**Foundation:** Concrete
	1920s	*Contributing*	**Walls:** Wood siding
			Roof: Asphalt shingle
393		Plank frame	**Foundation:** Concrete block
	1920s	*Contributing*	**Walls:** Sheet metal
			Roof: Sheet metal
360		Plank frame	**Foundation:** Unknown
	1920s	*Contributing*	**Walls:** Sheet metal, wood
			Roof: Sheet metal

Notable Individuals and Farmsteads in Reed Township

James Cunnea

James Cunnea was one of the earliest settlers in what is now Reed Township. He and his wife Ann were both born in Ireland. They married there and their oldest children John, Isabella, and Maria were also born in Ireland. In the early 1840s, the family immigrated to the United States, and their daughter Catherine was born in New York. In July 1848, James Cunnea acquired all of section 6 from the government and settled a farm there. The family is listed in the 1850 census as "Conner." The 1860 census lists James, aged 50, and his wife Ann, aged 42, along with their children John, Isabella, Maria, Catherine, James, Ann, Thomas, and George. Following the discovery of coal in Will County, Cunnea sold his property to the Chicago & Wilmington Coal Co., and retired as a rich man.

Reilly family

Frank T. Reilly (or O'Reilly) was born in Ireland about 1820. He immigrated to the United States in 1847 with his mother and siblings. He ultimately settled on 200 acres in Reed Township in July 1855. In 1853 he married Mary Bradly, and they had eight children. Together with his older brother Thomas, he owned 530 acres by 1878.[204] Thomas's wife was Nora Mahar. One of Thomas' and Nora's children, Patrick M. Reilly, who was born in Reed Township in 1863, worked as the foreman of the pattern and carpentry shops at the Illinois Steel Company in Joliet in the first decade of the twentieth century.[205] According to the 1873 and 1893 atlas maps, the Reilly farmstead was located in the southeast quarter of section 4. The land was purchased by the Northern Illinois Coal Company prior to 1940 and strip mined, leaving no evidence of the farmstead site.

Patrick and James Dwyer

Patrick Dwyer was born in Ireland, March 17, 1828, and immigrated to the United States in 1840. He came to Wilmington in 1848 and settled in Reed Township in 1850 on 120 acres. In 1851, he married Bridget Clark, also a native of Ireland.[206] The 1860 census lists Patrick and Bridget as well as their children James, Mary, Michael, and Catherine; also listed is James Dwyer, Patrick's younger brother, James' wife Winnifred, and their children James, Catherina, Hattie, and Winnifred. The 1873 and 1893 atlas maps show that the Dwyer family farmsteads were located in sections 9 and 10 of Reed Township. The land was purchased by the Northern Illinois Coal Company prior to 1940 and strip mined, leaving no evidence of the Dwyer family home sites.

Henry W. Pfingston

Henry W. Pfingston, a native of Hanover, Germany, immigrated to the United States in 1847 and settled in Kendall County. His son John E. Pfingston was born on the farm there in 1855. Later in 1855, the family moved to a new farmstead in the southwest quarter of section 32 of Reed Township. Henry died on November 8, 1875, after which his son John took over the farm. John married Myra Olmstead in 1878. Henry's daughter Sarah married I. G. McLane.[207] By the 1920s, the farmstead had been acquired by the Skinner Brothers for coal mining; it was later strip mined by the Northern Illinois Coal Co. and today is within the cooling lake for the Braidwood Generating Station.

Timothy Keane

Timothy Keane was born in Ireland about 1818. As a young man learned the shoemaking trade. In 1847 he immigrated to the United States. After some time in Ottawa, Illinois, and Grundy County, Illinois, he settled on a 205-acre farm in section 4 of Reed Township in 1856. He married Mary Doulton, and they

[204] Woodruff et al. (1878), 759.
[205] Stevens (1907), 679–680.
[206] Woodruff et al. (1878), 754.
[207] Woodruff et al. (1878), 760.

had ten children. Mary died in 1873.[208] The land was purchased by the Northern Illinois Coal Company prior to 1940 and strip mined, leaving no evidence of the Keane family farmstead.

William Hennebry

The 1860 census lists William Hennebry, aged 40, along with his wife, Mary, aged 33, both born in Ireland, and their children Jane, David, Michael, and Margaret. Hennebry must have worked as a tenant farmer, as he does not appear on any plat maps or in listings of property owners in the township. In 1864, while digging a well at the Thomas Byron farmstead in the northeast quarter of section 5, Hennebry struck coal at a depth of about 80 feet below the surface.

James Braidwood

It was John H. Daniel who suggested naming the new settlement in honor of James Braidwood. Braidwood was born in Scotland on March 1, 1831, and worked in coal mines there from a young age. In October 1863, he arrived in the United States. In August 1865, he came to Reed Township to work in the newly developing coal mines there, where he was joined by his wife and children. He worked at first for the Chicago & Wilmington Coal Co., for which he sank the Eagle Shaft near the railroad depot in 1869. After a brief attempt at mining coal in Champaign County, he returned to Braidwood and opened his own coal mine in section 17 of Reed Township, the Braidwood Coal Co. He and his wife Ellen had twelve children. Their next oldest son, James, was struck by lightning on July 16, 1871, and killed. His son John R. Braidwood, born in Scotland in 1855, joined his father in working in the Braidwood mines in 1865. By 1878, John R. Braidwood worked as the manager and secretary of the Braidwood Coal Co.[209] The 1884 directory still lists the Braidwood family, but by 1893, the Braidwood Coal Co. had closed and the land had been sold for farming.

Connor/Carroll family

Bridget and Thomas Connor were natives of Ireland. Two sons were born to them, Thomas in 1837 and William in 1838. After Thomas the elder's death in 1842, Bridget remarried, to Patrick Carroll. Bridget and Patrick Carroll and the two Connor sons came to the United States in 1847, finally arriving in Joliet in 1848. The Carroll family initially settled in Wilmington Township. After Patrick Carroll's death in 1851, Bridget Carroll purchased 160 acres in section 4 of Reed Township and moved the family there in 1853.

Thomas Connor worked as a coal miner from a young age, and together with his brother William, he opened a meat market in Braidwood in 1870. In 1870, 1871, and 1874, William Connor served as township supervisor. The Connor brothers also acquired farmland in Reed Township; the 1873 atlas shows the property owned by their mother Bridget Carroll in section 4, and that Thomas Connor owned an adjacent 25 acre parcel in section 9. Bridget Carroll died in 1885. By 1893, the Connor brothers holdings in sections 4 and 9 had increased. By the first decade of the twentieth century, the Connor brothers owned 400 acres in Reed and Custer Townships in Will County; 240 acres in Essex Township in Kankakee County, including land leased by the Joliet & Wilmington Coal Co. for the Drue coal mine; farmland in Iowa; and 400 acres in Texas near the gulf coast. In 1904, Thomas and his wife Susan built a home in Braidwood and retired, living off the rental income from the farm property. Susan died in 1916, and Thomas lived until 1920.[210] William Connor married Mary Calahan in 1869, and they had four

[208] Woodruff et al. (1878), 756.
[209] Woodruff et al. (1878), 752–753.
[210] Thomas and Susan Connor are buried in Mount Olivet Cemetery. In the same plot are the graves of two sons, also named Thomas and William, who died in October 1882 at ages 7 and 5 respectively, as well as the graves of Ada (1885–1971), Agnes (1881–1978), Blanche (1887–1977), and Lucy Connor (1883–1975), who may be daughters of Thomas and Susan.

children (Thomas, William, Bernard and Mary).[211] In the twentieth century, the Connor family property in sections 4 and 9 was strip mined.

Roe Farmstead ***Site 388 (PIN 24-21-200-002)***

Thomas Roe, a native of Lancashire, England, immigrated to the United States in 1855 with his wife Sarah. They came to Reed Township in 1865 and by 1878 were farming 200 acres in section 21 of Reed Township. The couple had five children.[212] The original Roe family farmstead was located in the northwest quarter of section 21, just south of Mount Olivet Cemetery, in an area now within the cooling lake for the Braidwood Generating Station.

By 1893, other portions of sections 21 and 28 were owned by Henry Roe and Charles Roe, likely two sons of Thomas. The farmstead at site 388 was likely the home of Henry, who also owned the adjacent south half of section 22 (Custer Township). By 1909, the extensive Roe family holdings in sections 21, 28, 29, and 32 (Custer Township) were owned by the Henry Roe estate, Charles C. Roe, Thomas T. Roe, George Roe, William Roe, and Robert D. Roe, who owned farmstead site 388.

The 1918 directory lists four Roe family members, who may be grandsons of Thomas Roe. Charles C. Roe, born in 1888, his wife Josephine, and their sons William and Charles Jr., owned 240 acres and resided in section 28 of Reed Township. George L. Roe resided in section 34, Custer Township. Thomas T. Roe, born in 1875, and his wife Clara owned 160 acres in the southeast quarter of section 28. Lastly, Robert D. Roe, born in 1885, his wife Blanch, and their children Blanch, Edward, Dennis, and Dorothy, owned 260 acres and resided in section 21 of Reed Township. He also managed the 400 acre Henry Roe estate in section 29. The gable front house at site 388 was the Robert D. Roe family home. The Roe family farmstead has been redeveloped as a golf course. Due to a loss of historic integrity, the property is considered non-contributing.

[211] *Genealogical and Biographical Record* (1900), 277–278; Stevens (1907), 575–576. This Connor family is not related to John O. Connor, a mayor of Braidwood, elected in 1899. See *Genealogical and Biographical Record* (1900), 608–609.
[212] Woodruff et al. (1878), 763.

Kopecky–Powell Farmstead ***Site 358 (PIN 24-05-100-001)***

In the late nineteenth century, the land comprising this farmstead was owned by the Chicago, Wilmington, & Vermillion Coal Co. Although undocumented, it is possible that tenant farmers worked the land above the coal mines during this period. Around 1914, the farmstead was apparently acquired by the Kopecky family. The 1918 directory lists Frank Kopecky, along with his wife Katie and their children Mary and Milada, as the owner of 32 acres and indicates that he had been a resident of the county since 1914. The existing house on the site, a portion of which is brick masonry, likely dates to the 1910s. This is the only historic house included in the Reed Township survey that uses masonry for its wall construction. Kopecky is listed as the owner on plat maps of the township through 1953. Based on a historic aerial view from 1955, at the end of the Kopecky family's ownership, the site included a one-and-one-half story house, several smaller outbuildings, a crib barn, and a larger plank frame barn. The plank frame barn still existed in 1988 and is documented in the survey of that year, but has subsequently been demolished. All of the other historic outbuildings had been demolished prior to 1988.

By 1957, plat maps list Edward E. Powell as the owner. All of the existing outbuildings on the property have been built since the Powell family acquired the site. Also, a two-story front gable wing has been added to the house. The farm is still owned by the Powell family today.

Left above: The house at the site, built for Frank Kopecky and expanded by the Powell family. Right above: two of the outbuildings constructed by the Powell family starting in the late 1950s. Below: A view of the farmstead in 1955. The original one-and-one-half story house is as right; the major barn at left was documented in the 1988 survey.

Krathochvil–Bergera Farmstead ***Site 360 (PIN 24-05-203-003)***

In the late nineteenth century, the land comprising this farmstead was owned by the Chicago, Wilmington, & Vermillion Coal Co. Although undocumented, it is possible that tenant farmers worked the land above the coal mines during this period. According to historic plat maps and atlases, by 1902, the farmstead had been acquired by Joseph Kratochvil (1855–1914) and his wife Terezie (1857–1926). The existing upright-and-wing type house on the site, as well as the gambrel-roof plank frame barn and adjacent animal barn, were likely built by the Kratochvil family.

After a few changes of ownership, by 1948, the farm had been acquired by Thomas J. Bergera (1891–1969) and his wife Elizabeth (1893–1973). The farm is still owned by the Bergera family today. Since the 1988 survey, the farmhouse has been greatly renovated and expanded, with a new north side wing and front porch added. Two other outbuildings visible in the 1955 aerial view, a machine shed and a crib barn, were documented in 1988 but have subsequently been demolished.

Left above: The house at the site, significantly renovated since the 1988 survey. Right above: the plank frame barn on the site, which has been modified by the additional of two garage doors. Below left: the masonry animal barn adjacent to the main barn. Below right: A view of the farmstead in 1955. In addition to the three surviving buildings, there was also a crib barn and a machine shed located on the farmstead. All of these structures were likely built by the Kratochvil family.

Wesoloski–Markiel Farmstead ***Site 370 (PIN 24-18-100-025)***

In the nineteenth century, the land comprising this farmstead was owned by the Eureka Coal Co. Atlas maps indicate that it had been acquired by H. N. Roberts by 1893. In the early part of the twentieth century, the farm was owned by the Wesoloski family. The 1918 directory lists William Wesoloski, a resident of the county since 1883, his wife Pauline, and their children Thomas, Harriet, Anna, Frank, Helen, and Clarence. The farm included 125 acres.

By 1957, the farm had been acquired by Frank & John Markiel. It remains owned by the Markiel family today.

Left above: The upright and wing house at the site may have been built by the Wesoloski family. Right above: a relatively large early twentieth century machine shed remains at the site. Below left: one interesting structure on the site appears to be a reused railroad freight car. Below right: the farmstead includes two abandoned concrete stave silos and a number of contemporary manufactured buildings.

Hetzel–McCawley Farmstead ***Site 395 (PIN 24-18-300-006)***

According to historic maps and directories, this farmstead was owned by J. C. Hetzel from the 1880s into the first decade of the twentieth century. After several changes of ownership, by 1948, the farm had been acquired by Charles McCawley. It is still owned by the McCawley family today. Many of the existing buildings on the site, included the front gable house, were likely built for the McCawley family. A few structures, such as the root cellar, may date to the Hetzel family period of ownership.

Left above: The house at the Hetzel–McCawley Farmstead, site 395. Right above: The existing garage is a renovation of a small plank frame. Below left: the masonry root cellar at the site. Below right: one of the twentieth century outbuildings on the site.

Stracham–Obert Farmstead ***Site 376 (PIN 24-17-103-008)***

This farmstead was apparently newly developed in the early decades of the twentieth century by Thomas Stracham, on land formerly owned by William Hurry, an absentee landowner who resided in New York. By 1957, the farmstead had been acquired by James Obert. The existing gable front cottage and circa 1930s grain bins were likely built for Stracham.

Left: The house at site 376. Right: The site includes a number of circa 1930s era grain bins as well as other outbuildings constructed after the Obert family acquired the property.

Austin Farmstead ***Site 377 (PIN 24-17-200-002)***

This farmstead was first developed around 1900 by the Austin family. The 1918 directory lists William A. Austin, whose residence was located in section 16 of Reed Township, and his children George, Clara, Fred, William. The farmstead at this site may have originally been a tenant farm owned by the Austin family. By 1940, plat maps indicate that George Austin owned this site. In recent decades, it has been owned by the Appleton family. Most of the structures on the site are contemporary, but one wood-framed outbuilding remains from the Austin family period of ownership.

Buban Farmstead ***Site 393 (PIN 24-19-100-031)***

This farmstead may have been developed as a tenant farm in the early twentieth century under various owners. By the 1950s, it had been acquired by Thomas Buban, and it remains owned by the Buban family today. Of interest is the early twentieth century plank frame barn on the site.

Left : One historic outbuilding remains at the Austin Farmstead, site 377. Right: The plank frame barn at the Buban Farmstead, site 393.

Farmstead in the City of Braidwood ***Site 372 (PIN 24-07-304-005)***

Site 372 in the present survey is a small farmstead located at the northwest corner of Cook Street and Main Street in the City of Braidwood. Because this farmstead has been located within the corporate limits of Braidwood since its initial development, historic plat maps do not identify original or previous farmstead owners. The site includes a bungalow-type house and several outbuildings which likely date to the 1920s or 1930s.

Left: The property at Cook and Main in the City of Braidwood includes a good local example of a bungalow type house. Right: One of the outbuildings at the property.

Braidwood Electrical Substation ***Site 381 (PIN 24-17-200-001)***

Site 381 in the present survey is a brick masonry equipment building at an electrical substation in section 17 along Illinois Highway 53. The building is an interesting example of the use of Renaissance Revival architecture applied to a utility infrastructure building, with brick masonry walls and a clay tile covered hip roof with broad overhangs. The building likely dates to the 1910s or 1920s. The windows of the building are boarded up, and it appears disused.

Above: Two views of the Braidwood electrical substation.

Braidwood Depot ***Site 425 (PIN 24-08-401-069)***

The Braidwood depot was constructed by the Chicago & Alton Railroad in 1882, in place of an earlier depot on the same site. The building was originally located on the east side of the tracks, just north of Main Street where it crossed the tracks. To accommodate improvement of the railroad crossing and signals for passenger rail service on the line, the depot was relocated on June 28, 2009, to the northeast corner of Main and Center Streets. As part of the move, the building was rotated so that the original northwest (front) elevation now faces south. The Braidwood Area Historical Society now owns the building and has prepared plans to convert the interior into a local history museum and public meeting room.

Left: The Braidwood depot, after 1882. Right: The depot today at its new site, the northeast corner of Main Street and Center Street.

Left: The Braidwood depot crosses the tracks, June 28, 2009. Right: The depot moves west down Main Street, June 28, 2009. Photos courtesy of Braidwood Area Historical Society.

Left: The Braidwood arrives at its new site, June 28, 2009. Right: Construction of a new foundation under the building, September 2009. Photos courtesy of Braidwood Area Historical Society.

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In 1988, Will County performed a survey of unincorporated rural areas, documenting approximately 4,867 structures dating from before 1945. The documentation, performed by architect Michael A. Lambert, consisted of black and white photographs and a completed information card utilizing a format established by the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency. Recorded information included the approximate age, architectural style, construction materials, noticeable additions or alterations, and overall condition of the structure. For most sites, survey data was gathered from the public right-of-way. In addition to the survey a report was prepared, "Historic Structures of Will County," dated 1991. The report examined the overall rural themes present in the county and identification of noteworthy structures.

In 1999, the Will County Land Use Department, acting as liaison for the Will County Historic Preservation Commission, engaged Wiss, Janney, Elstner Associates, Inc. to perform an intensive survey of Wheatland, Plainfield, and Lockport Townships in northwest Will County, Illinois. In 2001, an intensive survey was performed of Du Page Township in Will County, followed by Homer Township in 2002; New Lenox Township in 2003; Green Garden Township in 2004; Manhattan Township in 2006; Frankfort Township in 2007; Joliet and Troy Townships in 2009; Channahon Township, Jackson Township, and Wilmington Township in 2009. The resulting reports from these surveys were used as a basis for developing this report.

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GLOSSARY

abutment. A masonry mass (or the like) which receives the thrust of an arch, vault, or strut.

adaptive reuse. The conversion or functional change of a building from the purpose or use for which it was originally constructed or designed. Such conversions are accomplished with varying degrees of alterations to the building. The more change that is necessary, the less likely that particular new use is appropriate for a historic building.

addition. An extension or increase in floor area, number of stories, or height of a building or structure.

arch. A curved construction which spans an opening; usually consists of wedge-shaped blocks call voussoirs, or a curved or pointed structural member which is supported at the sides or ends. Arches vary in shape from semicircular and semi-elliptical to bluntly or acutely pointed arches.

architectural conservation. The science of preserving architecture and its historic fabric by observing and analyzing the evolution, deterioration, and care of structures; the conducting of investigations to determine the cause, effect, and solution of structural problems; and the directing of remedial interventions focused on maintaining the integrity and quality of historic fabric.

balloon frame. A system of framing a wooden building where all vertical structural elements of the exterior walls and partitions consist of light single studs (usually 2x4, but sometimes larger) which may extend the full height of the frame and are fastened by nails to the studs. Balloon framing differs from a braced frame in that a balloon framed wall acts as a bearing wall and does not rely on posts and beams to support joists.

baluster. One of a number of short vertical members, often circular in section used to support a stair, porch, or balcony handrail or a coping.

balustrade. An entire railing system (as along the edge of a balcony) including a top rail and its balusters, and sometimes a bottom rail.

barrel vault. A masonry vault of plain, semicircular cross section, supported by parallel walls or arcades and adapted to longitudinal areas.

bay. one architectural subdivision of a wall, roof, or structure marked by repetition of similar elements, such as columns or windows.

beam. A horizontal structural member whose prime function is to carry transverse loads, as a joist, girder, rafter, or purlin

brick. A solid or hollow masonry unit of clay or shale, molded into a rectangular shape while plastic, and then burnt in a kiln

column. A slender vertical element carrying compressive loads from other structural elements above.

contributing. A historic property which retains historical integrity and forms a part of a grouping of related properties

corbel. In masonry, a projection or one of a series of projections, each stepped progressively farther forward with height; anchored in a wall, story, column, or chimney; used to support an overhanging member above or, if continuous, to support overhanging courses

cornice. The exterior trim of a structure at the meeting of the roof and wall or at the top of the wall in the case of a parapet, usually consisting of bed molding, soffit, fascia, and crown molding; any molded projection which crowns or finishes the part to which it is affixed; the third or uppermost division of an entablature, resting on the frieze; an ornamental molding, usually of wood or plaster, running round the walls of a room just below the ceiling; a crown molding; the molding forming the top member of a door or window frame

course. a continuous horizontal range of masonry units such as bricks, as in a wall.

dormer. a projecting structure built out from a sloping roof, usually containing a vertical window or louver.

elevation. A drawing showing the vertical elements of a building, either exterior or interior, as a direct projection of the vertical plane; also used for the exterior walls of a building other than the facade (front).

fabric. The structural and material portions that make up the building (frames, walls, floors, roof, etc.).

facade. The exterior face of a building which is the architectural front, sometimes distinguished from the other faces by elaboration of architectural or ornamental details.

gable. The vertical triangular portion of wall at the end of a building having a double-sloping roof, from the level of the cornice or eaves to the ridge of the roof.

gambrel. A roof which has two pitches on each side.

hip. A roof which has equal pitches on all sides of a building.

integrity. A district, site, building, structure, or object with intact original location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, to an extent that its historic character is discernible.

joist. One of a series of parallel beams of timber, reinforced concrete, or steel used to support floor and ceiling loads, and supported in turn by larger beams, girders, or bearing walls; the widest dimension is vertically oriented.

landmark. A property or district which has been designated by a government entity as possessing historic significance.

lintel. A horizontal structural member (such as a beam) over an opening which carries the weight of the wall above.

mansard. A roof having a double slope on four or more sides of the building, the lower slope being much steeper.

mortar. A mixture of cementitious materials (such as cement and/or lime) with water and a fine aggregate (such as sand); can be troweled in the plastic state; hardens in place. When used in masonry construction, the mixture may contain masonry cement or ordinary hydraulic cement with lime (and often other admixtures) to increase its plasticity and durability.

mortise. A hole, cavity, notch, slot, or recess cut into a timber or piece of other material; usually receives a tenon, but also has other purposes, as to receive a lock.

National Register of Historic Places. The official list of the Nation's cultural resources worthy of preservation. The National Register includes districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that are significant in American history, architecture, archeology, engineering, and cultures.

National Historic Landmark (NHL). Historic and archeological sites, buildings, and objects possessing exceptional value as commemorating or illustrating the history of the United States. NHLs are buildings, sites, districts, structures, and objects are of exceptional national significance in American history and culture.

non-contributing. A property physically located within a historic district or area of study which does not relate to the defined criteria of historic significance for the area.

parapet. A low guarding wall at any point of sudden drop, as at the edge of a terrace, roof, battlement, balcony, etc; in an exterior wall, fire wall, or party wall, the part entirely above the roof.

pointing. In masonry, the final treatment of joints by the troweling of mortar into the joints. The removal of mortar from between the joints of masonry units and the replacing of it with new mortar is properly called “repointing.”

pyramidal. A hip roof in which all planes of the roof come together at a single point.

rehabilitation. Returning a property to a state of usefulness through repair or alteration which makes possible an efficient contemporary use while preserving those portions or features of the property which are significant to its historical, architectural, and cultural values.

restoration. Accurately recovering the form and details of a property and its setting as it appeared at a particular period of time by means of the removal of later work or by replacement of missing earlier work.

ridge. The horizontal line at the junction of the upper edges of two sloping roof surfaces.

shed. A roof consisting of a single, sloping plane.

significant. A district, site, building, structure, or object that has integrity and that is associated with historical events or patterns of events; or that are associated with the lives of significant persons; or that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, style, period, or method construction, or possess high artistic values.

sill. A horizontal timber, at the bottom of the frame of a wooden structure, which rests on the foundation; the horizontal bottom member of a window or door frame.

spandrel. In a multistory building, a wall panel filling the space between the top of the window in one story and the sill of the window in the story above.

stabilization. Applying measures designed to reestablish a weather-resistant enclosure and the structural stability of an unsafe or deteriorated property while maintaining the essential form as it exists at present.

stud. An upright post or support, especially one of a series of vertical structural members which act as the supporting elements in a wall or partition.

tenon. The projecting end of a piece of wood, or other material, which is reduced in cross section, so that it may be inserted in a corresponding cavity (mortise) in another piece in order to form a secure joint.

tension. The state or condition of being pulled or stretched.

truss. A structure composed of a combination of members that resist axial loads, usually in some triangular arrangement so as to constitute a rigid framework.

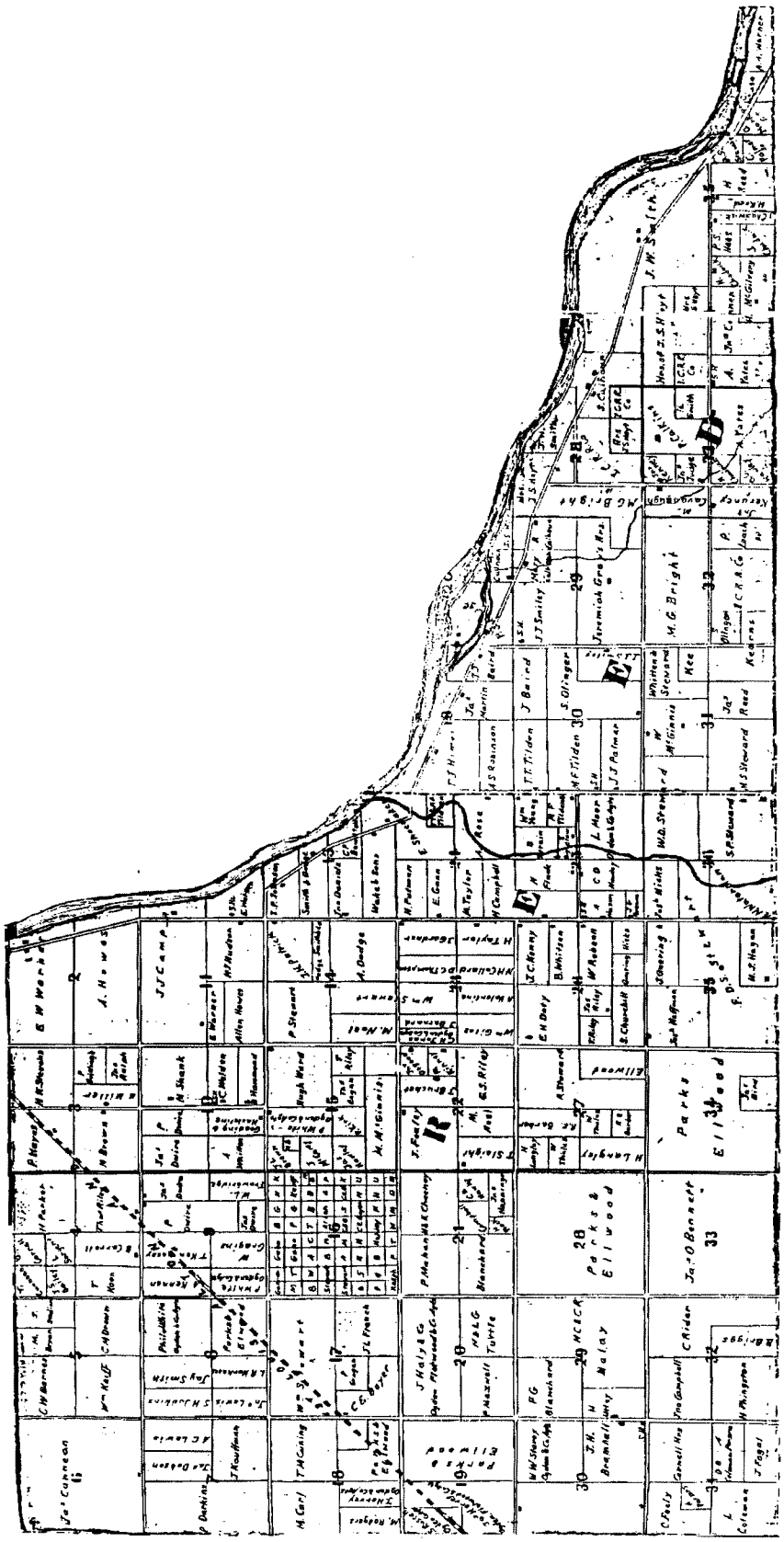
vault. A masonry covering over an area which uses the principle of the arch.

wythe. One thickness of brick or other masonry material in a wall, commonly about 4 inches.

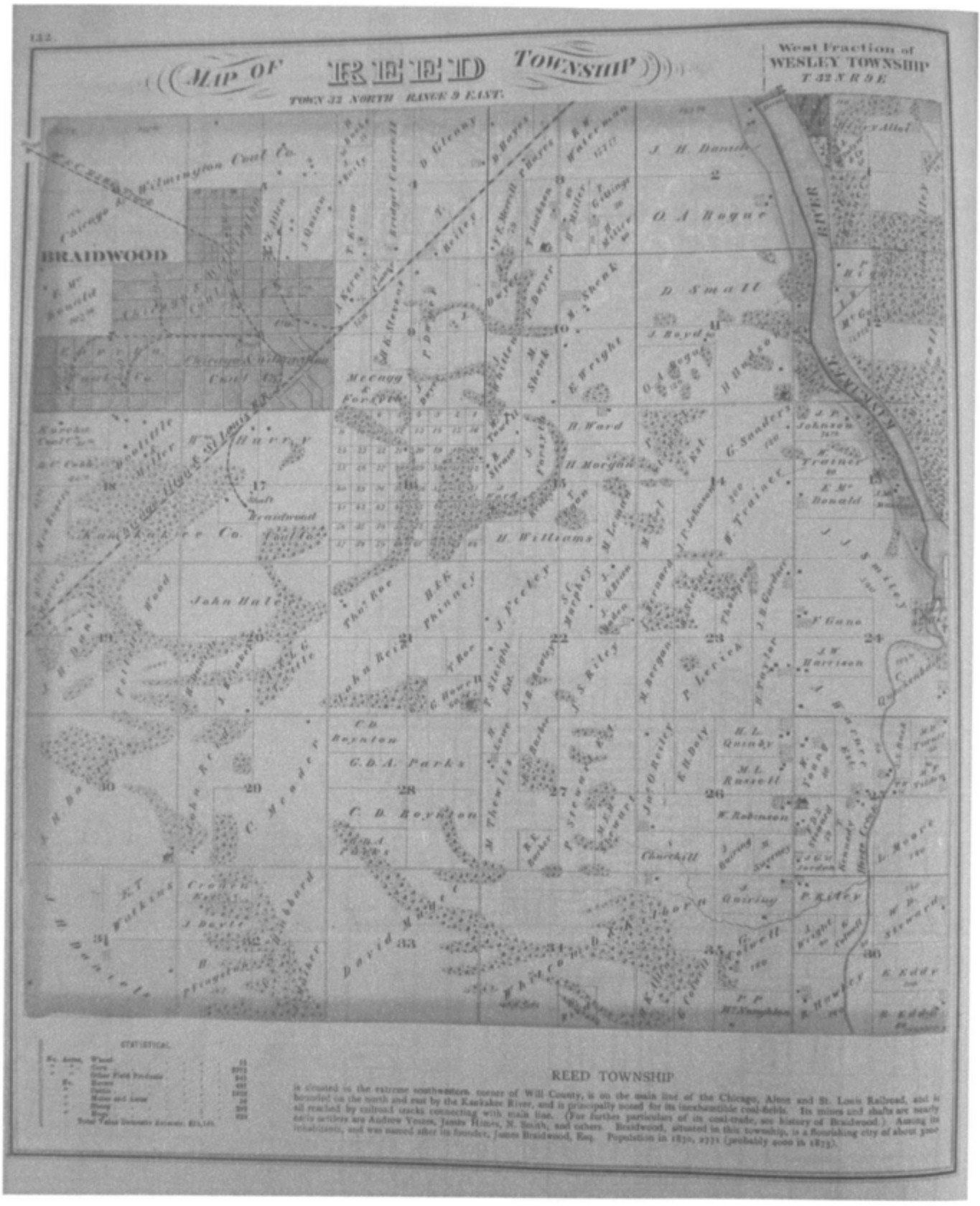
APPENDIX A

HISTORIC PLAT MAPS

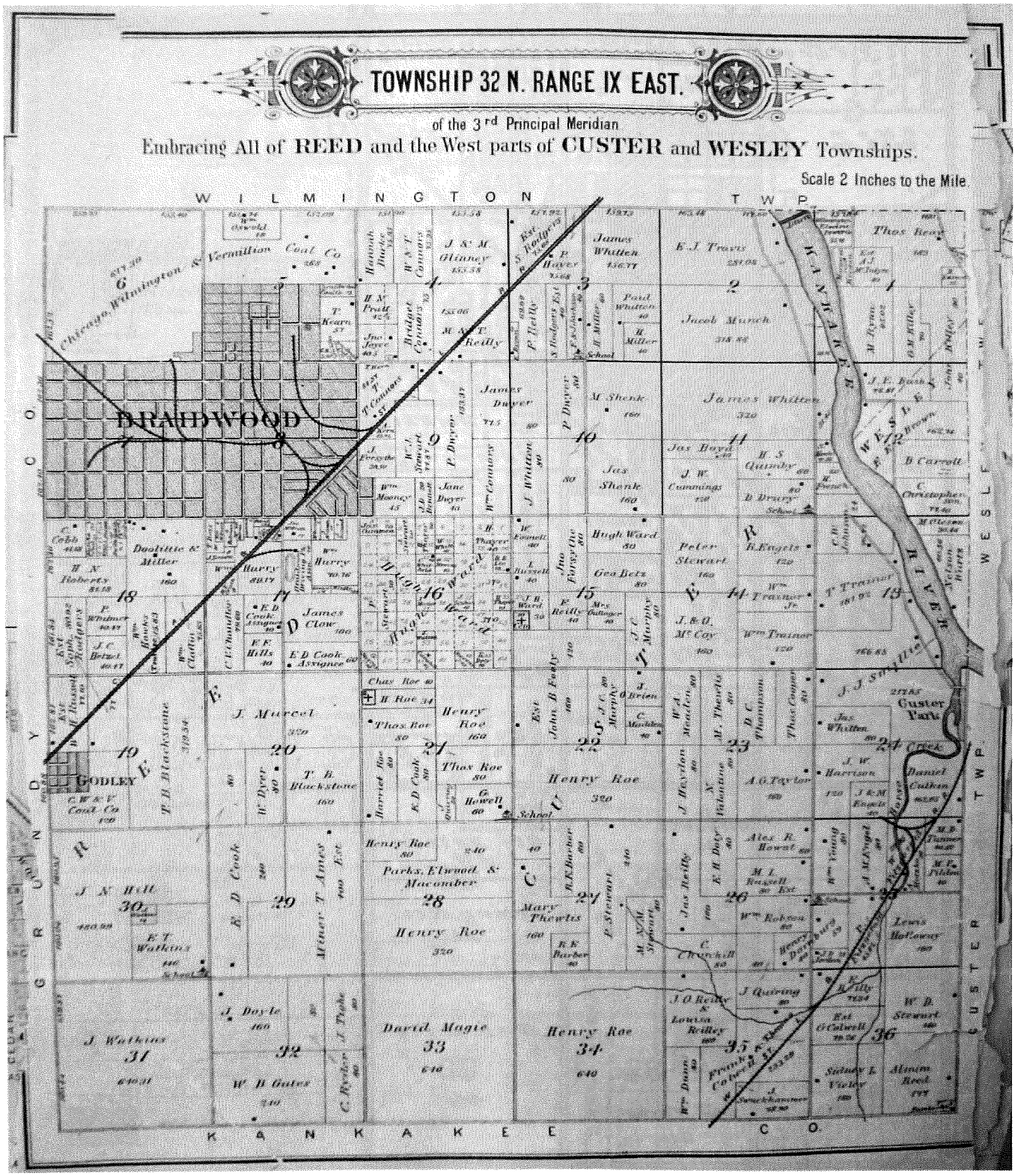
This appendix contains historic farm atlas and plat maps for Reed Township. Refer to Bibliography for map sources.



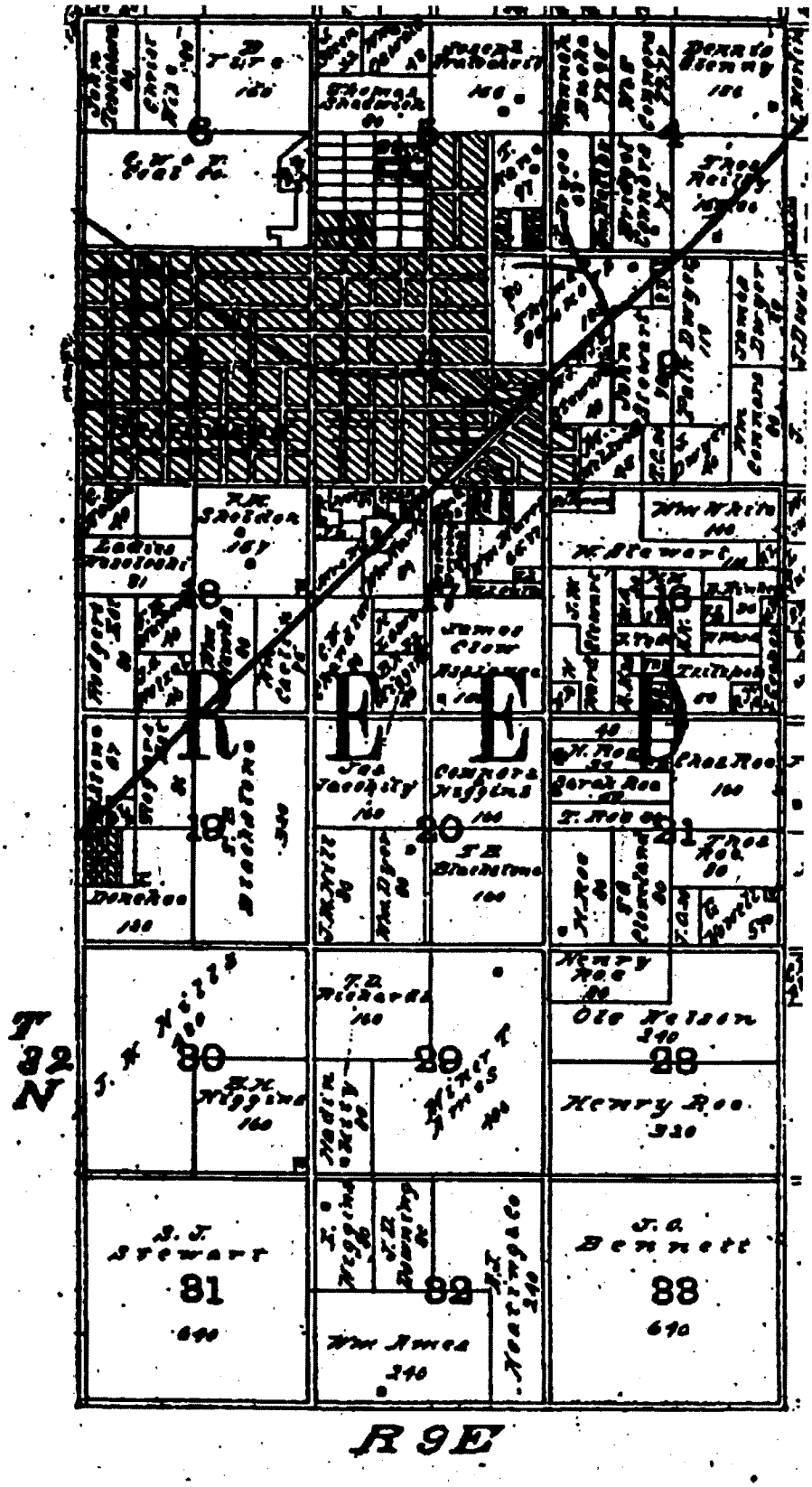
Reed Township 1862 (north is to the left).



Reed Township 1873

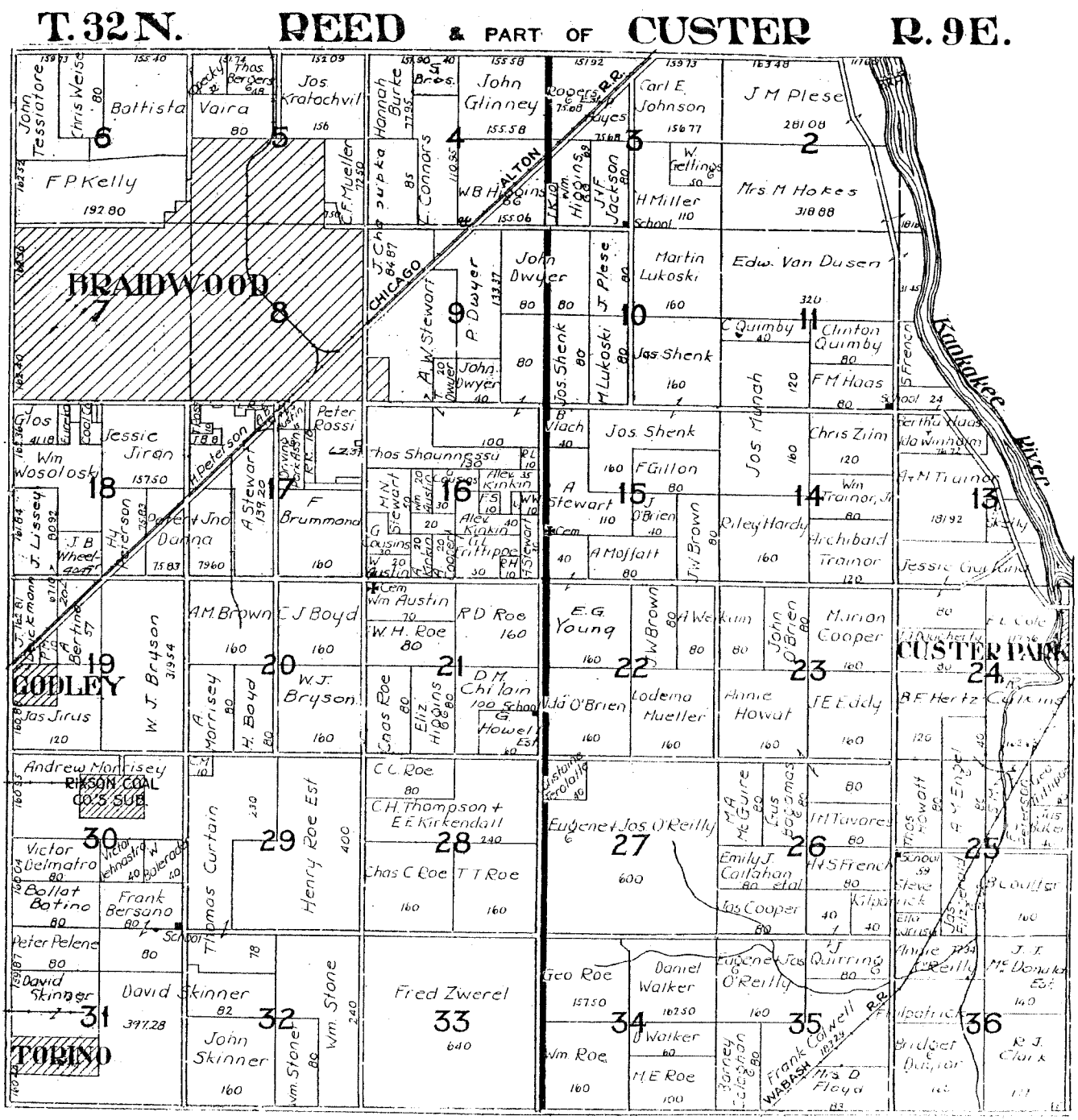


Reed and western Custer Townships, 1893

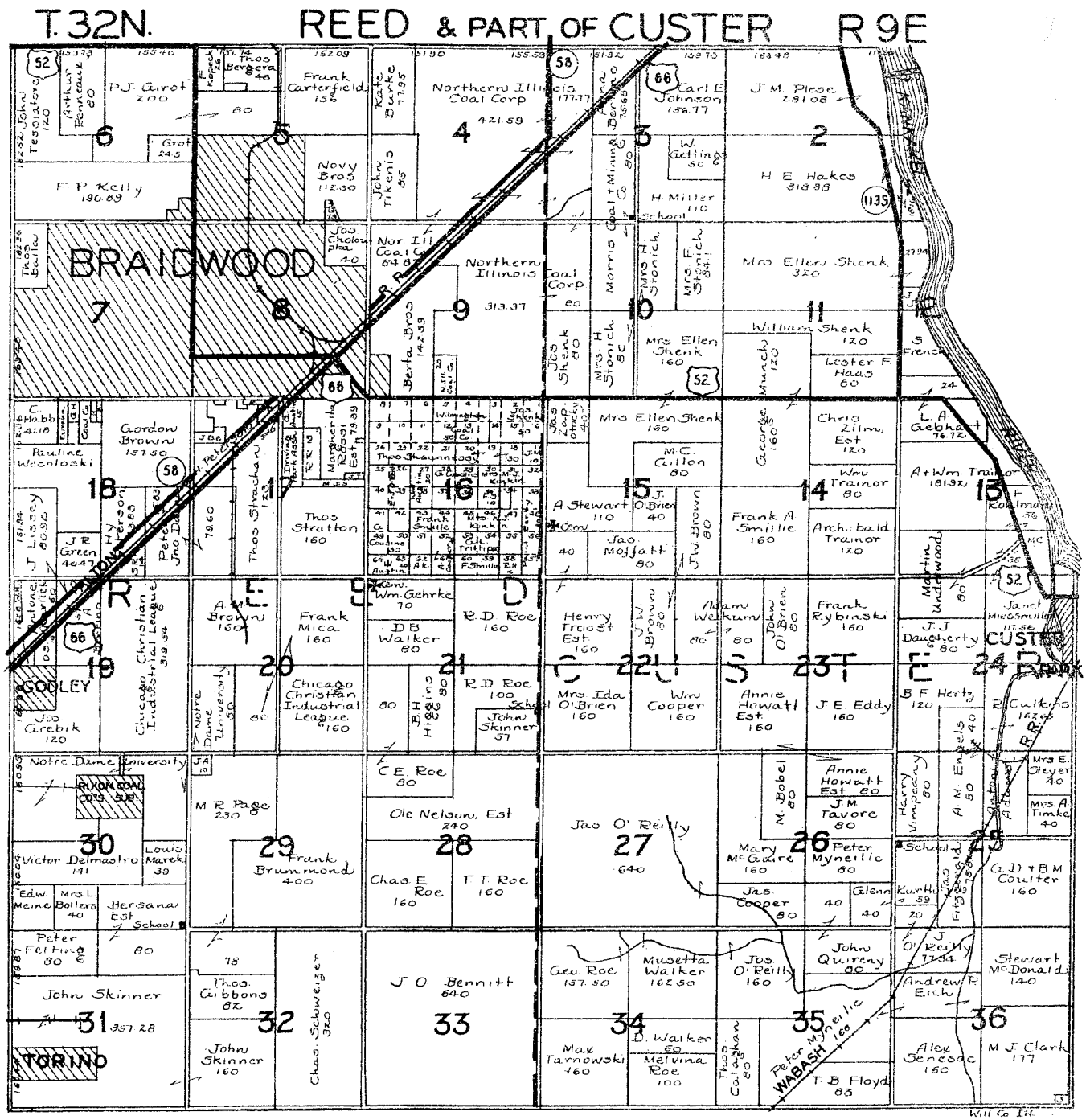


Reed Township 1902

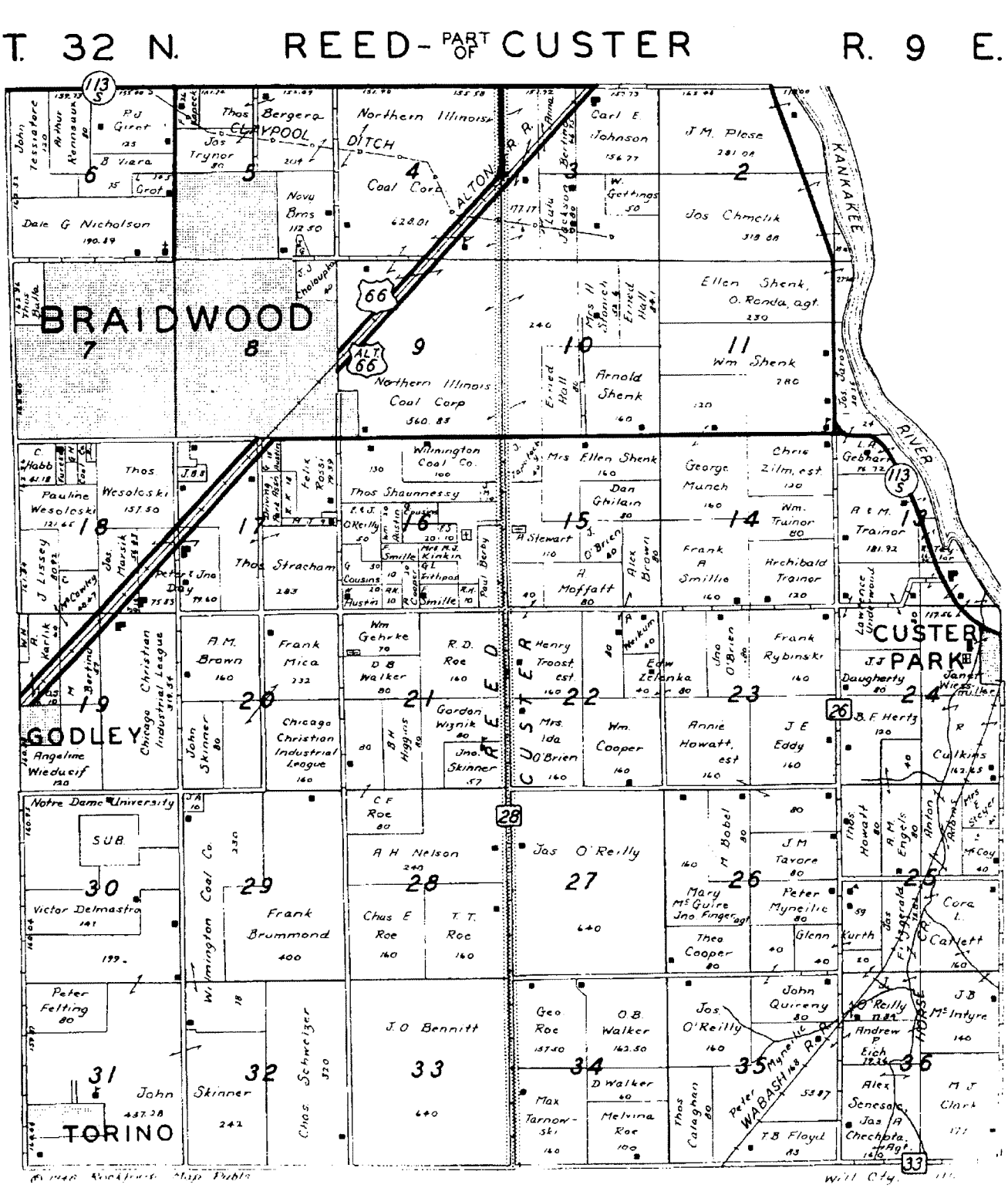
Reed and western Custer Townships1909



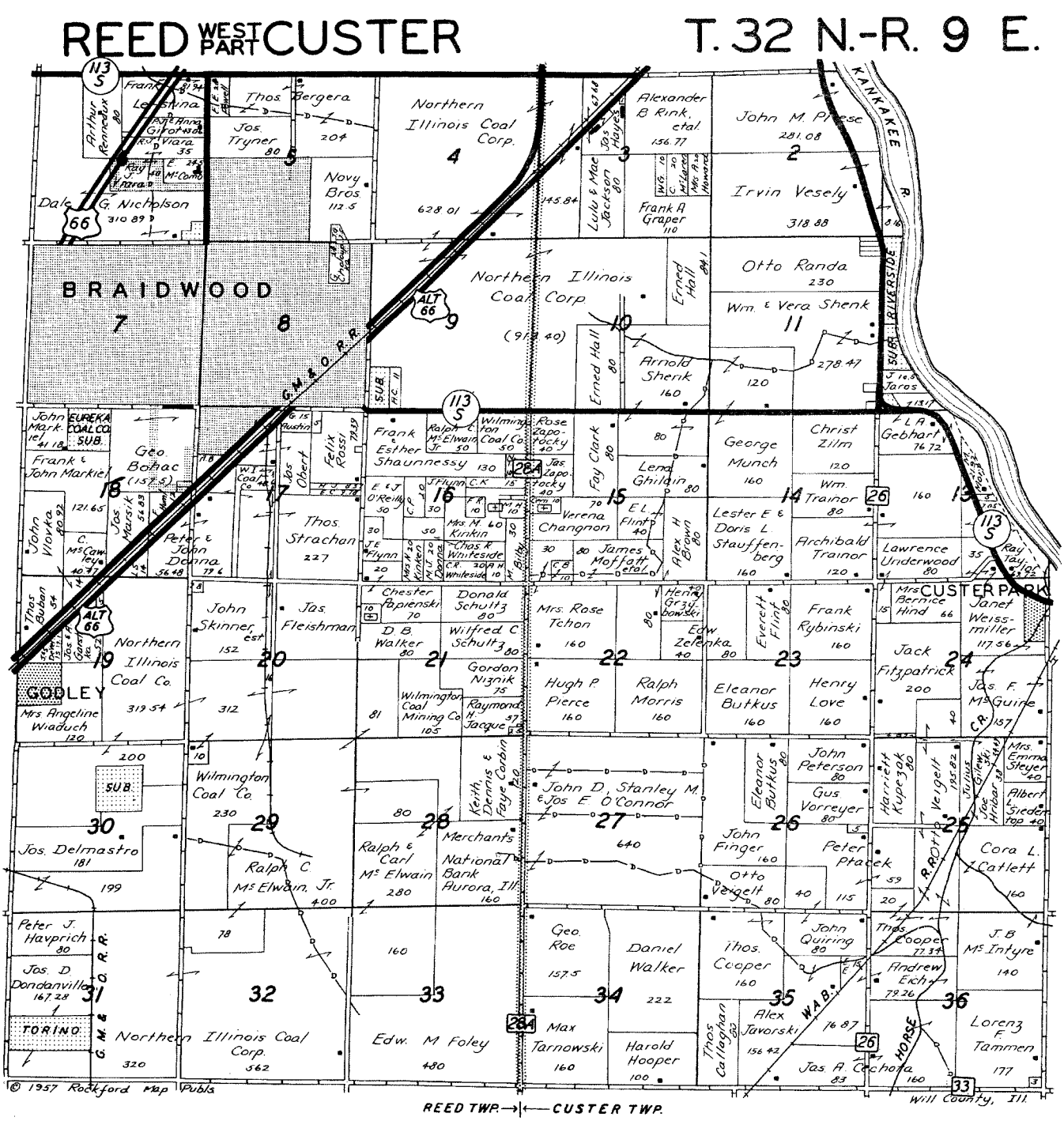
Reed and western Custer Townships 1920s



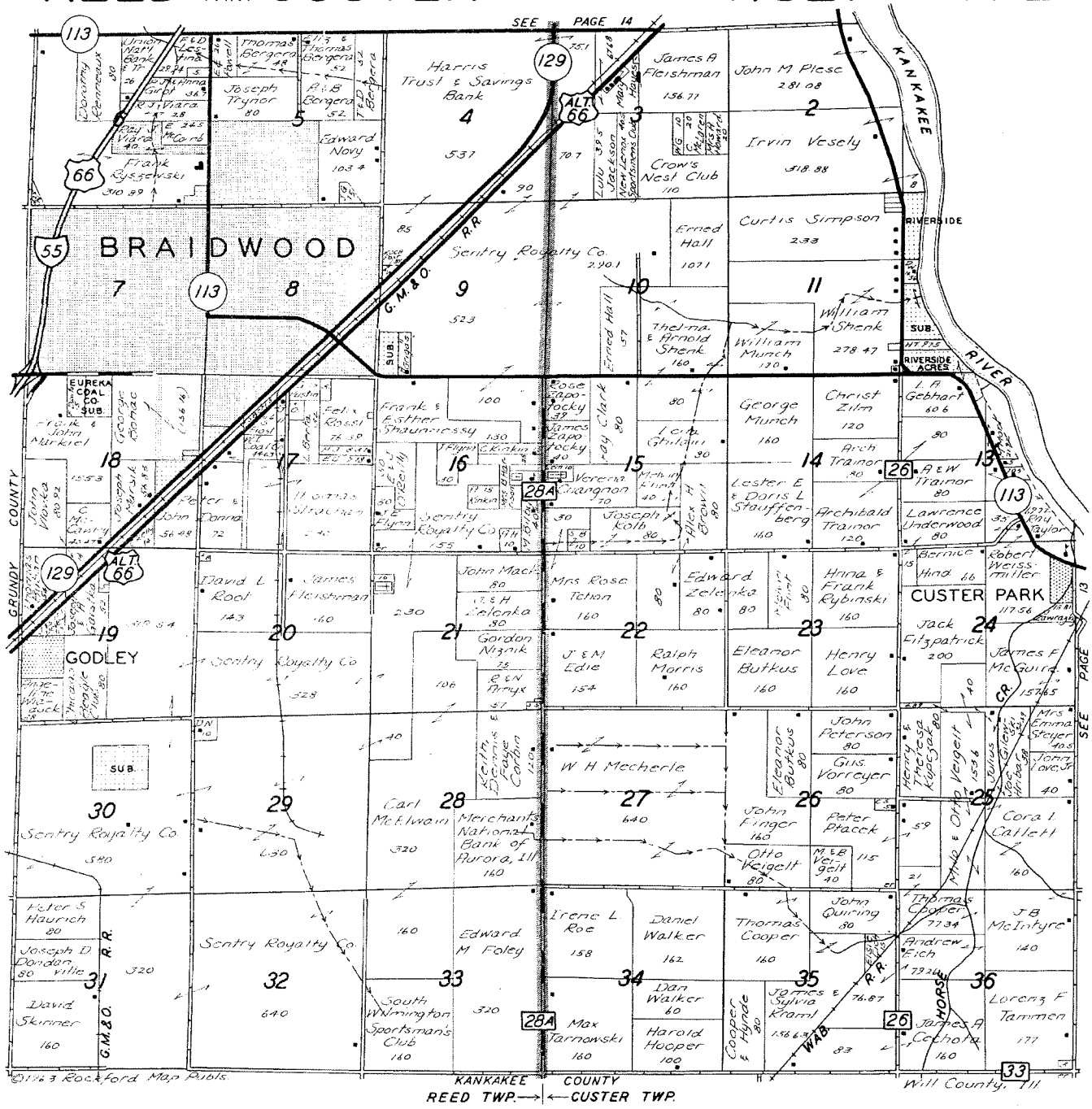
Reed and western Custer Townships circa 1940



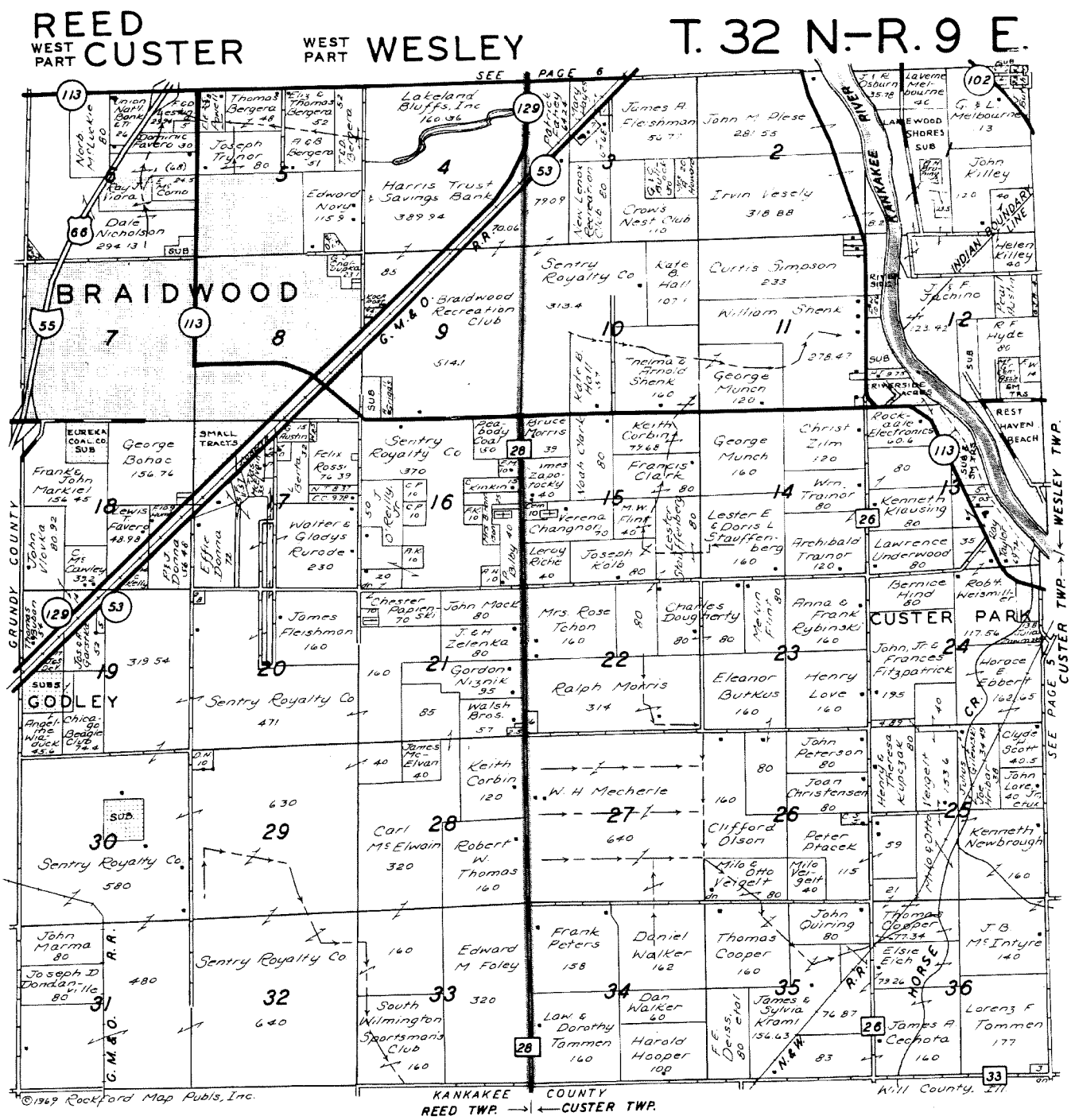
Reed and western Custer Townships 1948



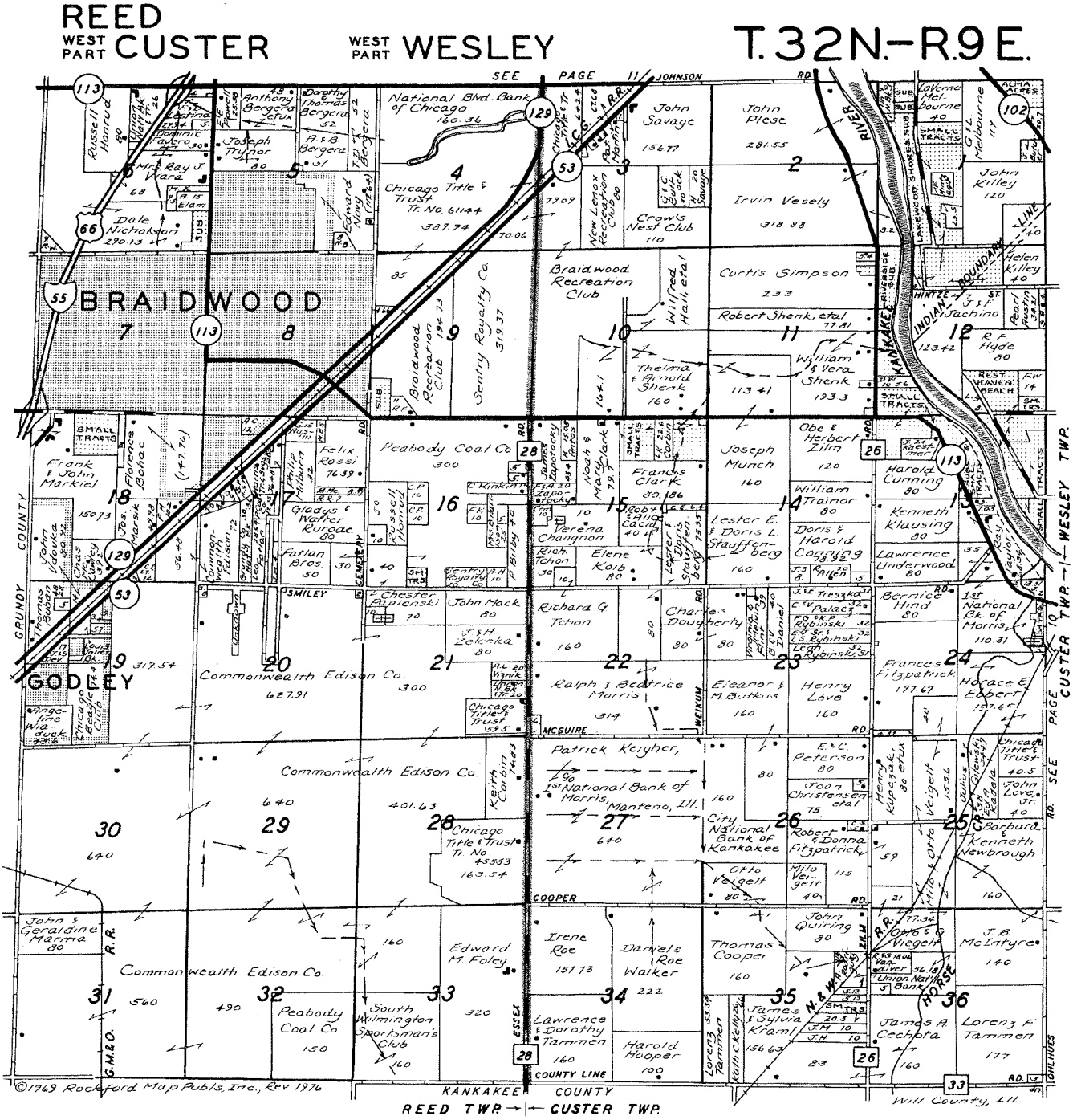
Reed and western Custer Townships 1957



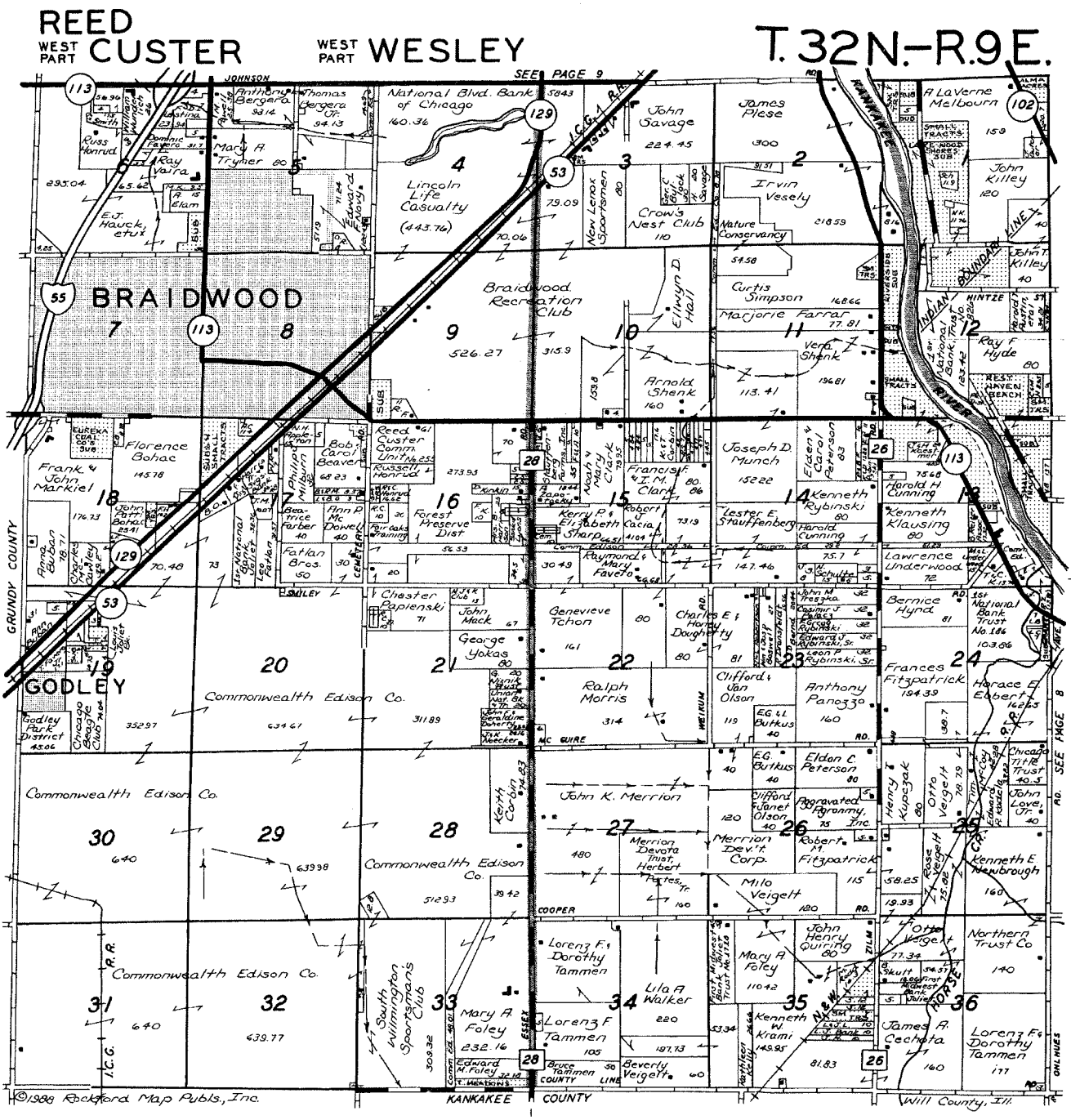
Reed and western Custer Townships 1963



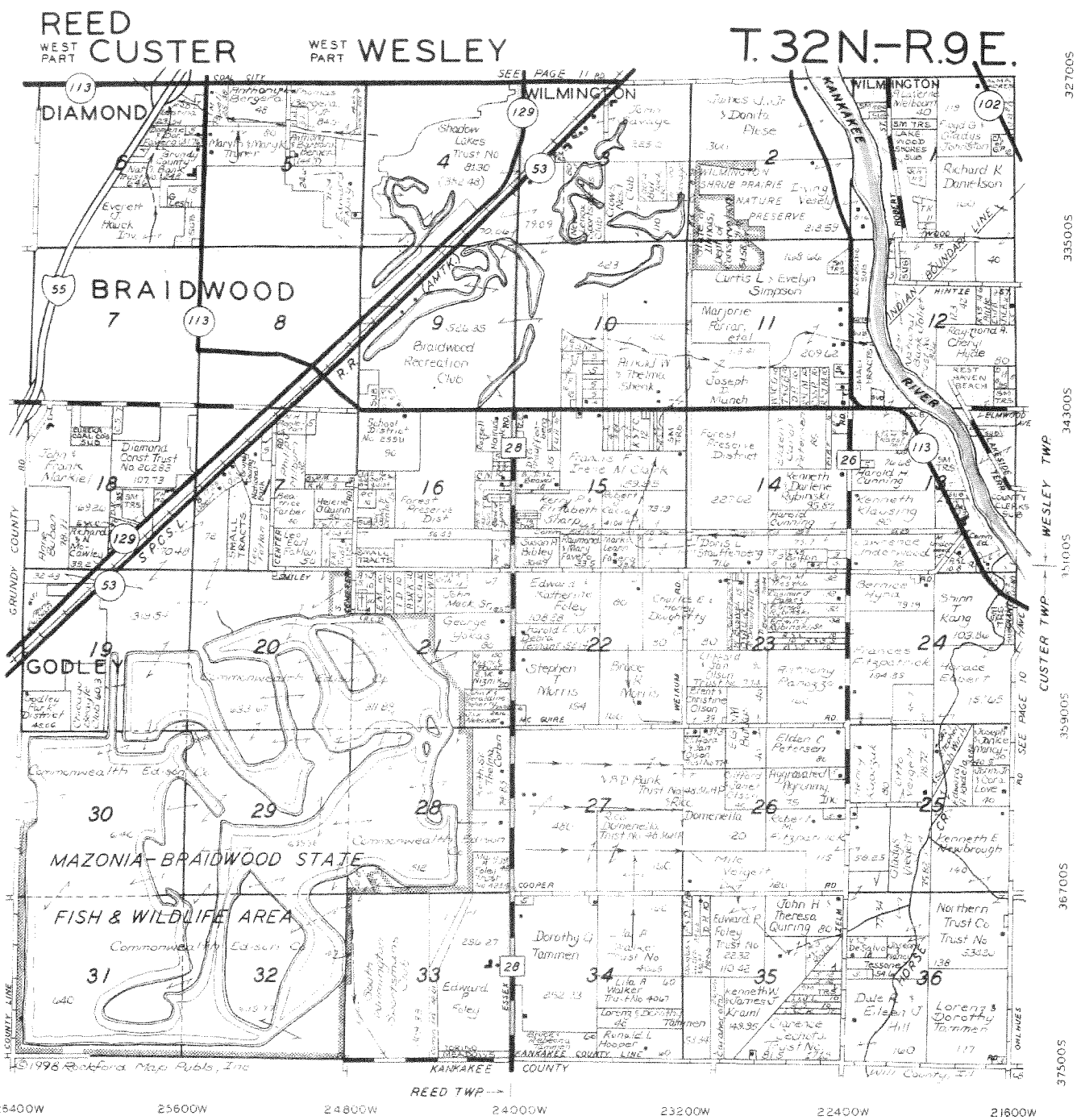
Reed and western Custer Townships 1969



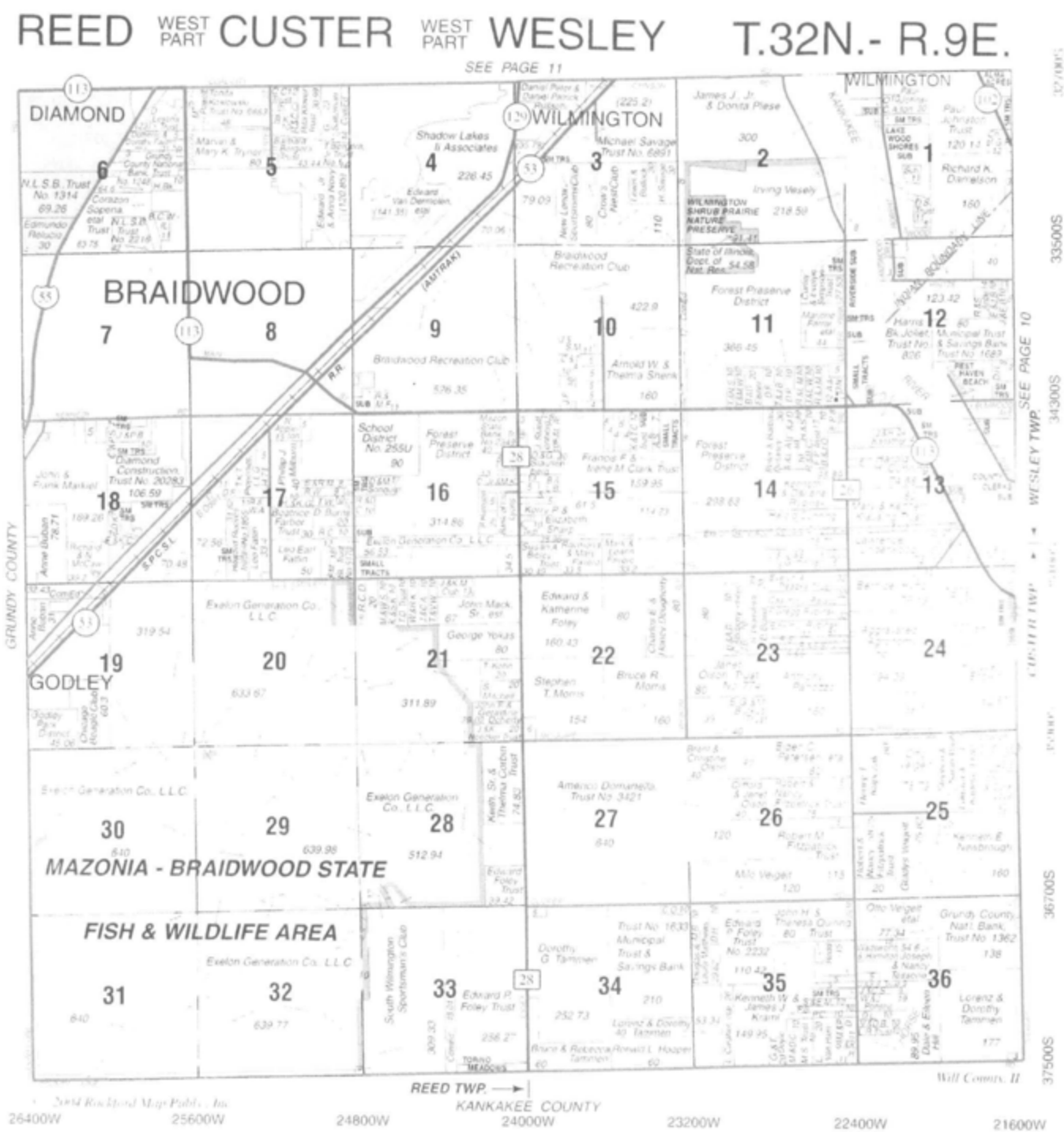
Reed and western Custer Townships 1976



Reed and western Custer Townships 1988



Reed and western Custer Townships 1998



Reed and western Custer Townships 2005

APPENDIX B

SURVEY MAPS

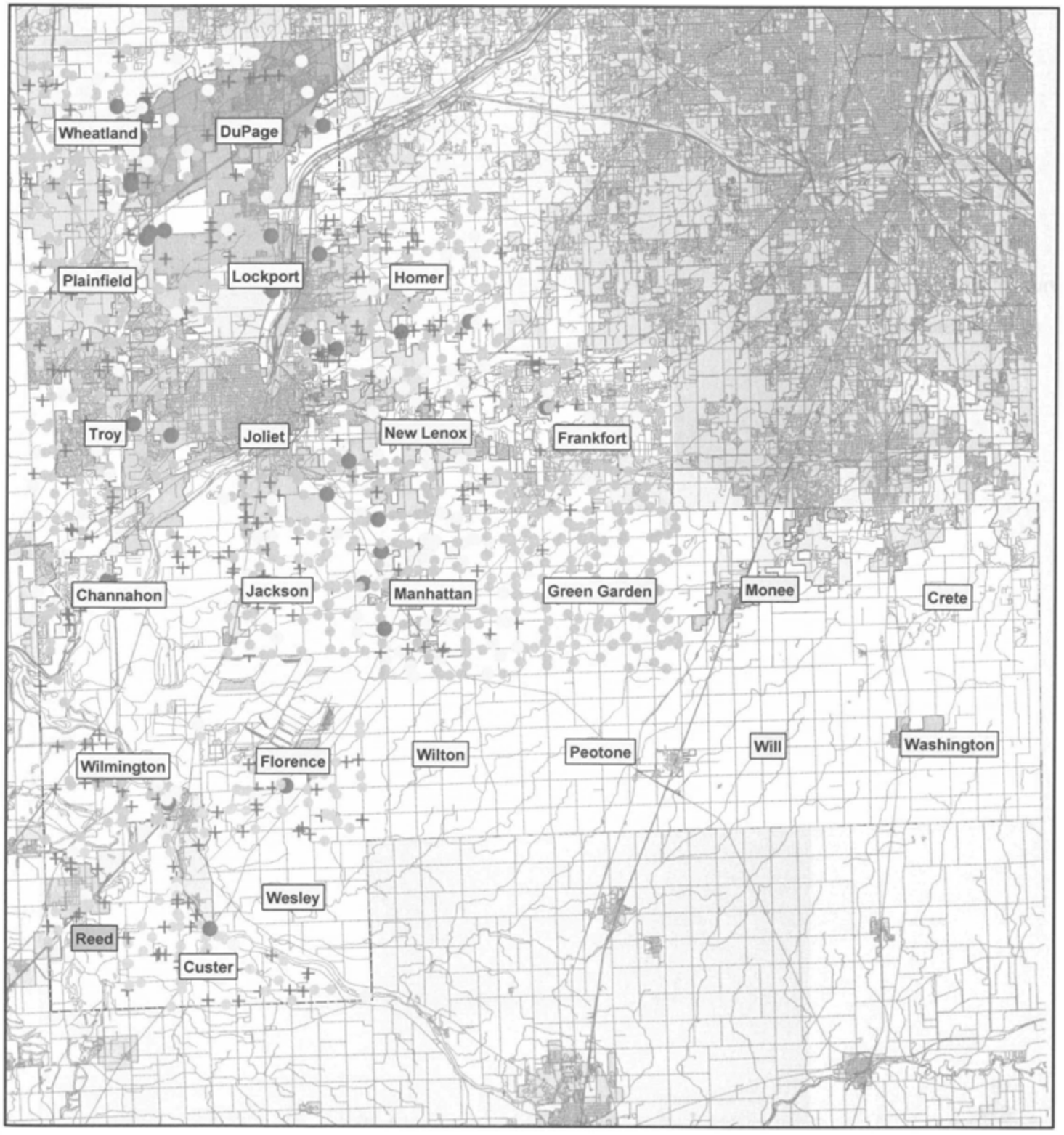
The following maps were generated as part of this study using ArcGIS software. The background aerial photography and baseline maps were downloaded from the Illinois Natural Resources Geospatial Data Clearinghouse internet site <http://www.isgs.uiuc.edu/nsdihome/>. The contemporary aerial photographic imagery that forms the background for Maps 2 and 3 is dated July and August 2009. The historic aerial photography of Map 4 is dated July 11, July 14, and August 4, 1939.

This appendix contains:

Key to Properties by Map ID Number

ID	PIN Number	Address	Name	Significance of Site
349	24-06-100-004	Coal City Road	Weise–Renneaux Farmstead	Not assessed
350	24-06-200-007	1170 Division Street	Vaira–Girot Farmstead	Contributing
351	24-06-400-042	956 Division Street	Nicholson Farmstead	Non-contributing
357	24-06-200-012	1360 Division Street	Lestina Farmstead	Non-contributing
358	24-05-100-001	494 Coal City Road	Kopecky–Powell Farmstead	Local landmark potential
360	24-05-203-003	1455 Center Street	Krathochvil–Bergera Farmstead	Contributing
361	24-05-403-005	33304 Novy Road	Novy Farmstead	Non-contributing
370	24-18-100-025	26125 Kennedy Road	Wosoloski–Markiel Farmstead	Contributing
372	24-07-304-005	1022 Main Street	—	Contributing
375	24-17-100-043	365 S. Division Street	J. Brown Farmstead	Contributing
376	24-17-103-008	34418 Center Street	Stracham–Obert Farmstead	Contributing
377	24-17-200-002	Illinois Highway 53	Austin Farmstead	Contributing
378	24-09-300-002	Reed Street (Illinois Highway 113)	Deer Farm	Non-contributing
379	24-17-103-002	Illinois Highway 53	Frost family residence	Non-contributing
380	24-17-103-006	34636 Illinois Highway 53	Strachan Farmstead	Non-contributing
381	24-17-200-001	Center Street	Braidwood Electrical Substation	Contributing
388	24-21-200-002	Essex Road	Roe Farmstead	Non-contributing
389	24-28-200-003	Essex Road	Nelson–Corbin Farmstead	Contributing
391	24-33-200-004	Essex Road	Foley Farmstead	Non-contributing
393	24-19-100-031	Kankakee Road	Buban Farmstead	Contributing
395	24-18-300-006	35020 Illinois Highway 129	Hetzel–McCawley Farmstead	Contributing
397	24-18-300-005	Kankakee Road	Lissey–Vlovka Farmstead	Non-contributing
425	24-08-401-069	Main Street	Braidwood Depot	Local landmark potential
426	24-06-400-027	794 Division Street	Vaira Farmstead	Non-contributing

REED TOWNSHIP
Map 1: Will County Key Map



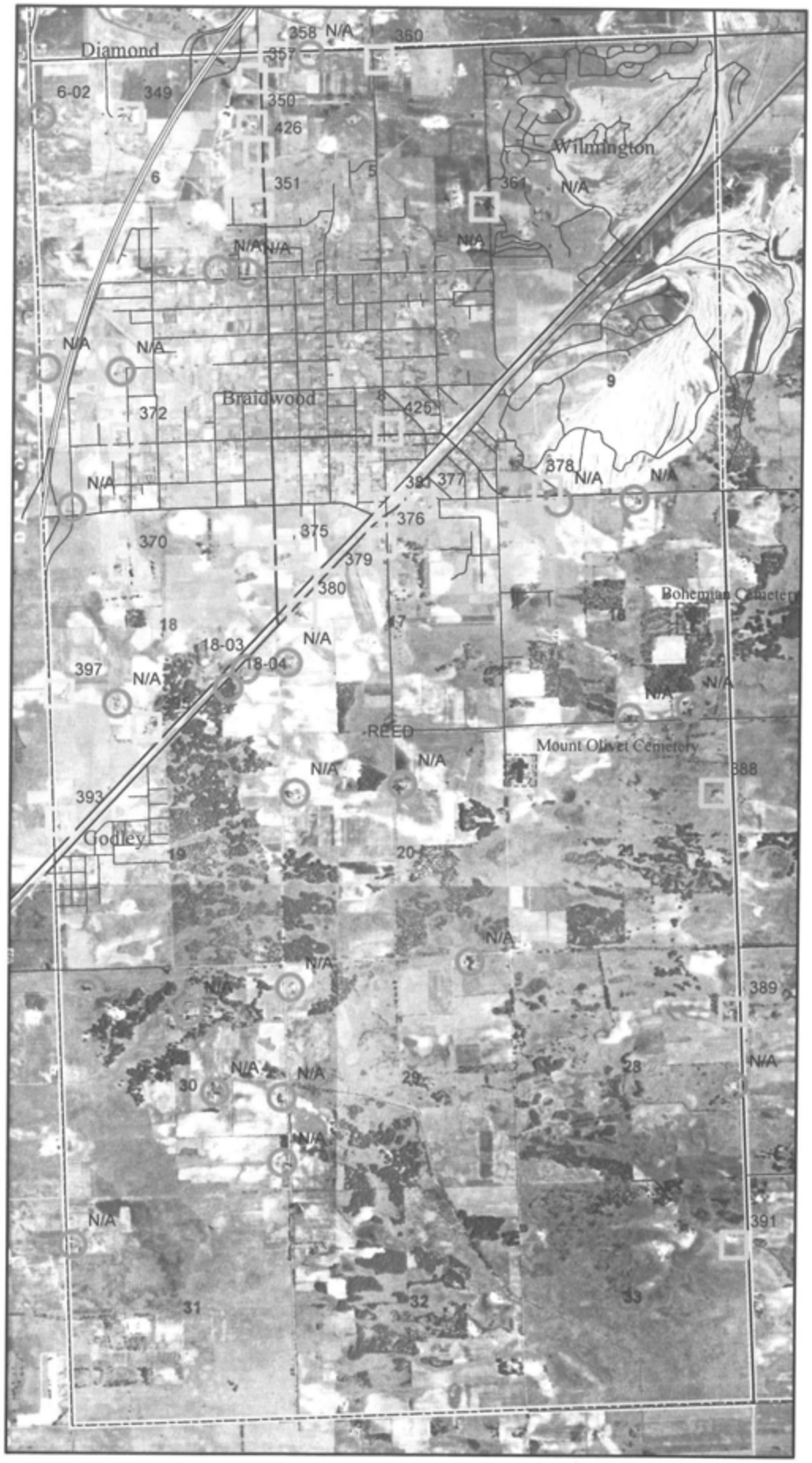
REED TOWNSHIP Map 2: Overview of Survey

- ✕ Demolished site
- Existing site
- ✝ Historic cemetery
- ? Inaccessible for survey
- ✓ Relocated building

REED TOWNSHIP Map 3: Significance of Sites

Signficance

- Local landmark potential
- Contributing
- Non-contributing
- Cemetery



REED TOWNSHIP Map 4: 1939 Aerial Photography

- Demolished site
- Existing site
- Historic cemetery

N
W E
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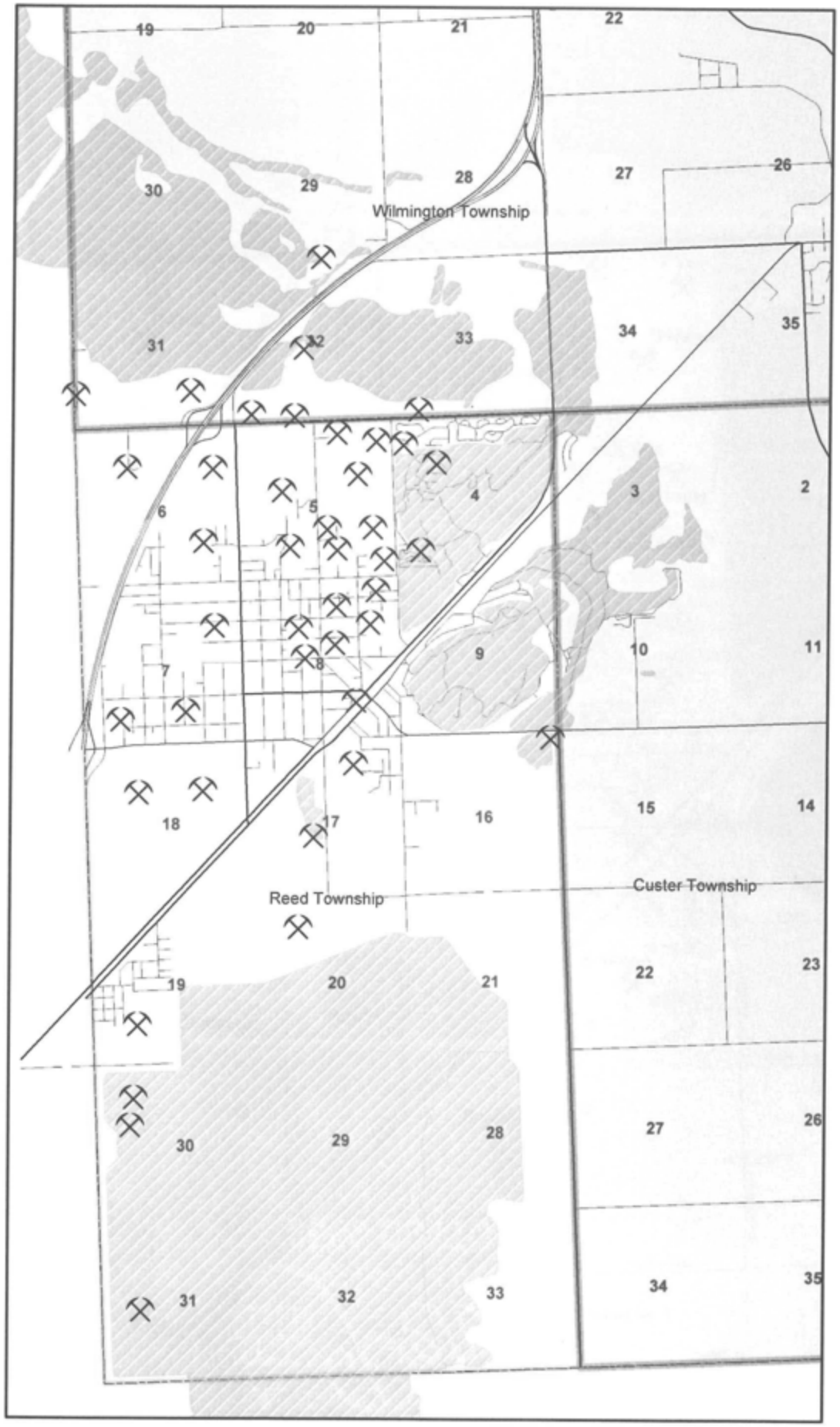
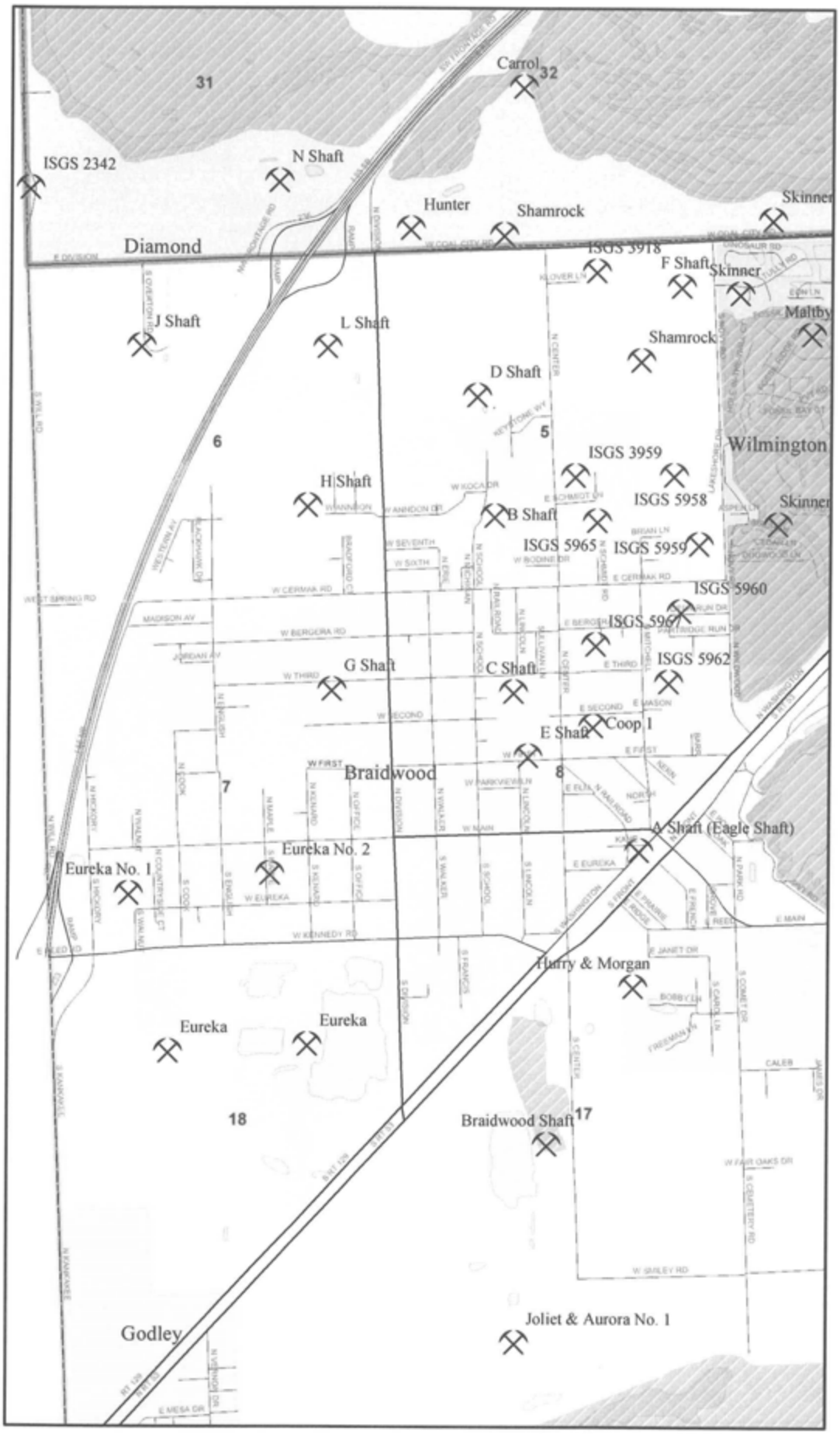


REED TOWNSHIP Map 5: Coal Mining in Will County

Mine Shafts

Strip Mining



REED TOWNSHIP Map 6: Braidwood Coal Mines

Mine Shafts

Strip Mining